

2

INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR

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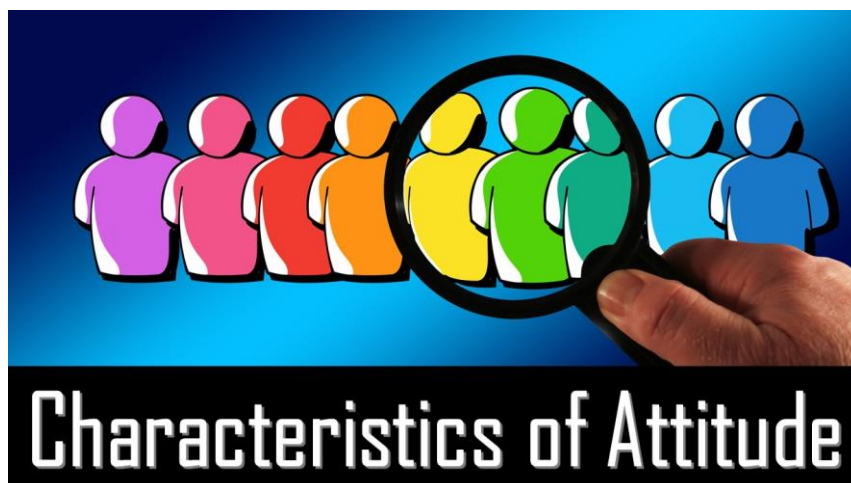
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2.1 Attitude



- An attitude is generally defined as the way a person responds to his or her environment, either positively or negatively.
- An attitude is a positive, negative, or mixed evaluation of an object expressed at some level of intensity. It is an expression of a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a person, place, thing, or event.
- Work environment can affect a person's attitude.
- Some attitudes are a dangerous element in the workplace, one that can spread to those closest to the employee and affect everyone's performance.
- According to **Gordon Allport**, "An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."
- **Frank Freeman** said, "An attitude is a dispositional readiness to respond to certain institutions, persons or objects in a consistent manner which has been learned and has become one's typical mode of response."
- "Attitude can be described as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner for a given object." – **Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen**.
- According to **N.L. Munn**, "Attitudes are learned predispositions towards aspects of our environment. They may be positively or negatively directed towards certain people, service, or institution."

2.2 Characteristics of Attitude

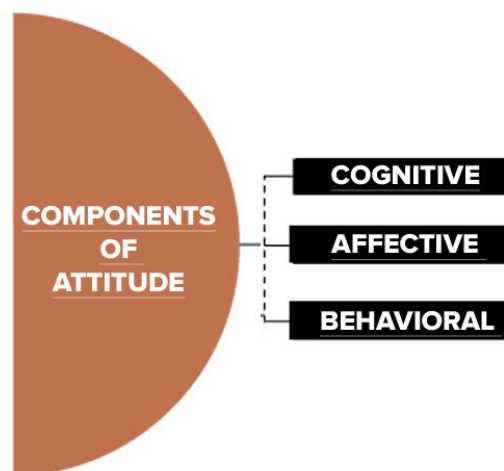


- Attitude can be described as a tendency to react positively or negatively to a person or circumstances.

- These can also be explicit and implicit. Explicit attitudes are those that we are consciously aware of and that clearly influences our behaviors and beliefs. Implicit attitudes are unconscious but still affect our beliefs and behaviors.
1. Attitudes are the complex combination of things we call personality, beliefs, values, behaviors, and motivations.
 2. It can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favorable to very unfavorable.
 3. All people, irrespective of their status or intelligence, hold attitudes.
 4. An attitude exists in every person's mind. It helps to define our identity, guide our actions, and influence how we judge people.
 5. Although the feeling and belief components of attitude are internal to a person, we can view a person's attitude from their resulting behavior.
 6. Attitude helps us define how we see situations and define how we behave toward the situation or object.
 7. An attitude is a summary of a person's experience; thus, an attitude is grounded in direct experience predicts future behavior more accurately.
 8. It indicates the total of a man's inclinations and feelings.
 9. It refers to one's readiness for doing Work.
 10. It may be positive or negative and may be affected by age, position, and education.

2.3 Components of Attitude

- There are three components of Attitude:
 1. Cognitive component
 2. Affective component
 3. Behavioral component

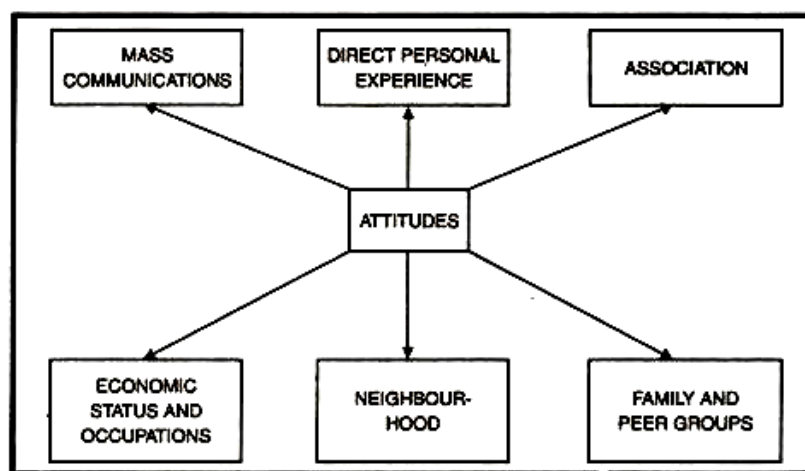


- Let's discuss about them in details.
 1. Cognitive Component:
 - Cognitive component of attitude is associated with the value statement. It consists of values, belief, ideas and other information that a person may have faith in.
 - For example, a person may have an attitude towards Jawaharlal Nehru as a statesman, towards statesmen in general or towards celebrities. Similarly a politician's attitude towards Nehru is more differentiated than that of a person who has little experience in politics. In the former case specificity, and in the latter the degree of differentiation can be noticed.
 2. Affective Component:
 - Affective component of attitude is associated with individual feelings about another person, which may be positive, neutral or negative.

- Example: I don't like Sam because he is not honest, or I like Sam because he is sincere. It is an expression of feelings about a person, object or a situation.
3. Behavioral Component:
- Behavioral component of attitude is associated with the impact of various condition or situations that lead to person behavior based on cognitive and affective components.
 - Example: I don't like Sam because he is not honest is an affective component, I, therefore, would like to disassociate myself with him, is a behavioural component and therefore I would avoid Sam.

2.4 Formation/Sources of Attitude

- Attitudes refer to the feelings and beliefs of "individuals or groups of individuals. But the question is how these feelings and beliefs developed? The point which has been stressed by many people are that attitudes are acquired, but not inherited. A person acquires these attitudes from several sources.



1. Direct Personal Experience:
 - A person's direct experience with the attitude object determines his attitude towards it. The personal experience of an individual, whether it is favourable or unfavourable, will affect his attitude deeply. These attitudes which are based on personal experience are difficult to change.
 - For example, an individual joins a new job, which is recommended to him by his friend. But when he joins the job, he find his work repetitive, supervisors too tough and co-workers not so co-operative, he would develop a negative attitude towards his job, because the quality of his direct experience with the job is negative.
2. Association:
 - Sometimes an individual comes across a new attitude object which may be associated with an old attitude object. In such a case, the attitude towards the old attitude object may be transferred towards the new attitude object.
 - For example, if a new worker remains most of the time in the company of a worker, who is in the good books of the supervisor, and towards whom the supervisor has a positive attitude, the supervisor is likely to develop a favourable attitude towards the new worker also. Hence the positive attitude for the old worker has been transferred towards the new worker because of the association between the old and the new worker.
3. Family and Peer Groups:
 - Attitudes like values are acquired from parents, teachers and peer group members. In our early years, we begin modeling our attitudes after those we admire, respect or may

be even fear. We observe the way our family and friends behave and we shape our attitudes and behaviour to align with theirs. We do so even without being told to do so and even without having direct experience. Similarly, attitudes are acquired from peer groups in colleges and organisations.

- For example, if the right thing is to visit the “Domino’s”, you are likely to hold that attitude. If your parents support one political party, without being told to do so, you automatically start favouring that party.

4. Neighbourhood:

- The neighbourhood in which we live has certain cultural facilities, religious groupings and ethnic differences. Further, it has people, who are neighbours. These people may be Northerners, Southerners etc. The people belonging to different cultures have different attitudes and behaviours. Some of these we accept and some of these we deny and possibly rebel. The conformity or rebellion in some respects is the evidence of the attitudes we hold.

5. Economic Status and Occupations:

- The economic status and occupational position of the individual also affect his attitude formation. Our socio-economic background influences our present and future attitudes. Research findings have shown that unemployment disturbs former religious and economic values. Children of professional class tend to be conservatives. Respect for the laws of the country is associated with increased years of higher education.

6. Mass Communications:

- Attitudes are generally less stable as compared to values. Advertising messages for example, attempt to alter the attitude of the people toward a certain product or service.
- For example, if the people at Hyundai Santro can get you to hold a favourable feeling toward their cars, that attitude may lead to a desirable behaviour (for them)-your purchase of a Santro car.

2.5 Measurement of Attitude

- The following points highlight the top five techniques used to measure the attitude of an individual. The techniques are:
 1. Method of Equal Appearing Interval
 2. Method of Summated Rating
 3. Social Distance Scale
 4. Cumulative Scaling Method
 5. The Scale Discriminating Technique.

Technique # 1. Method of Equal Appearing Interval (Thurstone’s Scale):

- Developed by L.L. Thurstone and Chave (1929) it is the earliest technique of attitude measurement.
- This technique of equal appearing interval used in the scaling of psychophysical dimensions was used by Thurstone for the construction of attitude scales to measure attitude towards various subjects or towards any object.

The scale is prepared in the following manner:

1. A large number of simple, easily understood statements or propositions showing a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the attitudinal object are collected.
 2. Judges are asked to sort out in a desired number of steps on a scale on the basis of the degree to which they express favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards the object. All those statements having insufficient agreement are rejected. Only those statements having considerable agreement among the judges relating to their position on the scale are retained in the final scale.
 3. Scale scoring is done on the basis of median value of judgements. Final selection is made on the basis of equal appearing intervals.
- In Thurstone's scale there are eleven categories where judges have to put their judgement in equal distances so as to fit the eleven categories. The low values indicate a favourable attitude towards the attitudinal object and the high values suggest an unfavourable attitude.
 - The eleven lines or equally appearing intervals are in fact the units of Thurstone's scale. His scale is said to be a rational scale since he attempted to achieve equality of units by requiring the judges to place items in eleven lines at equal appearing intervals.

Limitation of Thurstone's Scale:

- The probability of the attitude of judges influencing their placement of judgements in various positions on the scale cannot be ruled out.
- Thurstone has attempted to account for zero point in a scale, but has not been able to meet the requirements satisfactorily.
- Thurstone's scale lacked in unique dimensionality.

Technique # 2. Method of Summated Rating (Likert's Scale):

- Developed by Likert the attitude scale prepared by the method of summated rating has an entirely different approach.
- Likert is famous for constructing several attitude scales to measure attitude towards various complex issues, like Black and White Problem, imperialism and various other international problems.
- The procedure of preparation of Likert's scale is given below briefly:
 - A large number of statements and propositions are collected relating to the issue. These statements are then presented to a group of subjects to rate them into five categories.
 - a. Strongly approve-1
 - b. Approve-2
 - c. Undecided-3
 - d. Disapprove-4
 - e. Strongly disapprove-5.
 - The 'S' is asked to give his score with regard to each statement on this basis of five point scale. Then, the total score for each individual subject for all the statement is calculated by summing up each individual responses.
 - Thereafter, inter correlating the scores of each item, with the total scores on all the items by the item analysis techniques, the most discriminating items are selected and eliminated. Only those items having highest correlations are retained for the final scale.

Advantages of Likert's Scale:

- The use of 'Item Analysis' in the construction of attitude scale is the most important feature of Likert's scale. In this scale, the individual scores are interpreted in terms of the scores

obtained by a group of individual which is commonly done in a psychological test construction.

- Likert's scale is more pragmatic than Thurstone's scale. It is based on the selection of items in terms of how well they work. Likert did not depend only on the subjective judgements of the individuals, like Thurstone.
- Likert's scale has got good amount of workability than Thurstone's. In this scale unique dimensionality is also not disturbed.

Limitation of Likert's Scale:

- No attempt has been made to ensure equality of unity in the Likert's scale. The scores obtained at the upper and lower end of the scale are usually more meaningful than the intermediate range of scores as the score making the neutral point is unknown.
- The minimum scores in the Likert's scale indicate a favourable attitude, while the maximum scores indicate an unfavourable attitude which is sometimes confusing.
- There is no determination of zero point in this scale.

Technique # 3. Social Distance Scale (Bogardus's Social Distance Scale):

- The concept of social distance was given prominence by Katz and Allport under the guidance of Gallet and Bogardus. Bogardus was interested in studying racial attitudes, attitudes of people towards different races, towards different nationalities and comparing them through his social distance scale.
- The procedure of the construction of the scale is as follows.
 - The investigator first formulates various statements indicating different degrees of acceptance or rejection of the group. The 'S' has to indicate how close or how far away he is from the members of the other group. The distance measured by these statements are basically psychological.
 - A favourable attitude is indicated by the closeness and an unfavourable attitude is indicated by distance. The greater is the distance, the greater is anti attitude and the less is the distance the greater is the pro attitude.
 - The psychological distance is progressively increased in the scale as one proceeds from the first to the last statement starting from close kinship by marriage to exclusion from the country.
- In this manner, by the Bogardus scale attitude is measured towards different nationalities.

Limitations of Bogardus's Social Distance Scale:

- It means merely temporary attitudes,
- Bogardus did not make any attempt to ensure equality of units.
- The psychological distance between relation in marriage and a club is much greater than that existing between club relations and neighbouring relations.
- The distance between two points in the scale, hence, is not equal or adequate and hence, lacks in dimension of units and exhaustiveness of the measuring index.
- Bogardus's scale simply measures the range and distribution of attitude and not its intensity.

Advantages of Bogardus's Social Distance Scale:

- This scale has been very widely and quite successfully applied in various studies of attitude measurement.
- The technique of construction of the scale is quite simple.

- The scale is used to compare different people's attitudes towards the same nationality or a single individual's attitude towards different nationalities.
- By this scale any kind of interpersonal likes and dislikes can be measured. Actually, many new scale have been developed being based on the Bogardus Social Distance Scale.

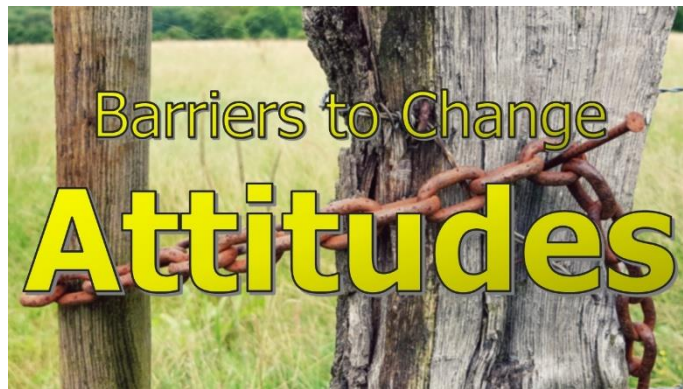
Technique # 4. Cumulative Scaling Method (Guttman's Scale):

- Guttman's cumulative scaling method (1944) is devised to find out if the sets of statements and propositions used to measure attitudes can actually satisfy the necessary conditions of a particular type of scale.
- The main aim of this scaling technique is to determine whether the attitude in question is "scalable" or not.
- An attitude is said to be scalable when a major proportion of the population being measured responds to the scale in a consistent way. When an item is endorsed by the endorsement of all other items that are less extreme and rejection of all those items that are more extreme, it indicates the criterion of consistency.
- In Guttman's scale, plotting of scale scores were made on the horizontal lines. Guttman's technique involves a 'Scalogram' device for ascertaining the degree of consistency that is present. According to Guttman, when significant consistency is shown by a set of items or propositions, the scale is unidimensional and hence, is expected to measure attitude reliably.
- But in the reverse case one has to infer that there is more than one dimension underlying the scale. At this point, by using this method of Guttman the offending items can be eliminated and the scale can be revised and corrected to meet this criterion of consistency.
- Guttman's scale helps in determining the zero point. It is also based on the criteria of unique dimensionality.

Technique # 5. The Scale Discriminating Technique:

- This scale has been developed by Edwards and Kilpatrick. It is the synthesis of the various earlier techniques.
- Like the other scales, a large number of dichotomous items are collected. Judges then group the items in categories as per their degree of favourableness. Others are discarded because of ambiguity.
- The retained items are then presented in a multiple choice form with six response categories starting from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Then, these statements are served to new groups of subjects. Their responses are scored individually to derive a total score for each person.
- Like the Likert Scale 'Item analysis' technique is applied on each item. The final scale consists of those items having good discriminating capacity. Then, the selected items are dichotomised and subjected to scaling as followed by Guttman
- It is a very laborious procedure and perhaps because of that the scale discrimination technique has not been used in a large scale in psychological researches for the measurement of attitude. So, the advantages and defects of scale are yet to be traced.

2.6 Barrier To Change Attitude



- Employees' attitudes can be changed, and sometimes it is in the best interests of management to try to do so.
- For example, if employees believe that their employer does not look after their welfare, the management should try to change employees' attitudes and develop a more positive attitude towards them.
- However, the process of changing the attitude is not always easy.
- Barriers to Change Attitudes are;
 1. Prior Commitment
 2. Insufficient Information
 3. Balance and Consistency
 4. Lack of Resources
 5. Improper Reward System
 6. Resistance to Change

Prior Commitment:

- When people feel a commitment towards a particular course of action that has already been agreed upon, it becomes difficult for them to change or accept the new ways of functioning.

Insufficient Information:

- It also acts as a major barrier to change attitudes. Sometimes people do not see why they should change their attitude due to the unavailability of adequate information.
- Sometimes people do not see why they should change their attitude due to the unavailability of adequate information.

Balance and Consistency:

- Another obstacle to a change of attitude is the attitude theory of balance and consistency.
- Human beings prefer their attitudes about people and things to be in line with their behaviors towards each other and objects.

Lack of Resources:

- If plans become excessively ambitious, they can sometimes be obstructed by the lack of resources on a company or organization.
- So, in this case, if the organization wants to change the employees' attitude towards the new plan, sometimes it becomes impossible for the lack of resources to achieve this.

Improper Reward System:

- Sometimes, an improper reward system acts as a barrier to change attitude.
- If an organization places too much emphasis on short-term performance and results, managers may ignore longer-term issues as they set goals and formulate plans to achieve higher profits in the short term.
- If this reward system is introduced in the organization, employees are not motivated to change their attitude.

Resistance to Change:

- Another barrier is resistance to change.
- Basically, change is a continuous process within and outside the organization to achieve the set goal.
- When the authority changes a plan of the organization, the employees have to change themselves.
- But some of them do not like this. If their attitude regarding the change of plan cannot be changed, the organization will not be successful.

2.7 Meaning and Concept of Perception



- In common terminology, perception is defined as “a) the way you think about something and your idea of what it is like; b) the way that you notice things with your senses of sight, hearing etc.; c) the natural ability to understand or notice things quickly.”
- In philosophy, psychology, and cognitive science, perception is the process of attaining awareness or understanding of sensory information.
- The word “perception” comes from the Latin words perceptio, percipio, and means “receiving, collecting, action of taking possession, and apprehension with the mind or senses.”
- Perception is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment.
- According to **Joseph Reitz**; “Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment—seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling.”
- According to **B. V. H. Gilmer**, “Perception is the process of becoming aware of situations, of adding meaningful associations to sensations.”
- **Uday Pareek** said perception can be defined as “the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking, and reacting to sensory stimuli or data.”
- According to **S. P. Robbins**, perception can be defined as “the process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments.”

- Perception includes the 5 senses; touch, sight, taste smell and sound. It also includes what is known as perception, a set of senses involving the ability to detect changes in body positions and movements.

2.8 Factors Affecting Perception

- A number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. These factors reside i.
 1. In the perceiver
 2. In the object or target being perceived or
 3. In the context of the situation in which the perception is made.

Characteristics of Perception in Organisational Behaviour:

Characteristics of the Perceiver:

- Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she, that interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of individual perceiver. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are:
 1. **Attitudes:** The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, suppose Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization – a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. Mr X may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude will doubtless affect his perceptions of the female candidates he interviews.
 2. **Moods:** Moods can have a strong influence on the way we perceive someone. We think differently when we are happy than we do when we are depressed. In addition, we remember information that is consistent with our mood state better than information that is inconsistent with our mood state. When in a positive mood, we form more positive impression of others. When in a negative mood, we tend to evaluate others unfavourably.
 3. **Motives:** Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perceptions. For example, in an organizational context, a boss who is insecure perceives a subordinate's efforts to do an outstanding job as a threat to his or her own position. Personal insecurity can be transferred into the perception that others are out to "get my job", regardless of the intention of the subordinates.
 4. **Self-Concept:** Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceivers' self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person. Greater understanding of self allows us to have more accurate perceptions of others.
 5. **Interest:** The focus of our attention appears to be influenced by our interests. Because our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation can differ from what others perceive. For example, the supervisor who has just been reprimanded by his boss for coming late is more likely to notice his colleagues coming late tomorrow than he did last week. If you are preoccupied with a personal problem, you may find it hard to be attentive in class.
 6. **Cognitive Structure:** Cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception. Some people have a tendency to perceive physical traits, such as height, weight, and appearance, more readily. Others tend to focus more on central traits, or

personality dispositions. Cognitive complexity allows a person to perceive multiple characteristics of another person rather than attending to just a few traits.

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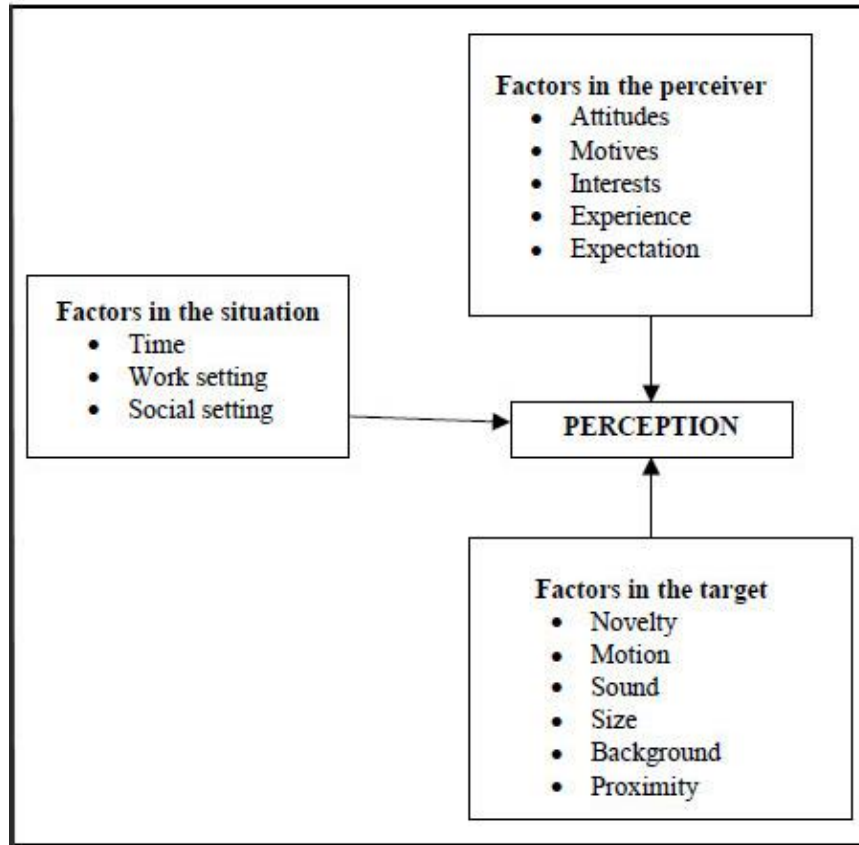
Characteristics of the Target:

- Characteristics in the target that is being observed can affect what is perceived. Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. Extremely attractive or unattractive individuals are more likely to be noticed in a group than ordinary looking individuals. Motion, sound, size and other attributes of a target shape the way we see it.
- Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. The perceiver will notice the target's physical features like height, weight, estimated age, race and gender.
- Perceivers tend to notice physical appearance characteristics that contrast with the norm, that are intense, or that are new or unusual. Physical attractiveness often colours entire impression of another person. Interviewers rate attractive candidates more favourably and attractive candidates are awarded higher starting salaries.
- Verbal communication from targets also affects our perception of them. We listen to the topics they speak about, their voice tone, and their accent and make judgements based on this input.
- Non-verbal communication conveys a great deal of information about the target. The perceiver deciphers eye contact, facial expressions, body movements, and posture all in an attempt to form an impression of the target.
- The perceiver, who observes the target's behaviour, infers the intentions of the target.
- For example, if our manager comes to our office doorway, we think "oh no! he is going to give me more work to do". Or we may perceive that his intention is to congratulate us on a recent success. In any case, the perceiver's interpretation of the target's intentions affects the way the perceiver views the target.
- Targets are not looked at in isolation, the relationship of a target to its background influences perception because of our tendency to group close things and similar things together.
- Objects that are close to each other will tend to be perceived together rather than separately. As a result of physical or time proximity, we often put together objects or events that are unrelated. For example, employees in a particular department are seen as a group. If two employees of a department suddenly resign, we tend to assume their departures were related when in fact, they might be totally unrelated.
- People, objects or events that are similar to each other also tend to be grouped together. The greater the similarity, the greater the probability we will tend to perceive them as a group.

Characteristics of the Situation:

- The situation in which the interaction between the perceiver and the target takes place has an influence on the perceiver's impression of the target. For example, a professor may not notice his 20-year-old female student in a bikini at the swimming pool. Yet the professor will notice the same girl if she comes to his organizational behaviour class in a bikini. In the same way, meeting a manager in his or her office affects your impression in a certain way that may contrast with the impression you would form had you met the manager in a restaurant.
- The strength of the situational cues also affects social perception. Some situations provide strong cues as to appropriate behaviour. In these situations, we assume that the individual's

behaviour can be accounted for by the situation, and that it may not reflect the individual's disposition. This is the discounting principle in social perception. For example, you may encounter an automobile sales person who has a warm and personable manner, asks you about your work and hobbies, and seems genuinely interested in your taste in cars. Can you assume that this behaviour reflects the sales person's personality? You probably cannot, because of the influence of the situation. This person is trying to sell you a car, and in this particular situation he probably treats all customers in this manner.



2.9 Motivation

- Motivation is defined as inner burning passion caused by need, wants and desire which propels an individual to exert his physical and mental energy to achieve desired objectives.
- “Motivation is the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual needs.” - Stephen P Robbins
- “It is the desire within an individual that stimulates him or her to action.” - George R. Terry
- “It is the way in which urges, drives, desires, aspirations, strivings or needs direct, control or explains the behaviour of human beings.” - D.E. McFarland

2.10 Importance of Motivation

- We need to motivate employees because of the following reasons –
 1. Motivated employee are more quality oriented.
 2. Highly motivated employees are more productive as compared to other employees.
 3. It helps in achieving three behavior dimension of human resource namely
 - Candidates must be attracted not only to join but also remain in the firm.

- Employees must perform task in a dependable manner.
- Employees should be creative, spontaneous and innovative at work.

2.11 Types of Motivation

- There are two types of motivation.
 1. Intrinsic Motivation
 2. Extrinsic Motivation



Intrinsic Motivation



- It is a type of motivation in which the motives originates from inside of the human body.
- It refer to internal driving state stimulating an individual to behave in a specific way.
- It includes all biological drive such as hunger, thirst, sleep, relief from pain, temperature regulation, need for oxygen and so on.
- For example, the hunger is driving force coming from inside to compel (ફરજ પાડેલી) an individual to eat food.
- The individual feels tired and required a good amount of sleep to relax for the next day.
- Our curiosity, internal fear, psychological needs and desires also serve as intrinsic motives.
- It includes following motives:
 1. Biological drives: e.g. hunger, thirst, relief from pain
 2. Curiosity
 3. Internal fear e.g. Fear of rejection

4. Psychological needs e.g. need for being accepted and appreciated by others
5. Internal desires e.g. desire to gain power or dominance (अर्थस्व)

Extrinsic Motivation

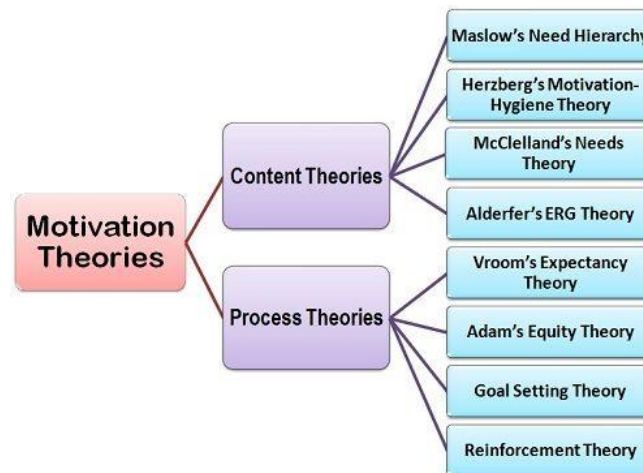


- In this type of motivation, the motives originate from outside of the human body.
- The driving force exists outside of the human body that stimulates the individual for certain the action.
- Though these motives are external to human body but they have a rewarding or punishing impact for the individual.
- It includes following motives:
 1. Incentives
 2. Bonuses
 3. Allowances
 4. Promotion or demotion
 5. Rewards and punishments
 6. Merit and distinction certificate
 7. Appreciation certificates and prizes

2.12 Theories of Motivation

- We can distinguish between Content and Process motivation theories.
- Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation.
- Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs.
- The content theories cannot entirely explain what motivate or demotivate us.
- Process theories are concerned with “how” motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.
- The main content theories are:
 1. Maslow’s needs hierarchy
 2. Alderfer’s ERG theory
 3. McClelland’s achievement motivation

4. Herzberg's two-factor theory
- The main process theories are:
 1. Skinner's reinforcement theory
 2. Victor Vroom's expectancy theory
 3. Adam's equity theory
 4. Locke's goal setting theory



1. Maslow – hierarchy of needs:

- This is the earliest and most widely known theory of motivation, developed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in the 1940s and 1950s.
- Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often shown in the shape of a pyramid: basic needs at the bottom and the most complex need (need for self-actualization) at the top. Maslow himself has never drawn a pyramid to describe these levels of our needs; but the pyramid has become the most known way to represent his hierarchy.

A. Physiological needs (e.g. food, water, shelter, sleep)

- It includes the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food. Maslow emphasized, our body and mind cannot function well if these requirements are not fulfilled.
- These physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. So if someone is missing everything in his/her life, probably the major motivation would be to fulfil his/her physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love (also sex) and esteem, would most probably hunger for food (and also for money, salary to buy food) than for anything else.



- If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then overruled by the physiological needs, all other needs may turn into the background. All capacities are put into the attendance of satisfying hunger. Any other things are forgotten or got secondary importance.
- B. Safety and security (secure source of income, a place to live, health and well-being)**
- If the physiological needs are relatively well contented, new needs will appear, the so called safety needs. Safety needs refer to a person's desire for security or protection. Basically everything looks less important than safety and protection (the physiological needs even sometimes). The healthy and fortunate adults in our culture are largely satisfied in their safety needs. The peaceful, sure, safety and unwavering society makes us feel in safety enough from criminal assaults, murder, unbelievable natural catastrophes, and so on. In that case people no longer have any safety needs as first-line motivators.
 - Meeting with safety needs demonstrated as a preference for insurance policies, saving accounts or job security, etc., we think about the lack of economic safety. Children have a greater need to feel safe. That is the reason why this level is more important for children.
 - Safety and security needs include: Personal security; Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety mesh against accidents, illnesses and their adverse impacts.
 - To tell the truth, in real dangers and traumas – like war, murder, natural catastrophes, criminal assault, etc. -, the needs for safety become an active, first-line and dominant mobilizer of human beings.
- C. Belongingness and love (integration into social groups, feel part of a community or a group; affectionate relationships)**
- If both the physiological and the safety needs are fulfilled, the affection, love and belongingness needs come into prominence. Maslow claimed people need to belong and accepted among their social groups. Group size does not mean anything: social groups can be large or small. People need to love and be loved – both sexually and non-sexually – by others. Depending on the power and pressure of the peer group, this need for belonging may overbear the physiological and security needs.
 - Love needs involve giving and receiving affections (love is not synonymous with sex – sex is a physiological need). When they are unsatisfied, a person will immediately eliminate the lack of friends, peers and partner. Many people suffer from social nervousness, loneliness, social isolation and also clinical depression because of the lack of this love or belongingness factor.
- D. Esteem (respect for a person as a useful, honourable human being)**
- In our society most people long for a stable and high valuation of themselves, for the esteem of others and for self-respect or self-esteem.
 - Esteem means being valued, respected and appreciated by others. Humans need to feel to be valued, such as being useful and necessary in the world. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others. Maslow divided two types of esteem needs: a 'lower' version and a 'higher' version. The 'lower' version of esteem is the need for respect from others: for example attention, prestige, status and loving their opinion. The 'higher' version is the need for self-respect: for example, the person may need independence, and freedom or self-confidence.
 - The most stable and therefore the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect from others. External fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation won't cause self-esteem, although you feel better for a while.
- E. Self-actualization (individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential)**
- 'What humans can be, they must be.' (Maslow, 1954)
 - Self-actualization reflects an individual's desire to grow and develop to his/her fullest potential. People like opportunities, choosing his/her own versions, challenging positions or creative

tasks. Maslow described this level as the 'need to accomplish everything that one can, to become the most that one can be'. Maslow believed that people must overcome their other needs – described above -, not only achieve them. At this level, individual differences are the largest.

- As each level is adequately satisfied, we are then motivated to satisfy the next level in the hierarchy, always new and higher needs are coming. This is what we mean, when the basic human needs are drawn like a pyramid, a hierarchy. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy. These five different levels were further sub-categorised into two main groups: deficiency and growth needs.

2. Alderfer – ERG theory: Existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs

- Alderfer (Furnham, 2008) distinguished three steps or classes of needs: existence, relatedness and growth. Maslow's physiological and safety needs belong together to existence needs. Relatedness can be harmonised to belongingness and esteem of others. Growth is the same as Maslow's self-esteem plus self-actualization. Both Maslow and Alderfer tried to describe how these needs, these stages of needs become more or less important to individuals.
 - Existence needs: These include needs for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.
 - Relatedness needs: Individuals need significant relationships (be with family, peers or superiors), love and belongingness, they strive toward reaching public fame and recognition. This class of needs contain Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs.
 - Growth needs: Need for self-development, personal growth and advancement form together this class of need. This class of needs contain Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs.
- For example there is a student, who has excellent grades, friends, and high standard of living, maybe also work at the university. What happens if this individual finds that he or she is frustrated in attempts to get more autonomy and responsibility at the university, maybe also more scholarship that generally encourage individuals' growth? Frustration in satisfying a higher (growth) need has resulted in a regression to a lower level of (relatedness) needs ('I need just my friends, some good wine, I do not want to go to the university anymore.').

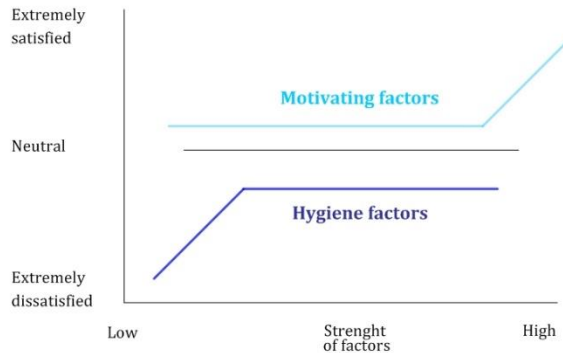
3. McClelland – Need for achievement, affiliation and power

- In the early 1960s McClelland – built on Maslow's work – described three human motivators. McClelland (Arnold et al., 2005) claimed that humans acquire, learn their motivators over time that is the reason why this theory is sometimes called the 'Learned Needs Theory'. He affirms that we all have three motivating drivers, and it does not depend on our gender or age. One of these drives or needs will be dominant in our behaviour.
- McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's, which focus on satisfying existing needs rather than creating or developing needs. This dominant motivator depends on our culture and life experiences, of course (but the three motivators are permanent). The three motivators are:
 - achievement: a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery
 - affiliation: a need for love, belonging and relatedness
 - power: a need for control over one's own work or the work of others
- ☒McClelland argues that strong need for achievement people can become the best leaders – as we wrote it above. But at the same time there can be a tendency to request too much of their employees, because they think that these people are also highly achievement-focused and

results-driven, as they are. Think about your teachers and professors! I am sure they all want the best for you, they would like to develop you, but I do not think you feel the same every time. McClelland said that most people have and show a combination of these characteristics.

4. Herzberg – Two factor theory

- It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.
- Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1987) the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context.



- If the hygiene factors, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job. Motivating factors, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics) (Dartey-Baah, 2011).
- Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.
- Herzberg's five factors of job satisfaction (motivating factors):
 - achievement
 - recognition
 - work itself
 - responsibility
 - advancement
- Only these factors can motivate us. But at the same time we need the lack of dissatisfactions (we need hygiene factors, "workpeace") to achieve more efficient work.
- Herzberg's five factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors – deficiency needs):
 - company policy and administration
 - supervision
 - salary
 - interpersonal relationships
 - working conditions

1. Skinner's reinforcement theory

- The Reinforcement theory, based on Skinner's operant conditioning theory, says that behaviour can be formed by its consequences (Gordon, 1987).

Positive reinforcements:

- for example praise, appreciation, a good mark/grade, trophy, money, promotion or any other reward can increase the possibility of the rewarded behaviours' repetition.
- If a student gets positive verbal feedback and a good grade for his test, this reinforcement encourages the performance of the behaviour to recur. If the teacher doesn't tell precisely what he expects, then the positive reinforcements can drive the behaviour closer to the preferred. For example, when a student who is usually late to class gets positive feedback when he arrives on time, the student becomes more and more punctual. Positive reinforcement motivates to get the anticipated reinforcement of required behaviour.

Negative reinforcements:

- negative reinforcement when we give a meal to a hungry person if he behaves in a certain manner/way.
- In this case the meal is a negative reinforcement because it eliminates the unpleasant state (hunger).
- punishment can be undesired reinforcement, or reinforce undesired behaviour.
- For example, if a student is always late to class and thus he gets negative verbal feedback and also always has to tidy up the classroom at the end of the day, in this case the undesirable behaviour is reinforced with an undesirable reinforcer. The punishment declines the tendency to be late.

2. Vroom's expectancy theory

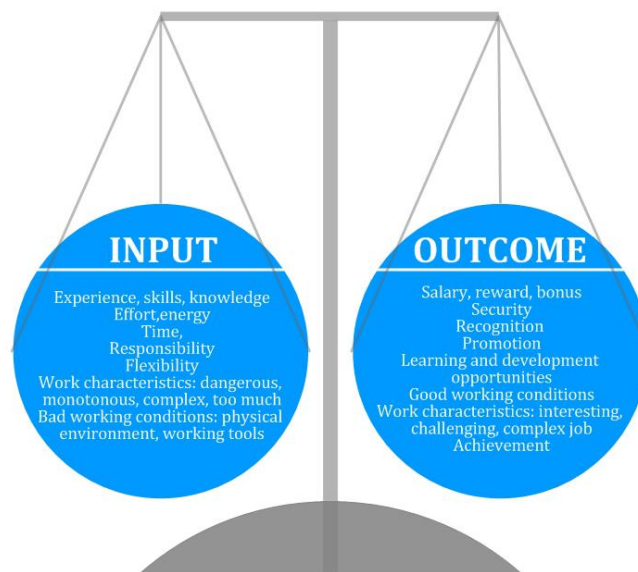
- The expectancy theory places an emphasis on the process and on the content of motivation as well, and it integrates needs, equity and reinforcement theories.
- Victor Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory aims to explain how people choose from the available actions. Vroom defines motivation as a process that governs our choices among alternative forms of voluntary behaviour. The basic rationale of this theory is that motivation stems from the belief that decisions will have their desired outcomes.
- The motivation to engage in an activity is determined by appraising three factors. These three factors are the following (Figure 4):
- **Expectancy** – a person's belief that more effort will result in success. If you work harder, it will result in better performance.
- In this case the question is: "Am I capable of making a good grade on a math test if I learn more?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the effort to learn math, on knowledge of math, on the previous experience of math test results, on self-efficacy and specific self-rated abilities.
- **Instrumentality** – the person's belief that there is a connection between activity and goal. If you perform well, you will get reward.
- In this case the question is that: "Will I get the promised reward (a good mark) for performing well on a math test?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the accuracy and consistency of marking. If one day I get a good grade and another day I get a bad grade for the same performance, then the motivation will decrease.
- **Valence** – the degree to which a person values the reward, the results of success.
- In this case the question is that: "Do I value the reward that I get?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the importance of its subject (math), the good mark, and the good performance in general.



- A person who doesn't see the connection between effort and performance will have zero expectancy. A person who can't perceive the link between performance and reward will have zero instrumentality. For a person who doesn't value the anticipated outcome, reward will have zero valence.
- For example if I think:
 - that no matter how hard I'm studying I can't learn math due to lack of necessary skills or
 - that no matter how good I perform on the test I don't always get good mark so the reward is unpredictable, not dependent on my success or
 - the good mark from math is not important for me, and I'm not interested in math, so the reward is not attractive, then I won't be motivated to learn for the exam.
- The expectancy theory highlights individual differences in motivation and contains three useful factors for understanding and increasing motivation. This theory implies equity and importance of consistent rewards as well (Konig & Steel 2006).

3. Adams' equity theory

- The equity theory states that people are motivated if they are treated equitably, and receive what they consider fair for their effort and costs.
- The theory was suggested by Adams (1965) and is based on Social Exchange theory.



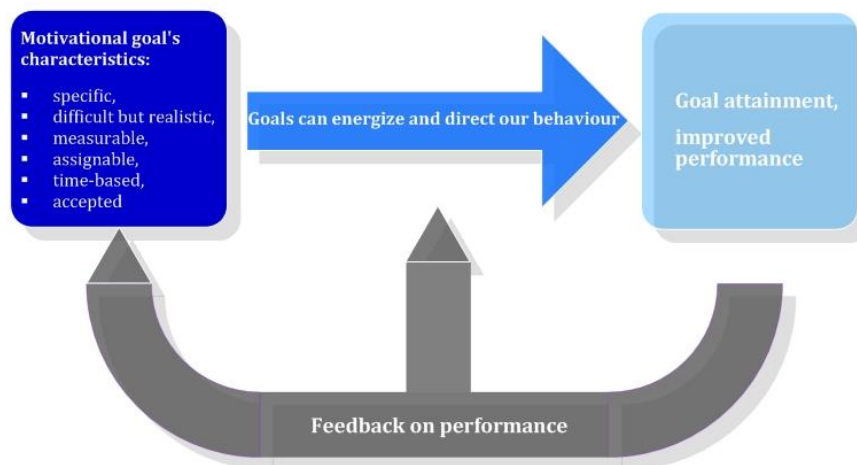
- At the workplace the workers put inputs into the job, such as education, experience, effort, energy, and expect to get some outcomes such as salary, reward, promotion, verbal recognition, and interesting and challenging work each in equal amounts
- The equity theory works not just in the workplace, but at school as well. For example, when for the same oral exam performance two students get different marks, then inequity exists. In this case, the student who gets the worse mark may lose his/her motivation to learn (reduce his/her efforts), or persuade the teacher to give him/her a better mark, or change the perception of the reference person's performance ("I did not know everything, but my classmate could answer all

the questions"). At the school it can demotivate students if someone who never studies or who never performs better than the others always gets good mark. The greater the inequity the greater the distress an individual feels, which will motivate the endeavour to make the outcomes and the inputs equal compared to the reference person.

- When inequity exists, a person might...
 - o reduce his/her inputs, efforts, quantity or quality of his/her work
 - o try to increase his/her outputs (ask for better mark, or pay raising)
 - o adjust his/her perception of reference person or his/her outcomes or inputs (re-evaluate his/her or the reference person's effort or outcome)
 - o change the reference person
 - o quit the situation.
- The problem with equity theory is that it does not take into account differences in individual needs, values, and personalities. For example, one person may perceive a certain situation as inequitable while another does not. Nevertheless ensuring equity is essential to motivation.

4. Locke's goal-setting theory

- Locke's (1990) goal setting theory is an integrative model of motivation just like the expectancy theory.
- We can distinguish goals according to specificity, difficulty and acceptance. A specific goal can be measured and lead to higher performance than a very general goal like "Try to do your best!" A difficult, but realistic goal can be more motivational than easy or extremely difficult ones. The acceptance of the goal is very important as well, therefore involvement in the goal setting is recommended.
- For example, if I decide to pass a medium level language exam in German in six months – this goal is specific and difficult enough – because I want to work in Germany – this goal is very important for me, therefore the goal commitment is high – then I will be motivated to learn, and to pass the exam.



- The following guidelines have been useful in the goal-setting :
 - Set challenging but attainable goals. Too easy or too difficult/unrealistic goals don't motivate us.
 - Set specific and measurable goals. These can focus toward what you want, and can measure the progress toward the goal.

- Goal commitment should be obtained. If people don't commit to the goals, then they will not put effort toward reaching the goals, even specific, or challenging ones. Strategies to achieve this could include participation in the goal setting process, use of extrinsic rewards (bonuses), and encouraging intrinsic motivation through providing workers with feedback about goal attainment. Pressure to achieve goals is not useful because it can result in dishonesty and superficial performance.
- Support elements should be provided. For example, encouragement, needed materials, resources, and moral support.
- Knowledge of results is essential – so goals need to be quantifiable and there needs to be feedback.

2.13 Personality

- The word personality itself stems from the Latin word persona, which refers to a theatrical mask worn by performers in order to either project different roles or disguise their identities.
- Personality is the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that make a person unique.
- It is believed that personality arises from within the individual and remains fairly consistent throughout life.

2.14 Types of Personality

- The Myers–Briggs Type Indicator is a set of psychometric questionnaire designed to weigh psychological preferences in how people perceive the world and make decisions. The Myers Briggs model of personality developed by Katherine Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers, is established on four preferences namely –
 1. Types of social interaction
 2. Preference for gathering data
 3. Preference for decision making
 4. Style of decision making
- With respect to the prescribed Myers Briggs type of indicator, preferences include eight leadership styles –
 1. E or I (Extraversion or Introversion)
 2. S or N (Sensing or iNtuition)
 3. T or F (Thinking or Feeling)
 4. J or P (Judgment or Perception)
- We combine the bias to give our Myers Briggs personality type. Say for example, our preferences is for E and S and T and J, so it leads to personality type of ESTJ. In the same way, there are sixteen Myers Briggs personality types that can be generated by combining these four letters together.
- When we put these four letters together, we get our personality type code, and there are sixteen combinations. For example, INTJ implies that we prefer Introversion, Intuition, Thinking and

Judging (remember, this implies preferences only - an INTJ also uses Extraversion, Sensing, Feeling and Perception).

Types of Social Interaction:

- The way a person communicates with people around and links with others socially is called social interaction. Who are we, how do we communicate with people? In order to answer these question we classify individuals and their preferences to direct their energy into two types Extraversion & Extrovert, Introversion & Introvert.

Extraversion or Extrovert:

- If people prefer to direct their energy to cope with others, things, situations, or "the outer world", then their preference is for Extraversion.
- An extrovert is an outgoing, socially confident person. This is denoted by the letter "E".

Introversion or Introvert:

- If people prefer to direct their energy to deal with ideas, information, explanations, beliefs, or "the inner world", then their preference is for Introversion.
- An introvert is a shy and reticent person. This is denoted by the letter "I".
- For example – Archana is a nerdy girl and takes time to mingle up with others and is considered as an introvert while Alka is a very outgoing person and gets easily with everyone, so she is considered as an extrovert.

Preference for Gathering Data:

- Everything we see, we hear we process them in our brains. Now how do we prefer to process information? On what basis? To answer this question, we need to understand how to we choose to transform our information.
- We can collect information in two different ways, using two different information gathering functions – Sensing and Intuition.

Sensing:

- If we choose to deal with facts, what we know, to have clarity or to describe what we see, then our preference is for Sensing.
- This is denoted by the letter "S".

Intuition:

- If we choose to deal with ideas, look into the unknown, to generate new possibilities or to engage what isn't obvious, then our preference is for Intuition.
- This is denoted by the letter "N" (the letter I has already been used for Introversion).
- For example – If I say that I believe something good is going to happen then it is just an intuition as I am basing my statement without any evidence rather on just a feeling. However, when I say that according to today's weather forecast it is going to rain, then this is sensing as I have an evidence to support my statement.

Preference for Decision Making:

- There are two main types of functions through which we prefer to make our decisions.

Thinking:

- If we choose to decide on the basis of objective logic, using an analytic and detached path, then our preference is for Thinking. This is denoted by the letter "T".

Feeling:

- If we prefer to decide using values or our personal beliefs, on the basis of what we believe is important or what we or others care about, then our preference is for Feeling. This is denoted by the letter "F".
- For example - If I get Rs. 500 lying on the road and I think as I got it, it's mine then it is my thinking. However, if I think it's not right to keep others money and decide to donate it then it is considered as a feeling.

Style of Decision Making:

- Style of decision making is nothing but the way we prefer to organize our life. It is done by either Perceiving or by Judging.

Perceiving:

- If we prefer to go with the flow, to maintain flexibility and respond to things as they arise in the first place, then our preference is for Perception. This is denoted by the letter "P".

Judging:

- If we prefer our life to be planned, stable and organized then our preference is for Judging (here it is not to be confused with being 'Judgmental', which is quite different). This is denoted by the letter "J".
- For example - Mona gets a job and decides since she has got a job she need not worry about anything else. This attitude is perceiving. On the other hand, Tina aims for bank PO exam and plans her life where all her actions will help her achieve her dream job. This attitude is judging.

PERSONALITY COMBINATIONS			
ISTJ Doing what should be done	ISFJ A huge sense of duty	INFJ An inspiration to others	INTJ Everything has room for improvement
ISTP Ready to try anything once	ISFP Sees much but shares little	INFP Performing noble service to aid society	INTP A love of problem solving
ESTP The ultimate realist	ESFP You only go around once in life	ENFP Giving life an extra squeeze	ENTP One exciting challenge after another
ESTJ Life's administrators	ESFJ Hosts and hostesses of the world	ENFJ Smooth talking persuader	ENTJ Life's natural leaders

2.15 Factors influencing the personality

- There are several factors that influence the shaping of our personality. By observing the behaviour of a person, we can understand which behaviour has what influence on the personality characteristics of an individual.

Heredity:

- Some characteristics of our behaviour are genetic, which we inherit. Some of the traits like physical height, slimness, dexterity, intellectual capacity, ability to learn, logical power, etc. are also inherited. All these have a significant influence on our behavioural patterns.

Family background:

- The socio-economic status of the family, education of the parents, and other family members shape the personality of an individual to a considerable extent. In fact, family members themselves try to influence the behaviour of children in a desperate attempt to personify their own values, roles, etc.

Nature of people with whom we interact:

- People influence each other and such influences shape the personality. For this reason, we often say that one’s personality is constantly evolving and is shaped throughout one’s life.

Culture:

- Culture shapes our personal values and predispositions. It is the unique characteristic of a social group. The values and norms shared by its member’s sets it apart from other social groups. The essence of culture is the collective programming of the mind.
- According to anthropological concepts, culture relates to a shared system of beliefs, attitudes, possessions, attributes, customs, and values that define group behaviour. Values are assumptions about ‘how things ought to be’ in the group. Thus, culture plays a significant role in influencing the behaviour of an individual.

2.16 Theories of Personality

- A theory is a simple model of reality that helps us understand, explain, predict and deal with reality. We have some theories that explain an individual’s personality.

Sigmund Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory

- This theory is based on the belief that man is encouraged more by unforeseen forces than the conscious and logical thought. Freud believed that most of the things in life are not present at the conscious level but they are present at an unconscious level.
- The features of Freud’s theory include three attributes – Id, Ego, and Superego.

Id – It defines the innate component of personality. It is the impulsive and unconscious part of mind that seeks immediate satisfaction. Example – A hungry baby cries till he/she is fed.

Ego – It is derived from Id and assists in dealing with the external world. It also helps in translating the inner needs into expressions. It deals with practical and rational thinking process. Example – We have a fight with our friend and expect the friend to talk first, even though both of us want to talk.

Superego – It is different from ego and is partially unconscious. It includes the traditional values of society as interpreted by our parents. It also helps in the integral vision of punishment. Example – Ram came late today so he is grounded for a week.

Erikson’s Theory

- This theory states that personality is groomed throughout lifetime. He presents eight distinct stages each with two possible outcomes. Successful completion of each stage leads to a healthy personality. These stages are –

Infancy – It is the period between 0-1 years of age. In this stage, children learn the ability to trust others depending on their caregivers. Unsuccessful completion in this stage results in anxiety and insecurity. Example – Children of this age are more comfortable with those faces they see more often and not with strangers.

Early Childhood – It is the period between 1-3 years of age. In this stage, children learn to be independent. If given support, they become more confident else they become dependent over others. Example – Children in this age are taught how to walk, how to talk etc.

Play Age – It is the period between 3-6 years of age. In this stage, children assert themselves frequently. The failure leads to development of a sense of guilt among them. Example – Children in this age group, need to be taught how to behave and should be taught to be focused.

School Age – It is the period between 6 years of age till puberty. In this stage, children become more innovative. They feel confident and want to achieve their goals. If not encouraged they may feel inferior. Example – Teenagers should be protected and parents need to understand them and should handle them patiently.

Adolescence – This stage is a transformation from childhood to adulthood. Here children find their own identity and should be guided and supported in order to help them choose the right direction. Example – Decision such as which stream to choose science or commerce etc. happens during this stage.

Young Childhood – This stage is also known as young adulthood. Here, they begin to open up and become more intimate with others. Example – Making close friends.

Adulthood – In this stage, they focus on establishing career and settling down with relationships that are important. Example – Applying for jobs.

Mature Adulthood – In this stage, a person is old and thus in this stage the productivity slows down. Example – Taking care of the family

Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory

- This theory was proposed by William Sheldon. He presents personalities by classifying individuals into convenient categories based on their body shapes. They are –
 - Endomorphs
 - Mesomorphs
 - Ectomorphs

Endomorphs

- In this category, the body is soft and spherical. People with this kind of personality love comfort, eat a lot, like to be around people and desire affection. Some common endomorph features are large amount of fat accumulation, insatiable appetite, larger frame etc.
- Some endomorph personalities are John Goodman, Jack Black etc.

Mesomorphs

- In this category, the body is hard and rectangular physique. People with this kind of personality like to take risk, are courageous and have power. Some common mesomorph features are wide shoulders, small waist, low body fat.
- Some mesomorph personalities are Jennifer Garner, Tina Turner etc.

Ectomorphs

- In this category, the body is fragile, flat chest and delicate body. People with this kind of personality are anxious, ambitious and dedicated. Some common ectomorph features are narrow frame, low body fat, etc.
- Some notable ectomorph personalities are Brad Pitt, Bruce Lee etc.

2.17 Value and Type of Value

- Values defined in Organizational Behavior as the collective conceptions of what is considered good, desirable, and proper or bad, undesirable, and improper in a culture.
- According to M. Haralambos, "A value is a belief that something is good and desirable".

- According to R.K. Mukherjee, “Values are socially approved desires and goals that are internalized through the process of conditioning, learning or socialization and that become subjective preferences, standards, and aspirations”.
- According to T. W. Hhipie, “Values are conscious or unconscious motivators and justifiers of the actions and judgment”
- Thus, values are collective conceptions of what is considered good, desirable, and proper or bad, undesirable, and improper in a culture.
- Familiar examples of values are wealth, loyalty, independence, equality, justice, fraternity and friendliness.
- There are two types of values;
 1. Terminal Values.
 2. Instrumental Values.

Terminal Values

- These are values that we think are most important or most desirable.
- These refer to desirable end-states of existence, the goals a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime.
- They include happiness, self-respect, recognition, inner harmony, leading a prosperous life, and professional excellence.

Instrumental Values

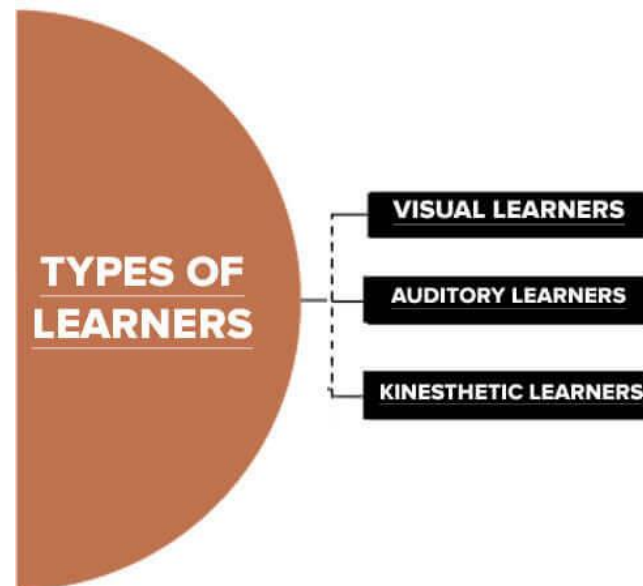
- Instrumental values deal with views on acceptable modes of conductor means of achieving the terminal values.
- These include being honest, sincere, ethical, and being ambitious. These values are more focused on personality traits and character.
- The values a person holds will affect his or her employment.
- For example, someone who has an orientation toward strong stimulation may pursue extreme sports and select an occupation that involves fast action and high risks, such as firefighter, police officer, or emergency medical doctor.
- Someone who has a drive for achievement may more readily act as an entrepreneur.

2.18 Learning

- Learning can be defined as the permanent change in behavior due to direct and indirect experience. It means change in behavior, attitude due to education and training, practice and experience. It is completed by acquisition of knowledge and skills, which are relatively permanent.
- Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. - Stephen P. Robbins
- Learning is the process of having one’s behaviour modified, more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes. - Munn N.L.
- Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour potentially that results from reinforced practice or experience. - Steers and Porter

2.19 Types of Learner

- There are following types of learners:
 1. Visual Learners
 2. Auditory Learners
 3. Kinesthetic Learners



Visual Learners:

- Visual learners learn primarily through the written word.
- They tend to be readers who diligently take down every word.

Auditory Learners:

- Auditory learners learn primarily through listening.
- They focus their ears and attention on your words, listening carefully to everything you say.
- They like to talk rather than write and relish the opportunity to discuss what they've heard.

Kinesthetic Learners

- Kinesthetic learners learn better by doing
- This group learns best when they can practice what they're learning
- They want to have their hands on the keyboard, the hammer, or the test tube because they think in terms of physical action.

2.20 Learning Process

- The learning process has the following steps:
 1. Stimuli
 2. Attention
 3. Recognition
 4. Translation
 5. Reinforcement
 6. Behavior

7. Reward
8. Habits
9. Motives
10. Efforts

Stimuli

- Stimuli are any objects and language which draw the attention of people. Employees get stimuli from the actions of their superiors. Superiors tell and advice employees who pay attention to these stimuli. All the stimuli may not be fully attended to.

Attention

- The degree of attention depends upon the nature of stimuli. All stimuli are not paid attention to. Technical and interesting stimuli are highly attended. Career-oriented stimuli are generally accepted by employees. The personality levels of employees influence their desires to learn, motives for need fulfilment and tension reduction.

Recognition

- Attention-paid stimuli are recognised as acceptable factors of improvement and new life styles. Employees paying attention to stimuli are recognising the stimuli for learning purposes. The levels of recognition depend upon the levels of values, preferences, needs and desires of the employees.

Translation

- The translation and evaluation process is a crucial point for implementing the stimuli in behaviour through reinforcement. Employees behave properly through attitude changes, objectivity, mental and physical development. It is observed in better performances.

Reinforcement

- Reinforced perception is learning. The perception process includes stimuli, attention, recognition, translation and behaviour. Perception leads to learning, but perception itself is not learning unless it is reinforced.
- Repeated action is reinforcement. Reinforcement may be positive, negative, punishment and extinction. Learners learn as per their perception levels. Generally positive reinforcement is more effective for making permanent changes in behaviour.

Behavior

- Learning changes behaviour through reinforcement of perceived knowledge. It makes permanent changes in behaviour. A temporary change in behaviour is not learning. Positive behaviour gives rewards to employees.

Reward

- Employees expect rewards for learning. If the translated behaviour provides a reward, it is accepted, otherwise it is not accepted. Employees develop their behaviour into habits. Rewards may be monetary or non-monetary.

Habits

- A permanent change in behaviour becomes a habit which helps continuous improvement in behaviour and performance. Employees develop the habit of selfappraisal and development. It helps to instil creativity and confidence in employees who are encouraged to behave properly again and again.

Motives

- Motives depend on the level of satisfaction. Employees getting more satisfaction through learning develop high motives. Less satisfied learners have low motives. Learning is complete only when motives are fully realised and translated into efforts.

Efforts

- Habits help achieve good efforts and performance. This is a continuous process. Efforts are the automatic outcome of good habits which are acquired through the learning process. Self-development is possible through self-effort. Employees willing to develop themselves are self-motivated and effort-oriented.

2.21 Learning Theories

- Theories of Learning
 1. Classical conditioning theory
 2. Operant conditioning theory
 3. Cognitive learning theory
 4. Social learning theory

Classical conditioning theory

- Classical conditioning can be defined as a process in which a formerly neutral stimulus when paired with an unconditional stimulus, becomes a conditioned stimulus that elicits a conditioned response.
- Ivan Pavlov, a Russian psychologist (Nobel Peace Prize) developed classical conditioning theory of learning based on his experiments to teach a dog to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell.
- When Pavlov presented meat (unconditioned stimulus) to the dog, he noticed a great deal of salivation (conditioned response). But, when merely bell was rung, no salivation was noticed in the dog.
- Then, when next Pavlov did was to accompany the offering of meat to the dog along with ringing up of bell.
- He did this several times. Afterwards, he merely rang the bell without presenting the meat. Now, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang.
- After a while, the dog would salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no meat were presented. In effect, the dog had learned to respond i.e. to salivate to the bell.
- Pavlov concluded that the dog has become classically conditioned to salivate (response) to the sound of the bell (stimulus). It will be seen that Classical Conditioning learning can take place amongst animals based on stimulus-response (SR) connections.
- This stimulus-response connection (S-R) can be applied in management to assess organizational behavior. Historically when a CEO visits an organization, production charts are updated, individuals put on a good dress, window panes are cleaned and floors are washed. What all one has to do is to just say that the Top Boss is visiting.
- You will find that all the above work is undertaken (response) without any instructions. Because the people in the organization have learned the behaviour (conditioned). It has caused a permanent change in the organization (S-R connections).

Operant Conditioning

- Operant Conditioning is concerned primarily with learning as a consequence of behaviour Response-Stimulus (R-S). In Operant Conditioning particular response occurs as a consequence of many stimulus situations.

- Operant conditioning argues that behaviour is a function of its consequences.
- People learn to behave to get something they want or avoid something they don't want.
- Operant behavior means voluntary or learned behavior.
- The tendency to repeat such behaviour is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behaviour.
- Reinforcement therefore strengthens behaviour and increases the likelihood it will be repeated.
- This Response-Stimulus (R-S) can be applied in management to assess organizational behavior. From an organisational point of view, any stimulus from the work environment will elicit a response. The consequence of such a response will determine the nature of the future response.
- For example, working hard and getting the promotion will probably cause the person to keep working hard in the future.

Cognitive Learning Theory

- Behaviourists such as Skinner and Watson believed that learning through operant and classical conditioning would be explained without reference to internal mental processes.
- Today, however, a growing number of psychologists stress the role of mental processes. They choose to broaden the study of learning theories to include such cognitive processes as thinking, knowing, problem-solving, remembering and forming mental representations.
- According to cognitive theorists, these processes are critically important in a more complete, more comprehensive view of learning.

Social Learning Theory

- Albert Bandura contends that many behaviours or responses are acquired through observational learning. Observational learning, sometimes called modelling, results when we observe the behaviours of others and note the consequences of that behaviour.
- Social learning theory is a behavioral approach. The approach basically deals with learning process based on direct observation and the experience.
- Social learning theory integrates the cognitive and operant approaches to learning. It recognises that learning does not take place only because of environmental stimuli (classical and operant conditioning) or of individual determinism (cognitive approach) but is a blend of both views.
- Usually, the following four processes determine the influence that a model will have on an individual:
 1. Attention Process
 2. Retention Process
 3. Motor Reproduction Process
 4. Reinforcement Process
- Management of human resource plays a dominant role in the growth of an organization. Various material inputs in the organization can be put to its optimum utilization if the employees display a positive attitude towards organizational systems, processes, activities and have appropriate interpersonal behavior.

2.22 Oraisatinal Behaviour Modification Technique

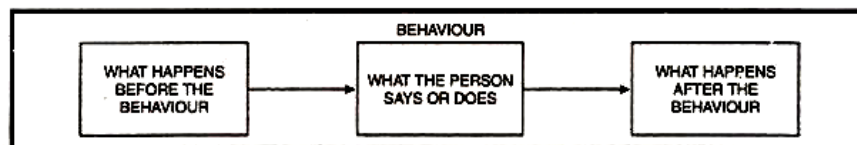
- Modern behaviorists lay great emphasis on operant conditioning for molding behaviour of individuals and motivating them. Behaviour modification, popularly known as OB MOD makes use of various reinforcements to influence the behaviour of individuals. OB Mod is derived and

developed from the work of B.F. Skinner. This technique helps the managers in modifying or eliminating undesirable behaviour and replacing it with behaviour that is more compatible with goal attainment.

- OB Mod in simple words can be defined as a technique for modifying the modifying or behaviour of the organisational members so that they are engaged in desirable undesirable behaviour and replacing it with behaviour. It can be used for motivating the employees as well as for enhancing organisational effectiveness.
- According to Stephen P. Robbins: “OB Mod is a programme where managers identify performance related employee behaviours and then implement an intervention strategy to strengthen desirable behaviour and weaken undesirable behaviours.”

A-B-C's Of Behaviour Modification:

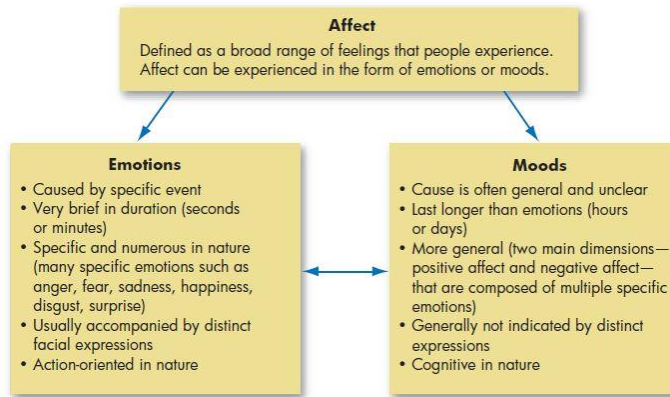
- Behaviour modification as has been just explained helps the manager in eliminating or modifying undesirable behaviour and replacing it with behaviour that's more compatible. It further helps us to understand how environmental contingencies influence behaviour.
- There can be two contingencies of behaviour:
 - (i) The Antecedents. These are the events preceding the behaviour.
 - (ii) The consequences i.e. the events that follow a particular behaviour.
- Both these variables put together form the A-B-C model.
- The main aim of this model is to change Behaviour by managing its antecedents and consequences as is shown in the following diagram:



2.23 Emotio and Emotional Labour



- In our analysis, we'll need three terms that are closely intertwined: affect, emotions, and moods.
- Affect is a generic term that covers a broad range of feelings, including both emotions and moods.
- Emotions are intense feelings directed at someone or something.
- Moods are less intense feelings than emotions and often arise without a specific event acting as a stimulus.



- There are dozens of emotions, including anger, contempt (तिरस्कार), enthusiasm, envy (ईर्ष्या), fear, frustration, disappointment, embarrassment, disgust, happiness, hate, hope, jealousy, joy, love, pride, surprise, and sadness.
- we will classify emotions into two categories: positive and negative.
- **Positive emotions**— such as joy and gratitude—express a favorable evaluation or feeling.
- **Negative emotions**— such as anger and guilt—express the opposite.
- Keep in mind that emotions can't be neutral.



- **Emotional Labor** A situation in which an employee expresses organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions at work.
- If you've ever had a job in retail, sales, or waited on tables in a restaurant, you know the importance of projecting a friendly demeanor (अर्चन) and smiling.
- Emotional labor is a key component of effective job performance.
- We expect flight attendants to be cheerful, funeral directors to be sad, and doctors emotionally neutral.
- The way we experience an emotion is obviously not always the same as the way we show it.
- To analyze emotional labor, we divide emotions into **felt** or **displayed** emotions.



- **Felt emotions** are our actual emotions.
- In contrast, **Displayed emotions** are those the organization requires workers to show and consider appropriate in a given job. They're not innate; they're learned, and they may or may not coincide with felt emotions.
- Displaying fake emotions requires us to suppress real ones.

- **Surface acting** is hiding inner feelings and emotional expressions in response to display rules. A worker who smiles at a customer even when he doesn't feel like it is surface acting.
- **Deep acting** is trying to modify our true inner feelings based on display rules.
- Surface acting deals with *displayed* emotions, and deep acting deals with *felt* emotions.
- **Affective Events Theory (AET)** A model that suggests that workplace events cause emotional reactions on the part of employees, which then influence workplace attitudes and behaviors.
- Affective events theory (AET) proposes that employees react emotionally to things that happen to them at work, and this reaction influences their job performance and satisfaction.
- Say you just found out your company is downsizing. You might experience a variety of negative emotions, causing you to worry that you'll lose your job. Because it is out of your hands, you feel insecure and fearful, and spend much of your time worrying rather than working. Needless to say, your job satisfaction will also be down.
- AET offers two important messages. First, emotions provide valuable insights into how workplace events influence employee performance and satisfaction. Second, employees and managers shouldn't ignore emotions or the events that cause them, even when they appear minor, because they accumulate.
-

2.24 Emotional Intelligence

- Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, control, and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it's an inborn characteristic.
- The ability to express and control emotions is essential, but so is the ability to understand, interpret, and respond to the emotions of others. Imagine a world in which you could not understand when a friend was feeling sad or when a co-worker was angry. Psychologists refer to this ability as emotional intelligence, and some experts even suggest that it can be more important than IQ in your overall success in life.
- A number of different assessments have emerged to measure levels of emotional intelligence. Such tests generally fall into one of two types: self-report tests and ability tests.
- Self-report tests are the most common because they are the easiest to administer and score. On such tests, respondents respond to questions or statements by rating their own behaviors. For example, on a statement such as "I often feel that I understand how others are feeling," a test-taker might describe the statement as disagree, somewhat disagree, agree, or strongly agree.
- Ability tests, on the other hand, involve having people respond to situations and then assessing their skills. Such tests often require people to demonstrate their abilities, which are then rated by a third party.
- If you are taking an emotional intelligence test administered by a mental health professional, here are two measures that might be used:
- Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an ability-based test that measures the four branches of Mayer and Salovey's EI model. Test-takers perform tasks designed to assess their ability to perceive, identify, understand, and manage emotions.
- Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) is based on an older instrument known as the Self-Assessment Questionnaire and involves having people who know the individual offer ratings of that person's abilities in several different emotional competencies. The test is

designed to evaluate the social and emotional abilities that help distinguish people as strong leaders.

- There are also plenty of more informal online resources, many of them free, to investigate your emotional intelligence.

2.25 Impression Management

- We know that people have an ongoing interest in how others perceive and evaluate them.
- For example, North Americans spend billions of dollars on diets, health club memberships, cosmetics, and plastic surgery – all intended to make them more attractive to others. Being perceived positively by others should have benefits for people in the organization.
- It might, for instance, help them initially to get the jobs they want in an organization and, once hired, to get favorable evaluations, superior salary increases, and more rapid promotions. In a political context, it might help sway the distribution of advantages in their favor.
- The process by which individuals attempt to control the impression others form of them is called impression management. It's a subject that has gained the attention of OB researchers only recently.
- Keep in mind that IM does not imply that impressions people convey are necessarily false.
- Excuses, for instance, may be offered with sincerity. Referring to the example used in Figure you c'an actually believe that ads contribute little to sales in your region. But misrepresentation can have a high cost. If the image claimed is false, you may be discredited.
- Impression Management Techniques are;
 1. Conformity.
 2. Excuses.
 3. Apologies.
 4. Self-promotion.
 5. Flattery.
 6. Favors.
 7. Association.
- Most of the studies undertaken to test the effectiveness of IM techniques have been limited to determining whether IM behavior is related to job interviews success.
- Employment interviews make a particularly relevant area of study since applicants are clearly attempting to present positive images of themselves and there are relatively objective outcome measures. The evidence indicates that IM behavior works.
- In one study, for instance, interviewers felt that applicants for a position as a customer service representative who used IM techniques performed better in the interview, and they seemed somewhat more inclined to hire these people.
- Moreover, when the researchers considered applicants' credentials, they concluded that it was the IM techniques alone that influenced the interviewers.
- That is, it didn't seem to matter if applicants were well or poorly qualified. If they used IM techniques, they did better in the interview.

2.26 Individual decision making techniques

- In a practical situation, a person is different from others. That's why different people use different decision-making styles in the organization.

- There are two reasons for the differences between decision-making styles. The first is the way of thinking.
- Some people are logical and rational. They process information serially. In contrast, some people are intuitive and creative. They perceive things as a whole. The other reason addresses a person's tolerance for ambiguity.
- Some people have a high need to structure information in ways that minimize ambiguity, while others can process many thoughts at the same time. Research on decision styles has identified four different individual approaches to making decisions.
- These are Individual decision-making styles are 4 types; analytic style, conceptual style, directive style, and behavioral style.
 1. Analytic Style.
 2. Conceptual Style.
 3. Directive Style, and
 4. Behavioral Style.
- The analytic style has a much higher tolerance for ambiguity than do directive decision-makers. Analytic managers would be best characterized as careful decision-makers with the ability to adapt to or cope with novel and unexpected situations.
- Individuals with conceptual styles tend to use data from multiple sources and consider many alternatives. Their focus is on taking long-run decisions, and they are very good at finding creative solutions to problems.
- People using a directive style have a low tolerance for ambiguity and seek rationality. They are efficient and logical, but their efficiency concerns result in decisions made with minimal information and with few alternatives assessed.
- Directive style makes decisions fast, and they focus on the short run.
- Lastly, behavioral style characterizes decision-makers who have a strong concern for the people in the organization and their development. They are concerned with the well-being of their subordinates and usually receive suggestions from others.
- Although these four decision-making styles are different, most managers have the characteristics to fall into more than one. It is probably best to think in terms of the manager's dominant style and his or her backup styles.
- Some managers rely almost exclusively on their dominant style; however, more flexible managers can make shifts 'depending on the situation.

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