

## AEC-124

## Personality Development

<b>Semester</b>	<b>: II</b>		
<b>Course No.</b>	<b>: AEC-124</b>	<b>Credit Hrs. :</b>	<b>2(1+1)</b>
<b>Course Title</b>	<b>: Personality Development</b>		
Gradual Common Course across all UG Degrees			

### Objective

- To make students realize their potential strengths, cultivate their inter-personal skills and improve employability.

### Theory

- Personality Definition, Nature of personality, theories of personality and its types. The humanistic approach - Maslow's self-actualization theory, shaping of personality, determinants of personality, Myers-Briggs Typology Indicator, Locus of control and performance, Type A and Type B Behaviours, personality and Organizational Behaviour.
- Foundations of individual behavior and factors influencing individual behavior, Models of individual behavior, Perception and attributes and factors affecting perception, Attribution theory and case studies on Perception and Attribution.
- Learning: Meaning and definition, theories and principles of learning, Learning and organizational behavior, Learning and training, learning feedback.
- Attitude and values, Intelligence- types of Intelligence, theories of intelligence, measurements of intelligence, factors influencing intelligence, intelligence and Organizational behavior, emotional intelligence. Motivation- theories and principles, Teamwork and group dynamics.

### Practical

MBTI personality analysis, Learning Styles and Strategies, Motivational needs, Firo-B, Interpersonal Communication, Teamwork and team building, Group Dynamics, Win-win game, Conflict Management, Leadership styles, Case studies on Personality and Organizational Behavior.

### Suggested reading

- 1) Andrews, Sudhir. 1988. How to Succeed at Interviews. 21st (rep.) New Delhi. Tata Mc Graw-Hill.
- 2) Heller, Robert. 2002. Effective Leadership. Essential Manager series. Dk Publishing.
- 3) Hindle, Tim. 2003. Reducing Stress. Essential Manager series. Dk Publishing.
- 4) Kumar, Pravesh. 2005. All about Self- Motivation. New Delhi. Goodwill Publishing House
- 5) Lucas, Stephen. 2001. Art of Public Speaking. New Delhi. Tata - Mc-Graw Hill.
- 6) Mile, D.J. 2004. Power of Positive Thinking. Delhi. Rohan Book Company.
- 7) Smith, B. 2004. Body Language. Delhi: Rohan Book Company.
- 8) Shaffer, D. R. 2009. Social and Personality Development (6th Edition). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth

**TEACHING SCHEDULE**  
**SCHEDULE : THEORY [AEC-124]**

Lecture No.	Topic	Sub-topics/ Key Points	Weightage (%)
1	Personality	Definition, Nature of Personality	5
2	<b>Theories of Personality and its Types</b>	The Humanistic Approach- Maslow's self-actualization theory; Types- Extroversion, Introversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness	10
3		Shaping of Personality - improving communication skills, stepping out of comfort zone, learning to say no, tapping into creativity, getting curious, giving yourself a daily affirmation, practicing self-care. Determinants of Personality- Physical, Intellectual, Social and Psychological	10
4		Myers- Briggs Typology indicator Four Indicators- Introvert/ Extrovert, Thinking/ Feeling, Sensing/ Intuiting, Judging/ Perception, Locus of Control and Performance	10
5		Type A and Type B Behaviours Theory	5
6		Difference between Personality and Organizational behaviours	5
7	<b>Personality and Organizational Behaviours</b>	Foundations of individual behaviours, Factors influencing individual behaviour- personality, values, motivation, perspectives and social impacts	5
8		Models of Individual behaviour- Rational Economic man, Social man, The Self actuating man, Complex man	5
9		<b>Perception</b>	Attributes and Factors affecting perception; Attribution theory and Case studies on Perception and Attribution
10	<b>Learning</b>	Meaning, Definition; Theories and Principles of Learning	10
11		Difference between Learning and Organizational behavior; Difference between Learning and Training; Feedback of Learning	5
12	<b>Attitude and Values</b>	Meaning, Definitions, Concept	5
13	<b>Intelligence</b>	Types of Intelligence, Theories of intelligence	
14		Measurement of intelligence Factors affecting intelligence Difference between intelligence and organizational behaviour, Emotional intelligence	5
15	<b>Motivation</b>	Meaning, Theories and Principles	5
16	<b>Team and Group Dynamics</b>	Meaning, Definitions, Concept	5
<b>Total=</b>			<b>100</b>

## Personality Development

2 (1+1)

### Introduction :

For laypersons, the term personality is often understood in terms of being good looking, attractive etc. They go by the impression created by the person concerned. The ability to talk and interact with others pleasantly in addition to being good looking would make others say that the person concerned has a good personality. Persons who do not have good looks or not well dressed or do not interact adequately are considered to have poor personality. But scientifically this is not a true concept of personality. In fact, psychologists consider any attempt to define personality in terms of social attractiveness inadequate because of two reasons, first it limits the number and types of behaviour considered important and worthy for incorporation into the study of personality. Second, such notion carries the absurd implication that some people who have unique abilities and temperament traits are devoid of having a personality. In this unit we will be dealing with the definition of personality as put forward by psychologists.

**Personality -Concept & Definitions:** The term personality is often understood in terms of social attractiveness. A good personality is considered to be one who impresses other people and who has the ability to get on well with others. Those who do not possess such ability are said to have relatively poor personality. Personality is a complex and dynamic concept that refers to the unique and consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that define an individual. Different psychologists have defined personality differently;

Gordon Allport (1961): “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems *that determine his unique adjustments to the environment.*” (1937)

“Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems *that determine his characteristic behavior and thought*” (1961)

Allport argued that biology influences our personality development. He accepted the idea that temperament, constitutes an inherited biological foundation for personality. There is some evidence that this might be the case. The temperaments of young children tend to be consistent into adulthood.

Carl Jung (1934) "Personality is the supreme realization of the innate idiosyncrasy of a living being."

Jung's definition reflects his belief that personality is the full expression of an individual's unique, inborn nature.

Sigmund Freud (1921) "Personality is shaped by unconscious desires, childhood experiences, and inner conflicts." That means the adult personality emerges as a composite of early childhood experiences, based on how these experiences are consciously and unconsciously processed within human developmental stages, and how these experiences shape the personality.

Raymond Cattell (1950) "Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation."

Psychologists have attempted to explain the concept of personality in terms of individuality and consistency. We often observe that people differ a great deal in the ways they think, feel and act and that too to different or even same situations. This distinctive pattern of behaviour helps one to define one's identity.

Commenting upon the notion of individuality, it has been said that each of us in certain aspects is like all other persons, like some other persons and like no other person who has been in the past or will be existing in future (Kluckhohn & Murray, 1953).

Another important notion in defining the concept of personality is consistency. In other words it can be stated that the concept of personality also rests on the observation that a person seems to behave somewhat consistently in different situations over different time. From this observation of perceived consistency comes the notion of personality traits that determine the way of responding to one's world.

**Combining these notions of individuality and consistency**, personality can be defined as the distinctive and unique ways in which each individual thinks, feels and acts, which characterize a person's response throughout life.

In other words, it can be said that **personality refers to all those relatively permanent traits, dispositions or characteristics within the person** that give some measure of consistency to the person's behaviour. These traits may be unique, common to some groups or shared by the entire species but their pattern will be different from individual to individual.

It is in this sense that Allport (1937, 1961), defined personality as the dynamic organization within the person of the psychophysical systems that determine the unique adjustments to one's environment. This suggests that there is an inner personality that guides and directs individual's behaviour.

For better distinct understanding of the term personality, it is essential that it should not be confused with character and temperament. While the term character refers to the value judgements, which are made about a person's moral values or ethical behaviour, the term temperament refers to the inborn enduring characteristics such as adaptability, irritability etc. However, both character and temperament are vital parts of personality.

### **NATURE OF PERSONALITY**

Personality is a whole rather than a sum of parts. We cannot identify the personality of a person on the basis of his physique or his intellectual level or his character. But the all these elements put together are made to function in harmony which makes his personality. The conduct, behaviour, activities, movements and everything else concerning the individual are known as personality. It is the way of responding to the environment. The way in which an individual adjusts with the external environment is personality. Let us discuss the following points regarding the nature of personality.

#### **i. Personality is the result of both heredity and environment:**

Heredity involves all those physiological and psychological peculiarities, which a person inherits from his parents. These peculiarities are transmitted to us through genes. It is indisputable that heredity determines the difference of sex and it is on this basis that some scientists contend that heredity determines personality because it is the difference of sex, which determines the personality of men and women. Environment has a very significant effect on man. Its effect starts from his birth and continues almost till his death. The status of the child, youth and the old man in the family and in the society is not same and as a result of this difference, a man's roles, temperaments, ways of thinking, tendencies and character are affected; all these determine the personality of men and women. In the same way, the status of the person in places like school, occupation, social situation, etc. affects his personality.

#### **ii. Personality is composed of traits, which are by and large learned or acquired:**

By the time we become a mature personality, the contribution of learning is so prominent that we often misinterpret personality as the equivalent of learning. It is important

to note that learning plays a very important role in the making of one's personality. In order to explain the dynamics of one's personality, it is sometimes convenient to refer to the various types of learning, which a person is able to exhibit in his behavioural range.

### **iii. Personality implies an integration of various traits:**

All the elements, which are ultimately identified as parts of personality structure, get integrated rather than assembled together. Thus, the integration of various traits results into a distinct whole which is known as personality of an individual. Personality represents a unique integration of traits so as to differentiate one person from another on the basis of this very quality. The unique way in which we laugh or smile, weep or cry, talk or lecture, greet or salute becomes the watermark of our personality.

### **iv. Personality is a dynamic process:**

Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual. Here, dynamic means that personality is undergoing a constant change but is still organized. Personality development is a reciprocal relationship between the ways in which a person views his experiences and his actual social and interpersonal experiences. Development of personality is a continuous growth, which occurs because of the inherent tendency toward self-growth on the one hand and our personal, environmental and social experiences on the other hand. Therefore, we can say that personality is a dynamic process.

## **CHARACTERISTICS OF PERSONALITY -**

- **Personality refers to both physical and psychological qualities of an individual.-** It has both Biological and Social Influence - Genes and social experiences shape personality.
- **Psychological Integration** – Personality integrates thoughts, emotions, and behaviors into a coherent whole.
- **Uniqueness** – Every person has a distinct personality. It is unique in the sense that no two individuals are same in terms of their personality.
- **Consistency** – Personality traits remain relatively stable over time. Personality is the manner of adjustment of individual to the organization, environment and the group.
- **Dynamic Nature** – It develops through interactions with the environment. Personality is dynamic. It changes with the time and situation.

- Personality is a system. It has input, processing and output mechanisms.
- Personality influences goal achievement and performance of an individual.

### **The types of Personality :**

#### **A) CG Jung's Classification:**

C G Jung has classified personality on the basis of sociability character as Introverts and Extraverts.

**Introverts** are described as people who share characteristics such as shyness, social withdrawal, and tendency to talk less. Because of these characteristics these people appear to be self-centered, unable to adjust easily in social situations. They are not easily suggestible. They are future oriented, very sensible and rigid in ideas.

**Extroverts** share a tendency to be outgoing, friendly, talkative, and social in nature. They prefer social contacts, generous, sportive, and courageous. They are happy-go-lucky persons and show interest in present reality than future. They express their feelings openly. Take decisions quickly and act upon quickly. They are not affected easily by difficulties.

**Ambiverts:** There are only few people who are pure introverts or pure extraverts. The remaining majority of people possess both the qualities of introverts and extraverts. Such people are called as Ambiverts. This classification was made by psychologists who came after Jung.

These personality traits are now widely studied in psychology, with further development in theories like the Big Five Personality Traits and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).

#### **B) Ernst Kretschmer's Classification: Physical Types**

German psychologist Kretschmer has attempted to correlate physique and character. From his studies on mental patients, he found that certain body types are associated with particular types of mental disorders. He has classified personalities into four types:

**a. Pyknic type:** These are people who are short and having round body. They will have personality traits of extraverts. These people are more prone to suffer from a mental disorder called Manic Depressive Psychosis (MDP).

**b. Asthenic type:** These people will have a slender or slim body. They will have the personality traits of introverts. These people are more prone to suffer from a serious mental disorder called Schizophrenia.

**c. Athletic type:** These people will have strong body. They are more energetic and aggressive. They will be strong enough, determined, adventurous and balanced. They are comparable with ambiverts. They are more prone to suffer from MDP.

**d. Dysplastic type:** These people will have unproportionate body and do not belong to any of the three types mentioned above. This disproportion is due to hormonal imbalance. Their behaviour and personality are also imbalanced.

### C) William Sheldon's Classification: Somatypes

Sheldon has proposed a theory of personality correlating temperament and body type. He has divided people into three types:

**a. Endomorph:** These people will have soft, fat and round body, having predominance of abdominal region. They are sociable and relaxed (can be compared to pyknic type).

**b. Ectomorph:** These are the people who are tall, thin and flat chested, having the skin, bones and neural structure predominantly. They are shy, reserved and self-conscious (can be compared with asthenic type).

**c. Mesomorph:** These people are well built with heavy and strong muscles appear predominantly. They are physically active, noisy; adventurous by nature (can be compared to athletic type).

### D) Eduard Spranger's personality classification-

Spranger believed that each person can be described as having one of these value types throughout their life.

Spranger's value types

- a) Theoretical: People who are primarily interested in discovering truth- Metaphysicians & Pure scientist
- b) Economic: People who are primarily interested in what is useful-Typical Businessman
- c) Aesthetic: People who value form and harmony- Sensuous gratification, unreliable
- d) Social: People who value love of people- Interest in fellow beings & Social movements
- e) Political: People who are primarily interested in power- Desire power
- f) Religious: People who value unity- Mystic and pietistic or missionary type

**Canon personality classification:** Cannon described different types of personality based on glands. The Canon personality theory stated that personalities depended on functions of the hypothalamus in the brain and its response in the viscera through smooth muscles and glands.

The overactivity or under-activity of the ductless glands like adrenal, pituitary, gonads, and thyroid glands can determine a person's emotion. Malfunctioning of these glands can cause physical ailments, and also affect the mood, emotions, feelings, intellectuality, and personality of a person.

## **THEORIES OF PERSONALITY :**

### **1. Psychodynamic Theories (Unconscious Drives & Childhood Experiences)**

Focus on unconscious processes, childhood experiences, and inner conflicts.

Key Theorists:

Sigmund Freud – Psychoanalytic Theory (Id, Ego, Superego, Psychosexual Stages)

Carl Jung – Analytical Psychology (Collective Unconscious, Archetypes)

Alfred Adler – Individual Psychology (Inferiority Complex, Striving for Superiority)

Erik Erikson – Psychosocial Development Theory (8 Stages of Personality Growth)

### **2. Trait Theories (Stable Personality Characteristics)**

Focus on identifying and measuring consistent personality traits.

Key Theorists & Theories:

Gordon Allport – Cardinal, Central, and Secondary Traits

Raymond Cattell – 16 Personality Factors (16PF)

Hans Eysenck – Three Factor Model (PEN: Psychoticism, Extraversion, Neuroticism)

The Big Five Model (OCEAN) – Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism

### **3. Humanistic Theories (Self-Growth & Free Will)**

Emphasize personal growth, free will, and self-actualization.

Key Theorists:

Carl Rogers – Self-Concept & Unconditional Positive Regard

Abraham Maslow – Hierarchy of Needs & Self-Actualization

### **4. Behavioral & Social-Cognitive Theories (Learning & Environment)**

Personality develops through interactions with the environment and learned behaviors.

Key Theorists:

B.F. Skinner – Behaviorism (Reinforcement & Punishment Shape Personality)

Albert Bandura – Social Learning Theory (Observational Learning, Reciprocal Determinism, Self-Efficacy)

Walter Mischel – Person-Situation Debate (Behavior Changes Based on Situations)

### **5. Biological & Evolutionary Theories (Genetics & Brain Influence)**

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Focus on the role of genetics, brain structures, and evolution in personality.

Key Theorists & Concepts:

Hans Eysenck – Biological basis of Extraversion & Neuroticism

Twin & Genetic Studies – Research on hereditary influences on personality

David Buss – Evolutionary Personality Theory (Traits evolve for survival & reproduction)

## **Theories of Personality :**

Since personality variables reflect consistent and enduring patterns of behaviour, these patterns can be classified into certain categories. so that the behaviour can be predictable once we identify the pattern of behaviour as belonging to a given category.

## **Psychoanalytic theory/ Psychodynamic Theories.**

The Psychoanalytic theory of personality has held the interest of psychologists and psychiatrists for a long time.

### **A) Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory:**

Sigmund Freud, a physician by profession, was the major contributor of psychoanalytic theories of personality. He developed his theory while doing clinical practice with patients. "Unconscious mental processes" is central to his theory. It refers to those desires, needs, and motivations for which we are not aware. Further, according to Freud, darker aspect of human behaviour such as aggression and sexual desires also plays important role in our personality.

In the view of Sigmund Freud, our mind can be divided into three levels; conscious, preconscious and unconscious.

### **Components of Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory**

**i. ID-** Latin for the term "it," 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, that is, to seek pleasure, avoid pain and gain immediate gratification of its wishes. 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.

The id is the only part of the personality that is present at birth. It is inherited, primitive, inaccessible and completely unconscious. The id contains:

- The life instincts, which are sexual instincts and biological urges such as hunger and thirst
- The death instinct, which accounts for our aggressive and destructive impulses.

**ii. 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.

The ego is the logical, rational, realistic part of the personality. The ego evolves from the id and draws its energy from the id. One of the functions of the ego is to satisfy the id’s urges. But the ego, which is mostly conscious, acts according to the reality principle.

It must consider the constraints of the real world in determining appropriate times, places, and object for gratification of the id’s wishes.

**iii. 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.

When the child is age 5 or 6 the superego – the moral component of the personality – is formed. The superego has two parts:

- The “conscience“, consisting of all the behaviours for which we have been punished and about which we feel guilty
- The “ego ideal“, containing the behaviours for which we have been praised and rewarded and about which we feel pride and satisfaction.

In its quest for moral perfection, the superego, a moral guide, sets up signposts that define and limit the flexibility of ego.

## 2. Neo-Freudian Theories

### a) Carl Jung's Analytical Psychology/ Carl Jung Personality Theory

Carl Jung's Analytical Psychology is deeply focused on self-discovery, balance, and integrating different aspects of personality for personal growth. This theory of personality emphasizes the role of the unconscious mind in shaping human behavior. It expands on Freud's ideas but introduces new concepts, including:

#### a) **The Structure of the Psyche:** Jung divided the psyche into three parts:

- The Ego (conscious mind) – the center of personal awareness.
- The Personal Unconscious – contains repressed memories and experiences unique to an individual.
- The Collective Unconscious – a deeper level containing universal symbols and archetypes shared by all humans.

**b) Archetypes:** Universal, inherited symbols or themes in the collective unconscious, including:

- The Self – the unification of the conscious and unconscious mind.
- The Persona – the "mask" one wears in society.
- The Shadow – the dark, hidden side of one's personality.
- The Anima/Animus – the feminine side of men (Anima) and the masculine side of women (Animus).

**c) Individuation:** The lifelong process of integrating different aspects of the personality (conscious and unconscious) to achieve self-realization and wholeness.

**d) Psychological Types:** Jung introduced introversion and extraversion as core personality orientations, later forming the basis for the MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator).

Jung's theory suggests that personal growth involves integrating unconscious elements into conscious awareness, leading to a more balanced and fulfilled self.

Carl Jung's personality theory is arguably the concepts of extroversion and introversion. Essentially, the Carl Jung personality theory is not about labeling an individual with a personality but instead determining what cognitive functions they mostly use and prefer.

Extroversion and introversion are attitude types; these two attitudes are paired with one

of the four functions: feeling, thinking, sensing, and intuition, and two accompanying functions: judging and perceiving. Characteristics of each of these attitudes include:

**Extroversion:** Most associated with an outgoing, talkative personality. However, Jung refers to extroversion as moving one's energy to the external world, outside of the self.

**Introversion:** Often associated with a quiet, reflective personality. Jung refers to introversion as moving one's energy internally, within the self.

Note that all individuals possess both extroverted and introverted functions; whether or not one is displayed more than the other is an individual's preference.

### **b) Alfred Adler's Individual Psychology theory of Personality:**

This theory focuses on the uniqueness of each person and the importance of social influences in shaping behavior. Key concepts include:

**i. Striving for Superiority:** Adler believed that people are motivated by an innate drive to overcome feelings of inferiority and achieve personal growth and success. This "inferiority complex" develops in childhood and can shape personality.

**ii. Social Interest:** Unlike Freud, Adler emphasized the importance of social connections and community. He believed that a healthy personality is one that contributes to society and fosters cooperation.

**iii. Birth Order Theory:** Adler suggested that birth order influences personality, with firstborns, middle children, and youngest children developing different traits based on their family roles.

**iv. Lifestyle:** Each person develops a unique way of approaching life, shaped by early experiences, beliefs, and goals. This lifestyle determines how they strive for superiority and handle challenges.

**v. Creative Power of the Self:** Adler emphasized that individuals are not just shaped by past experiences but actively create their own personalities through choices and goals.

Adler's theory highlights the importance of personal responsibility, goal-setting, and social relationships in shaping personality.

### **Trait Theories of Personality**

Trait theorists believe personality can be understood via the approach that all people have certain traits, or characteristic ways of behaving. Do you tend to be sociable or shy?

Passive or aggressive? Optimistic or pessimistic? Moody or even-tempered? Early trait theorists tried to describe all human personality traits

### **Gordon Allport's Trait Theory :**

Gordon Allport and Henry Odbert listed around 17953 words in the English language that refers to personality. These words could be used to describe people. This study (1936) became the empirical and conceptual base of the Five-Factor Theory at a later stage. Based on their investigation (Allport reduced the listed words to 4500 trait-like words), they formulated 'Allport's theory of personality. According to their theory, three types of traits govern our personality. They named these three categories of traits as Cardinal traits, Central traits, and Secondary traits. Allport organized these traits in a hierarchy.

**1. Cardinal Traits** - These are the dominant traits of one's personality. They stand at the top of Allport's trait hierarchy. These traits are the master controller of one's personality. These traits may dominate one's personality to such an extent that the person becomes known for those traits only. Such as Mother Teresa for altruism and M.K. Gandhi for his honesty.

Cardinal traits have an overwhelming influence on the behavior of the individual. These traits are at the very core of the personality. According to Allport, these traits are rare i.e., very few people have personalities dominated by cardinal traits. A majority of people have a personality composed of multiple traits.

These are dominant traits that define a person's entire personality and influence almost all of their behaviors. Only a few people have a cardinal trait.

Example:

Mother Teresa – Compassion: Her entire life was dedicated to helping the poor and sick.

Adolf Hitler – Ruthlessness: His ideology and actions were largely shaped by extreme ruthlessness.

Martin Luther King Jr. – Justice: His leadership in the Civil Rights Movement was driven by an unwavering pursuit of equality.

**2. Central Traits-** They come second in the hierarchy. According to Allport, every person possesses 5-10 central traits in varying degrees. These are also called the building blocks of personality.

To cite an example, a person being outgoing, sociable, etc. In other words, central traits are those tendencies that a person often expresses. People around the person can easily notice

these kinds of traits. Are responsible for shaping our personality. When you describe someone, you are likely to use words that refer to these central traits: aristocratic, street smart, intelligent, loyal, dependable, timid, aggressive, arrogant, etc. One of these is indeed dominant while others do dominate but do not have the overriding influence on the person's behavior.

Through such traits, one can define the personality of the individual concerned. These central traits reveal the structure and organization of personality.

These are general characteristics that shape most of a person's behaviors but do not dominate their entire personality. They are common in everyone and help describe an individual's personality.

Example:

Honest – A person who is mostly truthful in their interactions.

Loyal – Someone who stands by their friends and family.

Kind – A person who generally treats others with warmth and care.

Confident – A person who believes in their abilities and expresses themselves assertively.

Intelligent – Someone who consistently demonstrates logical thinking and problem-solving skills.

**3. Secondary Traits-** These traits are less generalized, less consistent, and less relevant as compared to cardinal or central traits. These are called secondary traits. To give an example, the food preferences of an individual are quite varying in different times and situations. Or an aggressive child may not speak much in front of his/her teacher. These are less relevant traits of personality. These are situational or circumstantial traits. Are responsible for behaviors that are incongruent to an individual's usual behavior.

According to Allport's theory of personality these are "aroused by a narrower range of equivalent stimuli and they issue into a narrower range of equivalent responses". These are not overwhelming like the cardinal traits. Yet it can reflect in the various preferences and attitudes of the individual concerned. These traits are specific to situations. These are rather too general and are not as consistent as the cardinal traits. They can also change in certain special situations.

In Allport's theory of personality, he considered traits more like intervening variables that occur between the stimulus situation and response of the person.

These traits are more situational and less consistent. They appear only in certain circumstances or contexts.

Example:

Loving spicy food – A preference that doesn't define personality but influences food choices.

Nervous before public speaking – A person may generally be confident but feel anxious in certain situations.

Preferring solitude while working – Someone may be social but prefer to work alone for focus.

Impatience in traffic – A generally calm person may get irritated while driving.

Enthusiastic at concerts – Someone who is usually reserved may become very energetic when attending live music events.

### **Raymond Cattell's 16 Personality Factors :**

In an effort to make the list of traits more manageable, Raymond Cattell (1946, 1957) narrowed down the list to about 171 traits. However, saying that a trait is either present or absent does not accurately reflect a person's uniqueness, because all of our personalities are actually made up of the same traits; we differ only in the degree to which each trait is expressed. Raymond Cattell used factor analysis to identify core traits.

Cattell (1957) identified 16 factors or dimensions of personality: warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension.

He developed a personality assessment based on these 16 factors, called the 16PF. Instead of a trait being present or absent, each dimension is scored over a continuum, from high to low. For example, your level of warmth describes how warm, caring, and nice to others you are. If you score low on this index, you tend to be more distant and cold. A high score on this index signifies you are supportive and comforting. (About 163 Questions)

<b>Personality Factors Measured by the 16PF Questionnaire</b>			
<b>Sr. No.</b>	<b>Factor</b>	<b>Low Score</b>	<b>High Score</b>
1	Warmth	Reserved, detached	Outgoing, supportive
2	Intellect	Concrete thinker	Analytical

3	Emotional stability	Moody, irritable	Stable, calm
4	Aggressiveness	Docile, submissive	Controlling, dominant
5	Liveliness	Somber, prudent	Adventurous, spontaneous
6	Dutifulness	Unreliable	Conscientious
7	Social assertiveness	Shy, restrained	Uninhibited, bold
8	Sensitivity	Tough-minded	Sensitive, caring
9	Paranoia	Trusting	Suspicious
10	Abstractness	Conventional	Imaginative
11	Introversion	Open, straightforward	Private, shrewd
12	Anxiety	Confident	Apprehensive
13	Open-mindedness	Close-minded, traditional	Curious, experimental
14	Independence	Outgoing, social	Self-sufficient
15	Perfectionism	Disorganized, casual	Organized, precise
16	Tension	Relaxed	Stressed

### **Hans Eysenck's Three Dimensions of Personality**

Psychologists Hans and Sybil Eysenck were personality theorists who focused on temperament, the inborn, genetically based personality differences. They believed personality is largely governed by biology. Hans Eysenck's personality theory, often referred to as the PEN model, posits that personality can be understood through three primary dimensions: Extraversion-Introversion (E), Neuroticism(N) -Stability, and Psychoticism(P)- Low psychoticism.

These dimensions are not mutually exclusive but rather represent continua, meaning individuals can score high or low on each dimension.

According to their theory, people high on the trait of extroversion are sociable and outgoing, and readily connect with others, whereas people high on the trait of introversion have a higher need to be alone, engage in solitary behaviors, and limit their interactions with others.

In the Neuroticism-stability dimension, people high on neuroticism tend to be anxious; they tend to have an overactive sympathetic nervous system and, even with low stress, their bodies and emotional state tend to go into a flight-or-fight reaction. In contrast, people high on stability tend to need more stimulation to activate their flight-or-fight reaction and are considered more emotionally stable

Individuals with high Psychoticism are characterized by impulsivity, aggression, lack of empathy, and a tendency to disregard social norms. They may be risk-taking and unconventional. Individuals with low Psychoticism are more conforming, compassionate, and socially responsible. They tend to be more cautious and adhere to social rules.

Based on these two dimensions, the Eysencks' theory divides people into four quadrants.

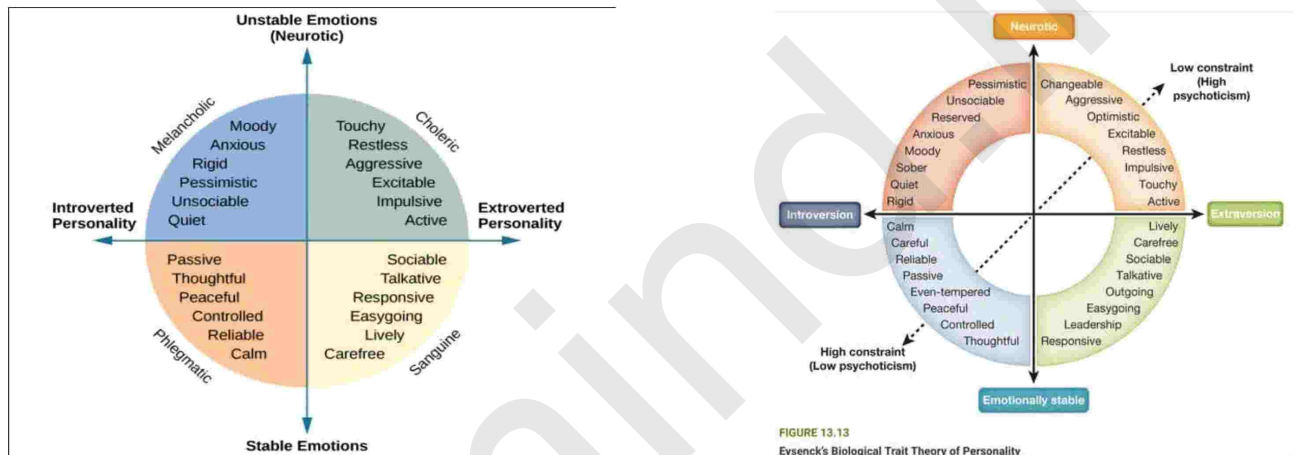


FIGURE 13.13 Eysenck's Biological Trait Theory of Personality

### McCrae and Costa's Big-five Factor Theory : - The Big Five (OCEAN Model)

While Cattell's 16 factors may be too broad, the Eysenck's two-factor system has been criticized for being too narrow. Another personality theory, called the Five Factor Model, effectively hits a middle ground, with its five factors referred to as the Big Five personality traits. It is the most popular theory in personality psychology today and the most accurate approximation of the basic trait dimensions (Funder, 2001). The five traits are openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. A helpful way to remember the traits is by using the mnemonic OCEAN.

In the Five Factor Model, each person has each trait, but they occur along a spectrum. Openness to experience is characterized by imagination, feelings, actions, and ideas. People who score high on this trait tend to be curious and have a wide range of interests.

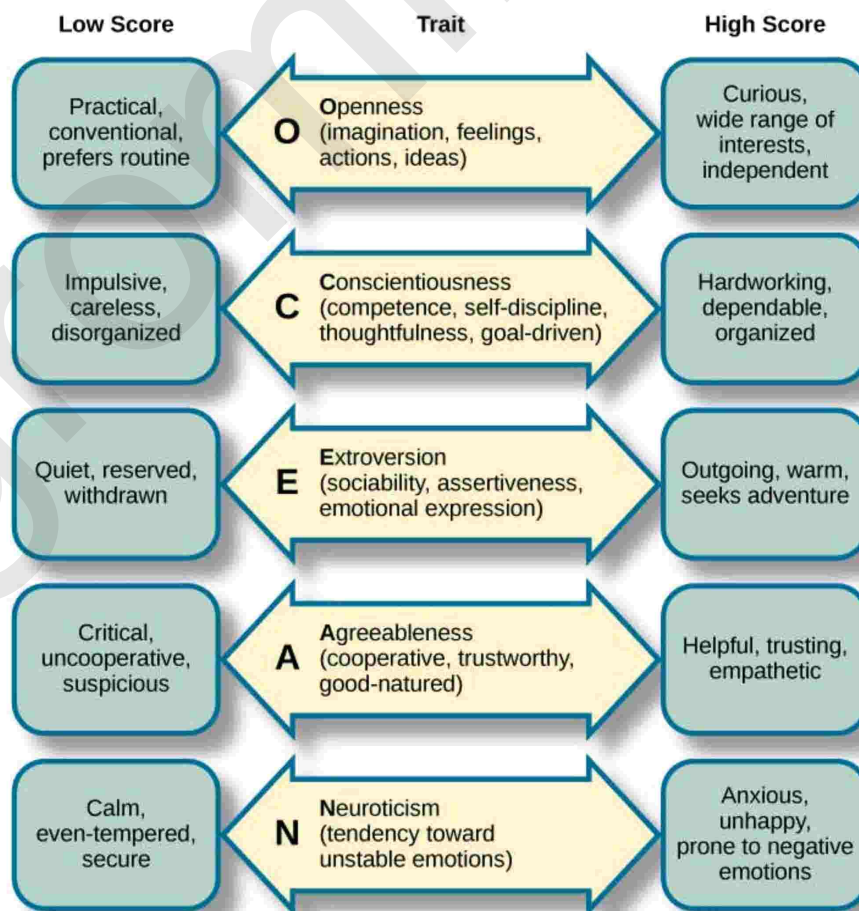
Conscientiousness is characterized by competence, self-discipline, thoughtfulness, and achievement-striving (goal-directed behavior). People who score high on this trait are hardworking and dependable. Numerous studies have found a positive correlation between conscientiousness and academic success.

Extroversion is characterized by sociability, assertiveness, excitement-seeking, and emotional expression. People who score high on this trait are usually described as outgoing

and warm. Not surprisingly, people who score high on both extroversion and openness are more likely to participate in adventure and risky sports due to their curious and excitement-seeking nature.

The fourth trait is agreeableness, which is the tendency to be pleasant, cooperative, trustworthy, and good-natured. People who score low on agreeableness tend to be described as rude and uncooperative, yet one recent study reported that men who scored low on this trait actually earned more money than men who were considered more agreeable.

The last of the Big Five traits is neuroticism, which is the tendency to experience negative emotions. People high on neuroticism tend to experience emotional instability and are characterized as angry, impulsive, and hostile. It is found that people reporting high levels of neuroticism also tend to report feeling anxious and unhappy. In contrast, people who score low in neuroticism tend to be calm and even-tempered.



The Big Five personality factors each represent a range between two extremes. In reality, most of us tend to lie somewhere midway along the continuum of each factor, rather

than at polar ends. It's important to note that the Big Five traits are relatively stable over our lifespan, with some tendency for the traits to increase or decrease slightly.

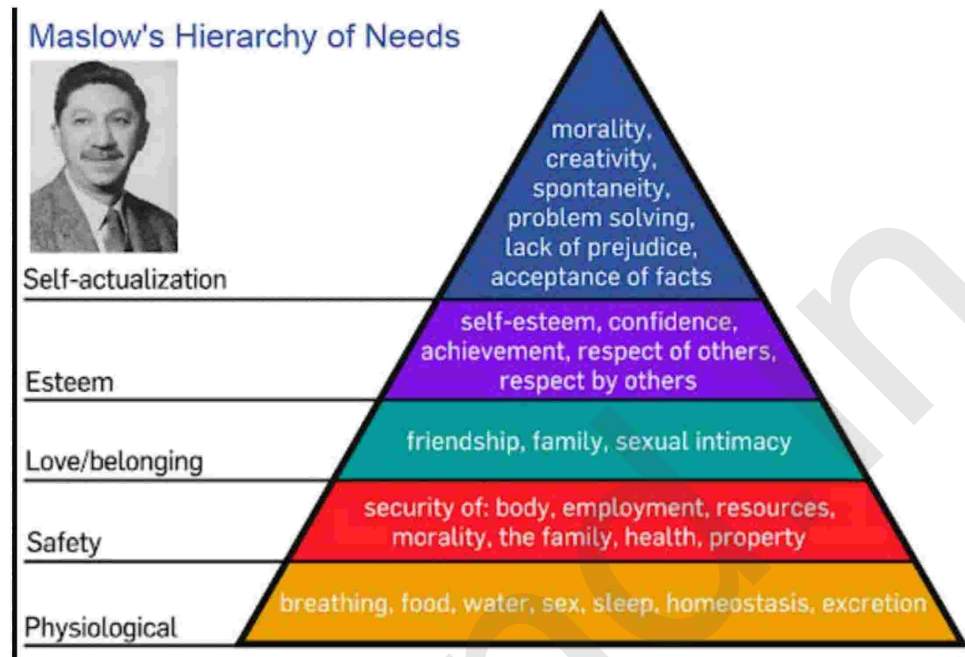
## **Humanistic Theories**

Psychoanalytic models of personality were complemented during the 1950s and 1960s by the theories of humanistic psychologists, an approach to psychology that embraces the notions of self-esteem, self-actualization, and free will. In contrast to the proponents of psychoanalysis, humanists embraced the notion of free will. Arguing that people are free to choose their own lives and make their own decisions, humanistic psychologists focused on the underlying motivations that they believed drove personality, focusing on the nature of the self-concept, the set of beliefs about who we are, and self-esteem, our positive feelings about the self.

It does not suggest that psychoanalytic, behaviorist, and other points of view are incorrect but argues that these perspectives do not recognize the depth and meaning of human experience, and fail to recognize the innate capacity for self-directed change and transforming personal experiences. This perspective focuses on how healthy people develop. One pioneering humanist, Abraham Maslow, studied people who he considered to be healthy, creative, and productive, including Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and others

### **a) Abraham Maslow's Self-Actualization Theory -**

Maslow (1950, 1970) found that such people share similar characteristics, such as being open, creative, loving, spontaneous, compassionate, concerned for others, and accepting of themselves. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, in which Maslow proposes that human beings have certain needs in common and that these needs must be met in a certain order. The highest need is the need for self-actualization, which is the achievement of our fullest potential.



Maslow's theory is based on the Hierarchy of Human Needs. According to Maslow, human behavior is related to his needs. It is adjusted as per the nature of needs to be satisfied. In hierarchy of needs theory, Maslow identified five types / sets of human need arranged in a hierarchy of their importance and priority. He concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivating factor. Thereafter, the next set of needs in the hierarchy order takes its place. These needs in hierarchy can be compared to a pyramid. At the lowest level, there will be first set of needs which can be described as basic needs and are universal in character. This will be followed by other sets of needs.

The most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called "deficiency needs" or "d-needs": esteem, friendship and love, security, and physical needs. If these "deficiency needs" are not met- with the exception of the most fundamental (physiological) need – there may not be a physical indication, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. Maslow's theory suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire (or focus motivation upon) the secondary or higher level needs. Maslow also coined the term "metamotivation" to describe the motivation of people who go beyond the scope of the basic needs and strive for constant betterment.

**The Maslow's Pyramid of Human Needs is explained below;**

- **Physiological Needs** : Physiological needs are the basic needs for sustaining human life. These needs include food, shelter, clothing, rest, air, water, sleep and sexual satisfaction. These basic human needs (also called biological needs) lie at the lowest

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level in the hierarchy of needs as they have priority over all other needs. These needs cannot be postponed for long. Unless and until these basic physiological needs are satisfied to the required extent, other needs do not motivate an employee. A hungry person, for example, is just not in a position to think of anything else except his hunger or food. According to Maslow, 'man lives by bread alone,' when there is no bread. The management attempts to meet such physiological needs through fair wages.

- **Security/Safety Needs:** These are the needs connected with the psychological fear of loss of job, property, natural calamities or hazards, etc. An employee wants protection from such types of fear. He prefers adequate safety or security in this regard i.e. protection from physical danger, security of job, pension for old age, insurance cover for life, etc. The safety needs come after meeting the physiological needs. Such physiological needs lose their motivational potential when they are satisfied. As a result, safety needs replace them. They begin to manifest themselves and dominate human behavior. Safety needs act as motivational forces only if they are unsatisfied.
- **Social Needs:** An employee is a human being is rightly treated as a social animal. He desires to stay in group. He feels that he should belong to one or the other group and the member of the group should accept him with love and affection. Every person desires to be affiliated to such groups. This is treated as basic social need of an individual. He also feels that he should be loved by the other members. He needs friends and interaction with his friends and superiors of the group such as fellow employees or superiors. Social needs occupy third position in the hierarchy of needs.
- **Esteem Needs:** This category of needs include the need to be respected by others, need to be appreciated by others, need to have power and finally prestigious position. Once the previous needs are satisfied, a person feels to be held in esteem both by himself and also by others. Thus, esteem needs are two fold in nature. Self esteem needs include those for self confidence, self-respect, competence, etc. The second groups of esteem needs are those related to one's status, reputation, recognition and appreciation by others. This is a type of personal ego which needs to be satisfied. The Organisation can satisfy this need (ego) by giving recognition to the good work of employees. Esteem needs do not assume the motivational properties unless the previous needs are satisfied.

- **Self-actualisation Needs:** This is the highest among the needs in the hierarchy of needs advocated by Maslow. Self actualisation is the desire to become what one is capable of becoming. It is a 'growth' need. A worker must work efficiently if he is to be ultimately happy. Here, a person feels that he should accomplish something in his life. He want to utilise his potentials to the maximum extent and desires to become what one is capable of becoming. A person desires to have challenges and achieves something special in his life or in the area of his specialization. Though everyone is capable of self actualization, many do not reach this stage. This need is fully satisfied rarely.

## **b) Carl Rogers' Self-Theory (Self-concept, unconditional positive regard)**

Perhaps the best-known humanistic theorist is Carl Rogers (1902-1987). Rogers was positive about human nature, viewing people as primarily moral and helpful to others, and believed that we can achieve our full potential for emotional fulfilment if the self-concept is characterized by unconditional positive regard — a set of behaviours including being genuine, open to experience, transparent, able to listen to others, and self-disclosing and empathic.

Carl Rogers' self theory focuses on the concept of the self as a complex and dynamic entity driven by the innate tendency to self-actualize. It highlights the importance of a person's self-concept, which is comprised of three key elements: the real self, the ideal self, and self-esteem. Rogers emphasizes that a healthy personality is characterized by congruence, where the real self and the ideal self are in alignment, leading to a positive self-image and self-worth. Following are the Key concepts of Rogers Theory;

**Self-Concept:** Rogers viewed the self-concept as an organized collection of perceptions about oneself that are accessible to awareness.

**Self-Image:** This is how an individual perceives themselves, their thoughts, and feelings about their own characteristics.

**Self-Esteem:** This refers to an individual's sense of worth or value.

**Ideal Self:** This is the person an individual aspires to be, their goals, and values.

**Congruence:** When there is a strong alignment between the real self (how a person perceives themselves) and the ideal self (who they want to be), a state of congruence exists, leading to a sense of wholeness and well-being.

**Incongruence:** When there is a significant discrepancy between the real self and the ideal self, a state of incongruence occurs, which can lead to psychological distress and anxiety.

## **Behavioral Theories of Personality**

Behavioral theories focus on observable behaviors and how the environment shapes personality through learning, particularly conditioning.

### **B.F. Skinner's Theory of Operant Conditioning**

Believed that personality is a result of learned behaviors, shaped by reinforcement (rewards) and punishment. Denied the role of internal thoughts or emotions. Example: A child becomes polite because politeness is rewarded (positive reinforcement).

### **John B. Watson's Theory of Classical Conditioning (built on Pavlov's work)**

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Argued that all behavior (including personality) is learned through environmental interactions. Famous for the Little Albert experiment, demonstrating how emotions (fear) can be conditioned.

### **Social Cognitive Theory of Personality**

This theory blends behaviorism with cognitive psychology, emphasizing how people think about themselves and the social world.

**Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory**- Originally known as "Social Learning Theory" This theory emphasized observational learning (modeling) — people learn by watching others. Introduced the concept of reciprocal determinism:

**Behavior ↔ Environment ↔ Personal factors (cognition)**  
all influence each other.

Developed the idea of self-efficacy — belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations. Famous Experiment: 'Bobo Doll Experiment' showed that children imitate aggressive behavior modeled by adults.

### **Determinants of Personality :**

Shaping personality is a continuous and dynamic process influenced by multiple factors, including biological, social, psychological, and situational elements. These factors interact in complex ways, influencing how an individual thinks, behaves, and responds to the world.

#### **1. Biological Factors – Genetics, Heredity, Neurobiology**

Biological factors provide the foundational framework for personality development. While they do not dictate personality entirely, they set the stage for tendencies and predispositions.

**Genetics & Heredity**- Personality traits such as extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness have been found to have a genetic component. Twin studies suggest that identical twins (who share the same DNA) often have similar personality traits, even when raised in different environments. Hereditary traits include temperament (how reactive or calm a person is), intelligence, and emotional regulation.

**Neurobiology (Brain Structure & Functioning)**- Neurotransmitters: Dopamine influences motivation, reward-seeking behavior, and sociability. Serotonin affects mood

stability, impulse control, and emotional regulation. Cortisol levels impact stress response and emotional resilience.

**Brain Regions:** The prefrontal cortex governs decision-making, impulse control, and rational thinking. The amygdala regulates emotions such as fear and aggression. The limbic system is responsible for emotional processing and social interactions.

**Hormonal Influence:** Testosterone is linked to dominance, competitiveness, and risk-taking. Oxytocin fosters social bonding and trust.

Thus, biological factors lay the foundation, but they interact with social and environmental elements to shape personality.

## **2. Social & Environmental Factors – Family, Culture, Peer Influence**

While biology provides a base, social and environmental influences shape the development of personality through interactions and experiences.

**Family & Upbringing** -The first social environment for any individual is their family. Parenting style, discipline methods, and emotional bonding influence self-esteem, attachment style, and behavioral tendencies. A secure attachment with caregivers fosters confidence and independence, while insecure attachment may lead to anxiety or difficulty forming relationships. Siblings and extended family contribute to personality formation through social interactions, rivalry, and support systems.

**Culture & Society** -Cultural values shape beliefs, behaviors, and moral principles. Individualistic cultures (e.g., Western societies) promote independence, self-expression, and personal achievement.

Collectivist cultures (e.g., many Asian societies) emphasize community, social harmony, and family reputation.

Societal norms dictate acceptable behaviors, influencing how individuals develop traits like assertiveness, introversion, or agreeableness.

**Peer Influence & Social Circles**- Friends and peer groups help shape personality, especially during adolescence. Positive peer influence can encourage personal growth, leadership, and social skills. Negative peer influence may lead to risky behaviors or identity confusion. Social interactions reinforce behaviors, shaping long-term personality traits. Thus, environmental and social factors play a significant role in molding an individual's personality beyond genetic predispositions.

### **3. Psychological Factors – Perception, Attitudes, Learning Experiences**

Psychological factors influence how individuals interpret and respond to experiences, shaping their personality development.

**Perception & Cognition** - How a person perceives the world—optimistically or pessimistically—affects their personality and behavior. Cognitive biases, such as confirmation bias (favoring information that aligns with beliefs), influence decision-making and worldview. Self-perception and self-concept determine confidence, motivation, and social interactions.

**Attitudes & Beliefs** - Attitudes towards life, success, failure, and relationships shape personality. Positive attitudes foster resilience, motivation, and open-mindedness, while negative attitudes may lead to cynicism or rigidity. Core beliefs, shaped by personal experiences and upbringing, influence values and decision-making.

**Learning & Personal Development**- Classical and operant conditioning shape behavioral tendencies (e.g., rewards and punishments influence discipline and self-control). Observational learning (modeling behaviors from role models or media) affects personality traits such as empathy, aggression, or leadership. Self-reflection and personal growth activities help individuals consciously shape their personality. Psychological factors determine how individuals interpret experiences, make choices, and adapt their personalities over time.

### **4. Situational Factors – Life Events, Stress, Experiences**

Situational factors introduce dynamic elements that shape and refine personality over time. Life events, both positive and negative, can bring significant changes to one's personality.

**Major Life Events**- Significant experiences such as childhood trauma, loss of a loved one, marriage, or career changes can alter personality. Difficult experiences may foster resilience and emotional growth or lead to stress-related disorders. Positive life events like achieving a goal, traveling, or forming meaningful relationships can enhance confidence and broaden perspectives.

**Stress & Coping Mechanisms** -People react to stress differently based on their personality and coping skills. Chronic stress can lead to changes in personality, making individuals more anxious, irritable, or withdrawn. Effective coping strategies, such as mindfulness, therapy, or problem-solving, can promote emotional stability and personal growth.

**Adaptability & Personality Evolution-** Personality is not fixed and continues to evolve based on situational experiences. Exposure to different cultures, career challenges, or relationships can shift personality traits over time. People who embrace change and adaptability often develop more well-rounded and resilient personalities.

### **Shaping the Personality**

Shaping personality in organizational behavior involves developing traits and behaviors that enhance professional growth and workplace effectiveness. Here's how each aspect contributes:

- **Improving Communication Skills** – Clear and effective communication fosters better relationships, teamwork, and leadership. Active listening, assertiveness, and empathy enhance workplace interactions.
- **Stepping Out of Comfort Zone** – Taking on challenges and new experiences helps develop adaptability, resilience, and confidence, which are crucial for growth in an organizational setting.
- **Learning to Say No** – Setting boundaries prevents burnout and ensures focus on priorities, leading to better time management and productivity.
- **Tapping into Creativity** – Encouraging creative thinking leads to innovative problem-solving and fresh perspectives, which add value to organizational success.
- **Getting Curious** – A curious mindset drives continuous learning, personal development, and openness to new ideas, making employees more resourceful and proactive.
- **Giving Daily Affirmations** – Positive self-talk reinforces confidence, motivation, and a growth mindset, which can improve work performance and resilience.
- **Practicing Self-Care** – Maintaining physical and mental well-being enhances focus, energy, and overall workplace efficiency, reducing stress and increasing job satisfaction.

### **Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) Theory –**

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a personality framework based on Carl Jung's theory of psychological types. It was developed by Isabel Briggs Myers and Katharine Cook Briggs to help individuals understand their personality preferences and how they interact with the world.

The MBTI categorizes personality into 16 distinct types, based on four dichotomies of preferences:

**1. The Four Dichotomies (Personality Dimensions)** Each person has a preference in four key areas, resulting in a unique personality type:

**A. Extraversion (E) vs. Introversion (I) – Energy Source**

**Extraverts (E):** Gain energy from social interactions and external activities. Outgoing, talkative, action-oriented. Prefer group activities and external stimulation.

**Introverts (I):** Gain energy from solitude and introspection. Thoughtful, reserved, prefer deep conversations. Focus on internal thoughts rather than external engagement.

**B. Sensing (S) vs. Intuition (N) – Information Processing**

**Sensing (S):** Focus on facts, details, and practical realities. Rely on direct experiences and concrete data. Prefer step-by-step thinking and hands-on learning.

**Intuition (N):** Focus on patterns, possibilities, and abstract ideas. Rely on imagination and big-picture thinking. Enjoy creativity, innovation, and future possibilities.

**C. Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F) – Decision-Making**

**Thinking (T):** Logical, objective, and analytical in decision-making. Prefer rules, fairness, and consistency. Make decisions based on facts rather than emotions.

**Feeling (F):** Value emotions, empathy, and relationships. Consider people's feelings and harmony in decision-making. Prioritize personal values and compassion.

**D. Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P) – Lifestyle and Structure**

**Judging (J):** Prefer structure, organization, and clear plans. Like to follow schedules and meet deadlines. Prefer predictability and control.

**Perceiving (P):** Flexible, spontaneous, and open to change. Prefer adapting rather than following rigid plans. Enjoy exploring new opportunities and ideas.

**The 16 Personality Types**

Each personality type is a combination of the four preferences, creating 16 MBTI types:

<b>MBTI Type</b>	<b>Description</b>
ISTJ (Inspector)	Responsible, organized, detail-oriented, practical.
ISFJ (Protector)	Loyal, caring, traditional, and highly dependable.
INFJ (Advocate)	Deep thinkers, intuitive, visionaries, empathetic.
INTJ (Mastermind)	Strategic, independent, logical, and future-focused.
ISTP (Craftsman)	Adaptable, logical problem-solvers, hands-on learners.

ISFP (Artist)	Creative, sensitive, free-spirited, and spontaneous.
INFP (Mediator)	Idealistic, deeply passionate, and introspective.
INTP (Thinker)	Curious, innovative, and logical problem-solvers.
ESTP (Entrepreneur)	Energetic, adventurous, and action-driven.
ESFP (Entertainer)	Fun-loving, enthusiastic, and people-oriented.
ENFP (Campaigner)	Imaginative, social, and full of new ideas.
ENTP (Debater)	Quick-witted, argumentative, and intellectually curious.
ESTJ (Executive)	Practical, efficient, strong leadership skills.

The MBTI is a widely used personality assessment tool that helps individuals understand their strengths, preferences, and career inclinations. While it is not scientifically perfect, it provides valuable insights into personality dynamics and workplace behaviors.

### **Locus of Control & Performance**

Developed by Julian Rotter, Locus of Control refers to how individuals perceive the causes of their success and failures.

### **Types of Locus of Control**

**Internal Locus of Control** – Belief that outcomes depend on personal effort and actions. Individuals are more proactive, confident, self-motivated, and responsible. Perform better in leadership and entrepreneurial roles.

**External Locus of Control** – Belief that external factors (luck, fate, others) determine success. These individuals are more dependent on external guidance and less confident in decision making. They may struggle in high-responsibility roles.

### **Impact on Performance**

- Individuals with an Internal Locus of Control tend to perform better in jobs requiring initiative, decision-making, and leadership.
- Those with an External Locus of Control may struggle with accountability but may adapt well in structured environments

### **Type A & Type B Behaviors-**

There are persons who are extremely active, get things done on time and are extremely target oriented. For them achieving, completing and accomplishing tasks are very important. They are generally tense if they find that they cannot get their work done. They are extremely punctual and time bound in all their activities and actions.

Contrast to this is the B type personality persons who are calm , collected, not over concerned with achieving things on time, less time bound and generally affable by nature and tend to take things easy and work also in groups with greater efficiency.

Both these personalities are important in that they both have excellent characteristics which help to achieve goals but their approach to life and reaching goals vary a great deal.

Two American cardiologists named Friedman and Rosenman in the early 1950s observed that certain behaviours of the above given ones were more likely to exist in people with heart disease than in others. They called the combination of these behaviours the Type A behaviour pattern and the absence of these characteristics as Type B personality.

**Type A Personality** - The Type A personality generally lives at a higher stress level. Some of the factors related to their working at this level are given below:

- They enjoy achievement of goals.
- They enjoy achieving goals that are more difficult.
- They constantly keep working hard to achieve their goals.
- Once they start to work they cannot stop, even when they have achieved goals.
- They feel the pressure of time, as they have to reach their goals within the stipulated time period.
- They work so hard that there is no rest that they take and thus are totally exhausted.
- They are highly competitive and generally creates competition if there is none as it gives them great enjoyment and pleasure to compete and win.
- They hate failures and work hard to avoid it.
- They are well educated persons and successful too and physically they appear fine even though they are highly stressed out.

**Type B Personality**- The Type B personality generally lives at a lower stress level.

- They work steadily, enjoying achievements but not becoming stressed when they are not achieving or have failed to reach the target.

- When faced with competition, they do not mind losing
- They may be creative and enjoy exploring ideas and concepts.
- They are often reflective, thinking about the outer and inner worlds.

### **Impact on Organizational Behavior**

- Type A individuals excel in fast-paced, high-pressure jobs (finance, sales, leadership).
- Type B individuals perform better in creative, strategic, and collaborative environments.

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## Difference between Personality & Organizational Behaviour

Personality and organizational behavior are related but distinct concepts. Personality refers to an individual's unique traits and characteristics that shape their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, while organizational behavior is the study of how individuals and groups behave within an organizational setting.

Personality can be defined as sum total of ways in which an individual interacts with people and reacts to situation.

Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of study that examines the behavior of individuals, groups, and structures within an organization and how they impact the organization's effectiveness.

Personality in organizational behaviour refers to the unique traits, behaviours, and characteristics that individuals exhibit in a work environment. Personality influences how an individual interacts with their environment and perceives themselves and others, impacting their behavior in various situations, including the workplace.

Personality provides the "who" and "why" behind individual behavior, while organizational behavior explores the "where" and "how" that behavior manifests within an organization. Understanding both is crucial for effective management and leadership, as managers can leverage knowledge of individual personality to better understand and influence behavior within their organizations. Following are the Basic Differences between Personality & Organizational Behaviours.

Feature	Personality	Organizational Behavior
Focus	Individual traits and characteristics	Human behavior within an organization
Scope	Individual level	Organizational level (individual, group, structure)
Stability	Relatively stable	Dynamic, influenced by situational factors
Influence	Shapes individual thinking and behavior	Explains and predicts behavior within the workplace
Example	An individual's extraversion	How extraversion might affect leadership style in an organization

## **Individual Behaviour :**

Individual behaviour is a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli. According to psychologist Kurt Levin individuals are influenced by a number of diversified factors both genetic and environmental.

Individual behavior refers to the way a person acts, thinks, and feels in response to both internal and external stimuli, encompassing their personality, values, and beliefs.

Individual behaviour can be defined as the way individuals behave, react and respond in a given environment. Each individual has their own personality which defines their behaviour. No two individuals behave in the same manner in a particular work environment.

## **Foundations of Individual Behaviour -**

The foundation of individual behavior comprises several vital factors that impact how one acts within an organizational setting.

Personality, consisting of the unique characteristics forming an individual's thoughts, emotions, and deeds, stands as a primary determinant.

Values also play an indispensable role, steering judgments and conduct in line with profoundly held convictions.

Furthermore, perspectives significantly affect how individuals perceive their duties and socialize with colleagues, coloring their general satisfaction with employment.

Motivation remains another pivotal foundation, propelling individuals to pursue aims and plunge into their assignments.

Finally, social impacts, like organizational culture and relationships with peers, further mold individual behavior, highlighting the intricate nature of human interplay within the workplace. Internal drives and external social and cultural pressures interact in complex ways, collectively shaping the diverse ways that individuals express themselves and find purpose within an organizational system.

## **Foundations/ factor affecting Individual Behaviour**

1. Personal Factors
2. Environmental Factors
3. Organisational Factors

### **1. Personal Factors:-**

It can be classified into two categories:

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**a) Biographical Characteristics      b) Learned Characteristics**

- Physical Characteristics
  - Age
  - Gender
  - Ability
  - Marital Status
- Personality
  - Perception
  - Attitudes
  - Values

**a) Biographical Characteristics**

**i. Physical Characteristics-**

These Characteristics are related to height, skin, complexion, vision, shape, weight, size of nose etc. All these factors have an impact on the performance of the individuals.

**ii. Age-** Has impact on performance, turnover, absenteeism, productivity and job satisfaction level. Young people are expected to be more energetic, innovative, adventurous, ambitious and risk taking. Whereas old people are supposed to be more conservative, set their own way and less adaptive.

**iii. Gender-** Being a male or female is genetic and it is an inherited feature. It has impact on absenteeism and turnover.

**iv. Ability-** Refers to an individual capacity or capability to perform various tasks in a given job.

• Intellectual ability- performing mental activities are called intellectual

• Physical ability - It include a person's stamina and strength require to perform particular job.

**v. Marital status-** Not enough studies to draw any conclusion as to whether there is any relationship between marital status and individuals performance at work. Research has consistently indicated that as marriage imposes increased responsibilities, to have a steady job becomes more valuable and important. Married employees have fewer absences, less turnover and more job satisfaction as compared to unmarried workers.

**b) Learned Characteristics:**

**i. Personality-** It is a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person's whole psychological system. it refers to the personal traits.

**ii. Perception-** Perception is the viewpoint by which one interprets a situation, the process by which information enters our minds and is interpreted in order to give some sensible meaning to the world around us.

**iii. Attitude-** Attitude means the way person feels about something, a person, a place, a thing, a situation and or an idea. It expresses an individual's positive or negative feeling about some object.

**iv. Values-** Value carries an individual's idea as to what is right and what is wrong. They are very important to study of organizational behaviour.

## **2. Environmental Factors**

The external environment is known to have a considerable impact on a person's behaviour. A brief description of the external factors are as follows,

### **a) Economic Factors.**

The behaviour of an individual is affected to a large extent by the economic environment. A few economic factors which directly or indirectly affect the individual behaviour are as follows,

- Employment Level
- Wage Rates
- General Economic Environment
- Technological Development

### **b) Socio-cultural Factors.**

The social environment of an individual includes his relationship with family members, friends, colleagues, supervisors and subordinates. The behaviour of other people not with the individual, but in general, is also a part of his social environment. Similarly, every individual has a cultural background, which shapes his values and beliefs. Work ethics, achievement need, effort-reward expectations and values are important cultural factors having impact on the individual behaviour.

### **c) Political Factors.**

Political environment of the country will affect the individual behaviour not directly, but through several other factors. In a politically stable country there will be a steady level of employment (both in quantity and quality) and high level of capital investment, whereas, companies are reluctant to invest large sums of money in a politically instable country. The political ideology of a country affects the individual behaviour through the relative freedom available to its citizens. A country can have a controlled society or less controlled

society. The relative freedom available to the individuals can affect their career choice, job design and performance.

**d) Legal Environment.**

Rules and laws are formalized and written standards of behaviour. Both rules and laws are strictly enforced by the legal system. Laws relate to all the members of the society e.g. Murder is a crime which is illegal and punishable by law and applies to all the people within the system. Observing the laws voluntarily allows for predictability of individual behaviour.

**3. Organisational Factors**

Individual behaviour is influenced by a wide variety of organizational systems and resources. These organizational factors are as explained below:

**a) Physical Facilities.**

The physical environment at a work place is the arrangement of people and things so that it has a positive influence on people. Some of the factors which influence individual behaviour are noise level, heat, light, ventilation, cleanliness, nature of job, office furnishing, number of people working at a given place etc.

**b) Organisation Structure and Design.**

These are concerned with the way in which different departments in the organisation are set up. What is the reporting system? How are the lines of communication established among different levels in the organization? The behaviour and performance of the individual is influenced by where that person fits into the organizational hierarchy.

**c) Leadership.**

The system of leadership is established by the management to provide direction, assistance, advice and coaching to individuals. The human behaviour is influenced to a large extent by the behaviour of the superiors or leaders. Behaviour of the leaders is more important than their qualities.

**d) Reward System.**

The behaviour and performance of the individuals is also influenced by the reward system established by the organisation to compensate their employees.

## **Foundations/ factor affecting Individual Behaviour**

Factors Affecting Individual Behavior at Work- Individual conduct within an organizational setting is influenced by numerous components. Understanding these elements is fundamental for administrators to make viable procedures that enhance worker execution and fulfillment.

### **Personality:**

Personality significantly shapes individual behaviour in the workplace by influencing how people interact with others; approach tasks, and respond to challenges. Traits like conscientiousness and extraversion, for instance, can impact performance, leadership effectiveness, and teamwork dynamics. Understanding these influences can help organizations optimize team composition and individual development.

### **Values:**

Values profoundly influence individual behaviour in the workplace, shaping how people think, feel, and act. They serve as a guiding principle, influencing decisions, attitudes, and performance. Alignment between personal and organizational values can lead to increased engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Conversely, a misalignment can result in disengagement, reduced productivity, and even negative behaviours.

### **Attitudes:**

In the workplace, attitudes significantly impact an individual's behaviour. Positive attitudes lead to increased job satisfaction, motivation, and productivity, while negative attitudes can result in decreased job satisfaction, absenteeism, and potentially even decreased turnover. A person's attitude towards work, colleagues, and the organization shapes how they interact with others, perform their tasks, and contribute to the overall workplace environment.

### **Motivation:**

Motivation significantly shapes individual behaviour in the workplace, influencing aspects like performance, engagement, and job satisfaction. Motivated employees tend to be more productive, engaged in their work, and happier in their roles, leading to benefits like increased staff loyalty and a more positive work environment.

### **Perception:**

Perception significantly shapes workplace behaviour by influencing how individuals interpret and respond to situations, ultimately impacting their motivation, job satisfaction, and

overall productivity. Understanding the role of perception is crucial for promoting effective communication, decision-making, and leadership.

### **Emotions:**

Emotions significantly shape individual behaviour in the workplace, impacting communication, attitudes, decision-making, and overall job satisfaction. Positive emotions like joy can boost morale and motivation, while negative emotions like anger can lead to aggression or decreased performance. These emotional influences are internalized and can affect various aspects of work, including how individuals perceive their job, company, and team.

### **Social Influences:**

Social influence significantly shapes individual behaviour in the workplace by influencing how employees interact, conform, and adapt to organizational culture. This influence stems from various factors like peer pressure, role models, and leadership behaviours, ultimately impacting employee attitudes, performance, and overall engagement.

### **Models of Individual Behaviour :**

Models are techniques which helps us to understand complex things and ideas in clear manner. Managers try to understand individual difference in order to understand their human behavior and individual difference result in variation in individual behavior and performance in terms of their perception, personality, motivation and other behavioral issues because different jobs need different behavior. A research study was conducted at Texas instrument establishes that different types of individuals prefer different behavior and managerial pattern like:

- i) Tribalistic: prefer directive, strong leadership from their boss.
- ii) Ego-centric- desire to work alone in their own entrepreneurial style.
- iii) Socio centric: seek social relationship.
- iv) Existential: strives for satisfying the growth and self-fulfillment needs from their jobs.

Managers try to understand individual differences in order to understand human behaviour and assign different jobs to different people. In other words manager understand individual differences in order to make a balance between the individual behavior and job demands. Manager makes assumption about man while understanding their differences. These assumptions resulted in developing various models of man. Schein and William H. Whyte Jr.

have developed five models of man viz., Rational Economic Man (ii) Social Man (iii) Organizational Man, (iv) Self Actualising Man (v) Complex man, (vi) Impulsive Man, (vii) Compulsive Man

### **1. Rational Economic Man:**

From the organisational perspective, managers had, for a long time, viewed their employees as rational beings who are primarily motivated by money. They took the 'Economic Man' and 'Rational Man' approach to understand and predict the human behaviour. This model is based on classical organization theory.

The Scientific Management Movement was based on the belief that by rationally explaining the one best way to do things and offering incentives to workers in the form of piece rates and bonuses, organisational output can be increased. Psychologists have also studied this model for predicting human behaviour.

The basic assumptions of the concept of 'Rational Economic Man' are as follows:

- (i) People are motivated primarily by economic incentives. They will do things which get them the greatest economic gain.
- (ii) As the organisation controls the economic incentives, human beings are essentially passive agents, who are manipulated, motivated and controlled by the organisation.
- (iii) The feelings of the people are essentially irrational and must be controlled to achieve rationality and self interest.
- (iv) Organisations can and must be designed in such a way so as to neutralize and control people's feelings and therefore their unpredictable traits.

In this model, people are induced to produce more by providing them with economic incentives. In this case, there is no organisation-employees conflict because both are satisfying their needs simultaneously. Management is getting more production and people are getting more money.

#### **Drawbacks:**

- (i) As this model is based on the classical organisation theory, it suffers from the shortcomings inherent in that theory and do not suit the present day organisation.
- (ii) The economic incentives can work till the man is not reasonably satisfied by the need of money.

Though, the need of money is inexhaustible and the man will never have enough, but after a certain stage, only money will not be sufficient for him. He will have some psychological needs also, which cannot be fulfilled by the organisation in this case. Therefore, it can be stated that the whole assumption of Rational Economic man are not sufficient in understanding and predicting human behaviour.

## **2. Social Man:**

With the passage of time, the advocates of human relations school recognized that there is a lot more to human behaviour than just being social man economic and rational. Advocates of this school considered the worker as a social man. They recognized that man is a part of the social group he is influenced by the social forces and seeks satisfaction of the needs which are related to the maintenance of his social relationships. Eltan Mayo conceived the concept of the social man when he carried out Hawthorne studies during 1927-32.

From the reports of Hawthorne experiments the following assumptions about human beings can be drawn:

- (i) Human beings are basically motivated by social needs and all their efforts are directed towards getting this satisfaction by maintaining relationships with others.
- (ii) A human being is more responsive to the pressures and sanctions of his social group than to the incentives and controls of the management. The reason is that he values social relationship higher than his economic motives which are directly under the control of management.
- (iii) The amount of work to be done by a worker is not determined by his physical capacity or by the management but by the social norms.
- (iv) Generally people do not act or react as individuals but as members of a group.
- (v) Informal leaders play an important role in setting and enforcing the group norms.
- (vi) Management should change and organize work in such a way that it provides more belongingness not only in terms of interpersonal and group relationships, but also man's relationship with his job.

The type of managerial strategy that is to be applied in the case of social man is quite different as compared to the strategy to be applied in case of Economic-Rational man. The total system of social man is directed towards people.

The following changes were required in the managerial strategy.

- (i) Earlier the management was conceived only with the output given by the workers. In this approach, the management had to pay attention to the workers also as human beings.
- (ii) Earlier, the only concern of the management was to provide economic incentives to the workers or in other words to look after their economic needs, but under this concept, the psychological needs were also to be considered.
- (iii) Another required change was to analyze and motivate human behaviour in terms of groups rather than on individual basis.
- (iv) Another change which was required was in the behaviour of the manager instead of being the controller of behaviour he was supposed to act as the supporter of workers.

The social man approach was also considered somewhat simplistic.

As time passed by, organisational behaviour theorists such as Argyris (1957), Likert (1961, 1967) and McGregor (1960) argued that people in organisations need opportunities to use their individual creativity and must have their growth needs met in order to function effectively.

### **3. Organisational Man:**

Organisation man is an extension of social man. The concept of organisation man was introduced by William Whyte. He believed that it is very important for a person to be loyal to the organisation and cooperative with the fellow workers. Any person who believes in this value system and acts in this way is an organisation man. The basis of this concept is and that every individual should sacrifice his individuality for the sake of the group and the organisation.

This idea was initially suggested by Henry Fayol, when he suggested that individual interest should be subordinated to the general interest. Whyte had explained three major propositions, on which this concept of organisation man is based.

These propositions are as follows:

- (i) The first proposition is that individual by himself is isolated and meaningless. The group is the source of activity. Individuals create only when they move in a group. A group helps to produce a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts.
- (ii) The ultimate need of every individual is belongingness. He wants to belong to his families, friends, relatives, colleagues and other members of the society as a whole. Whyte says that there should be no conflict between man and society.

(iii) The goal of belongingness is achieved with the help of science. Whenever there is a conflict between the needs of the society and the needs of the individual, an equilibrium can be created by applying the methods of science. Science can help in removing all the obstacles to consensus.

The organisation man concept emphasizes that there is no conflict between the individual interest and the interest of the organisation. Even if there is any conflict, individual interest will be sacrificed in favour of the group interest to remove the conflict.

However, there is a basic assumption behind this concept. The assumption is that management will take care of the individual interests. It would be the duty of the management to satisfy the needs of the individuals. People will be willing to sacrifice their interests for the organisation only if they are positive that the organisation would take care of them.

#### **4. The Self Actuating Man:**

The concept of self actuating man is a further extension of social man and the organisation man models. The social man concept assumes that the formation of social groups is the basis of satisfaction for the individuals. But as against this the self actuating man assumes that man's inherent need is to use his capabilities and skills in such a way that he should have the satisfaction of creating certain things. The earlier models do not allow him to satisfy his self actuating needs.

Following are the main assumptions about the self actuating man:

(i) The basic assumption about this concept is that the various needs of a man can be put in the order of priority. For example, MASLOW has put various needs in a hierarchy: Every unsatisfied need is a motivational factor for him. Self actualization according to this diagram is the ultimate goal, because it is last in the hierarchy and by the time his goal is achieved, all the other needs of the man are also satisfied.

(ii) In the process of self actualization, there are various changes in the behaviour of the individual and he moves from immaturity to maturity.

(iii) Another assumption is that a man is primarily self motivated and self controlled. Any incentives given by the management cannot motivate him after a certain level and any control imposed on him cannot threaten him.

(iv) The earlier models were based on the assumption that a man has got immature personality. However, the reality is that if a man is left free, he will put in his maximum efforts.

To satisfy a self-actuating man what are required are all the managerial actions meant to satisfy the social man with some additional features.

### **5. Complex Man:**

Complex man presents the real picture of human picture of human behavior. All the previous models make very simplistic assumptions about people and their behaviour.

Researchers have proved that these assumptions are not correct as explained below:

(i) The earlier models assume that man will always behave according to certain set patterns. But research has indicated that there are many complex variables, which determine the human behaviour. These variables are quite unpredictable. So the human behaviour which is based on these variables cannot follow a set pattern.

(ii) The behaviour of man can be understood and predicted in the given conditions, depending upon the assumptions made. But research has indicated that even if cause-effect relationship is established between the variables and behaviour, it is not easy to understand and predict the individual behaviour because of the individual differences. It is not necessary that everyone will behave accordingly. Most behaviour in the organisation can be understood by taking assumptions of complex man.

Following are a few assumptions about the complex man:

(i) People are not only complex but are also highly variable. Though their needs can be arranged in a hierarchy, but this hierarchy is also not universal. Different people may have different hierarchies.

(ii) People are capable of learning new motives through their organisational experiences.

(iii) People's motives in different organisations or different sub parts of the same organisation may be different.

(iv) People can respond to many different kinds of management strategies.

Though this model is quite complex, it indicates the real situation and lays emphasis on the fact that human behaviour is not as simple as assumed in the previous models. Hence current thinking on the subject is to take a 'complex man' approach and recognize that

different individuals have different needs and personality traits and if there is a proper match between these and the environment they operate in, functional behaviour will emerge.

(v) Man is motivated by a complex variables and factors. These complex variables include physiological, psychological, social, political, religious, climatic and geographical factors.

(vi) Interaction of the man with the organisation enables the employee to learn motives.

(vii) Man can behave differently in similar situations due to the absence of cause effects relationship.

## **6. Impulsive Man**

According to these concepts, man acts and reacts immediately and quickly. The impelling forces result in sudden inclination to act. The impulsive forces make the man to act suddenly without thinking rationally. It would be highly difficult to predict the behaviour of impulsive man.

## **7. Compulsive Man**

A number of factor viz., social factors, cultural factors, political factors, economic factors, natural factors affect human behaviour. In addition, the personality factors of other persons particularly superiors, subordinators and colleagues, company policies, rules and regulations, customers and other stockholders' behaviour affect the behaviour of an employee. Compulsive man does not act or react quickly. He takes into consideration the influence of various factors, situations and personalities, collect the necessary data and information, analyze the interactive output of these factors, analyses the consequences of this output and behaves in a more desirable way. Thus the behaviour of individuals is compulsive.

## **Perception; Attributes & Factors affecting Perception:**

**Perception Meaning & Definition :** Perception is essentially a psychological process whereby people select, organize and interpret sensory stimulations into meaningful information about their work environment.

Perception means perceiving i.e. giving meaning to the environment around us. For example: Looking at a sculpture some may perceive it as beautiful, the others as ugly.

Uma Sekharan defines perception as. "the process through which people select, organize and interpret or attach meaning to events happening in the environment."

Stephen P. Robbins defines perception as "a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments."

Udai Pareek et al., define perception as, "the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data."

The above definitions indicate the following:

- It is a process by which an individual interprets his sensory impression.
- It is a process by which an individual receives and interprets about information.
- It is the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli in order to give meaning to it.

### **Factors affecting perception:**

**I. Internal factors:** The internal factors include the following:-

**a) Learning** - Learning may play the single biggest role in developing perceptual set. It is a cognitive awareness by which the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposures to similar stimuli. Learning creates expectancy in an individual and expectancy makes him see what he wants to see which means perceptions and interpretations of people depend upon their previous exposure.

**b) Motivation-** Motivation also has a vital impact on perceptual selectivity where it creates a urge and activates the inner stimuli of individuals.

For example:-

a) a hungry person will be more sensitive to the smell or sight of food than a non-hungry person;

b) When a person walks into the lunch room, he may go to the table where several of his co-workers are sitting, rather than a table which is empty or on which just one person is sitting.

**c) Personality-** Behavior, values and even age of an individual may also affect the way people perceive the world around them.

For example, the older senior executives often complain about the inability of the new young manager to take tough concerning terminating and paying attention to details and paper work. The young managers, in turn, complain about the 'old guards' resisting change and using paper and rules as ends in themselves. Further, the generation gap witnessed definitely contributes to different perceptions.

**II. External factors-** External factor includes the following:-

**a) Size-** Size always attracts the attention, because it establishes dominance. Size is always been noticed and perceived. The size may be the height or weight of an individual, sign board of a shop, or space devoted to an advertisement in the newspaper. The bigger the size of stimulus, the higher is the probability that is perceived.

For example:-A full page advertisement will always catch attention as compared to a few lines in the classified section.

**b) Intensity-** Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. In other words it is an activity involves concentrating a lot of effort or people on one particular task in order to try to achieve a great deal in a short time. Stronger stimuli like louder noise, brighter light are more likely perceived

Example: Yelling or whispering, very bright colors or very dim colors etc.

The term also includes behavioral intensity. For instance, if office order says "Report to the boss immediately," it will more intense as compared to "Make it convenient to meet the boss today".

**c) Repetition-** Repetition refers to make others to pay attention by stimulating their inner urge through repeated stimulus.

In other words, it states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention drawing than a single one. Because of this factor, supervisors make it a point to give the necessary directions again and again to the workers.

For example:-Product shown again and again on TV grabs more attention as compared to an advertisement which is shown once a day.

**d) Status-** High status people can exert greater influence on the perception of the employees than the low status people.

For example:-There will always be different reactions to the orders given by the foreman, the supervisor or the production manager.

**e) Contrast-** An object which contrasts with the surrounding environment is more likely to be noticed than the object which blends in the environment.

For example:-In a room if there are twenty men and one woman will be noticed first because of the contrast; EXIT SIGN in cinema halls which have red lettering on a black background are attention drawing.

**f) Movement-** This principle states that a moving object receives more attention than an object which is standing still. Motion and Changes in stimuli attracts the attention

For example:-A moving car among the parked cars catch attention faster.

**g) Novelty and Familiarity-** This principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention getter. New or unfamiliar stimuli are more likely to be noticed and perceived. This principle helps the managers to change the workers jobs from time to time, because it will increase the attention they give to their jobs.

For example:-A familiar face on a crowded railway platform will immediately catch attention.

**h) Nature** - This principle states that whether it is a visual, auditory or pictures of people or animals that will attract more attention than words.

For example:-Video attracts more attention than still pictures.

## **Attribution & Attribution Theory :**

**Attribution** is a term used in psychology which deals with how individuals perceive the causes of everyday experience, as being either external or internal.

Attribution is what happens when a person takes the information they perceived and determines a reason as to what happened. What you attribute things like success to depends on your own perception and behaviors, which may be wrong due to being unrealistic or having the incorrect information for the situation. Things like bias and misconceptions can cloud that reasoning, which can interfere with a person's proficiency in the workplace and may contribute to issues with diversity.

### **Types of Attribution**

The different types of attribution that people use in daily life are as follows:

- a) **Internal attribution-** Internal attribution, also known as dispositional attribution, happens when people attribute the cause of an event or behaviour to an internal reason, such as personality traits, beliefs, feelings and motives. Most often, when an adverse event happens to others, people attribute it to internal characteristics. For example, two friends, Ram and Naresh, are going to their office in a car. If Ram crashes the car into a pillar, Naresh is most likely to attribute the accident to Ram's carelessness, inability to drive and other internal characteristics.
- b) **External attribution-** External attribution is when people attribute the cause of an event to an external factor outside their control. When events occur with oneself, one generally attributes it to external factors instead of internal characteristics. For example, while going to the office, if Naresh crashes the car into the pillar instead of Ram, he is most likely to attribute it to a problem in the car's engine, slippery roads or another driver.
- c) **Interpersonal attribution-** Interpersonal attribution occurs when the cause of an event may involve two or more people. While making attributions to the event, the narrator tries to show themselves in the best possible light. Interpersonal attribution also happens when someone questions a person's intentions. For example, when Rita and Mahesh get into a fight, while explaining the situation to

his friends, Mahesh is most likely to show himself as the peacemaker and Rita as the cause of the problem.

- d) **Predictive attribution-** Predictive attribution occurs when people try to make attributions by connecting different events and making predictions for the future. For example, Anisha does not drink tea one day and feels energetic, but the next day when she drinks tea, she suffers from a headache. Anisha makes a conclusion that she suffered from a headache because of the tea and decides that she cannot drink tea if she wants to feel energetic.
- e) **Explanatory attribution-** Explanatory attribution refers to the way in which people explain certain events in their lives. While some people may associate a positive cause with an event, others may attribute a negative cause. Some people may also establish a positive causal relationship with a negative event. This can also indicate a person's outlook towards life events and determine whether they are an optimistic or pessimistic person.

One of the concepts used in organizational behavior to help improve perception and attribution is Attribution theory. The theory was first brought forth by psychologist Fritz Heider in the 1950s and stated that people had a desire to explain the reasoning behind their actions and the actions of others.

It was expanded upon over the years by fellow psychologists Bernard Weiner and Harold Kelley, both of whom looked at the factors in a person's life that can impact their perception and their validity. They also looked at what impact certain attributions can have when a person acts upon them. Today, the theory is used to help people explain the causes behind human behaviors and largely make sense of them.

### **Definition of Attribution Theory**

Attribution theory is an approach used to explain how people make sense of their world and what cause and effect inferences they make about the behaviors of others and of themselves.

### **Different Attribution Theories -**

Following are several theories that can help you understand how the attribution process works:

**a) Common sense theory-** Common sense theory is the oldest attribution theory proposed by Fritz Heider. According to this theory, people base their judgements about the cause of events on simple common sense.

He categorised this theory into external and internal attribution. When people blame the cause of an event on external factors, he categorised it as external attribution.

When the cause of the event is an internal characteristic, he categorised it as internal attribution.

**b) Covariation model-** The covariation model, developed by Harold Kelley, is of the most well-known theories of attribution. According to this model, people judge the cause of an event or behaviour by attributing it to a person's actions across different situations in separate contexts. Based on these observations, they try to determine if a person's behaviour is internally or externally motivated. This model takes into the following three factors while making an attribution:

i. **Consensus:** It refers to the situation in which an event or behaviour occurs. If many people act in a similar way and there is a consensus, people are more likely to make situational attributions rather than making an internal attribution about a particular person.

ii. **Distinctiveness:** This model considers a person's behaviour in different situations. If a person behaves distinctly in only a specific type of situation, people make attributions to the situation rather than a person's internal characteristics.

iii. **Consistency:** This model checks whether a person behaves in the same way in similar situations. If the behaviour remains consistent across similar situations, people make situational attributions.

**c) The three-dimensional model- Weiner's attribution Theory-** The three-dimensional model of attribution proposed by Bernard Weiner focuses on the

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theory of achievement. According to this theory, people can classify attributions into the following three categories:

- i. Locus of control: It tests whether an event occurred because of a person's internal or external locus of control. In the internal locus, a person's success or failure occurred because of a personal characteristic, while in the external locus, an individual's success or failure is because of an external factor.
- ii. Stability: This dimension tests the duration of the attribution. If the cause of success or failure is a temporary factor, like illness, it is an unstable attribution, while factors like intelligence quotient are stable attributions.
- iii. Controllability: This dimension tests whether an individual can influence their success or failure. If a person can control the outcome through their actions, it is a controllable attribution, while an outcome that is out of their control is an uncontrollable attribution.

**d) Correspondent inference theory-** Proposed by Edward E. Jones and Keith E. Davis, this theory states that it is appropriate to attribute a person's behaviour to a person's personality traits.

There are two factors that are considered while attributing a person's behaviour to their personality. If a person acts in a socially acceptable way in a particular type of situation, people are more likely to make a situational attribution instead of a dispositional attribution.

When a person acts in a way that is socially unacceptable way, like showing their anger at being rejected, people are likely to make dispositional attributions about the person.

### **Learning- Meaning Definition & Concept of Learning-**

Learning plays a vital role in the organization. People learn from the experience of changing behaviour and from the information's collected. Therefore, we should understand the concept of learning in order to understand the behaviour of individuals, groups and the organization.

In simple words, learning is a change in behaviour as a result of experience. Different scientists defined learning differently as:

According to Stephen P. Robbins, 'Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience.'

According to Steers and Porter, 'Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour that results from reinforced practice or experience.'

Munn et. al. have defined learning as, '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.'

**Learning is the process by which a person changes his behavior through his own efforts and abilities.**

Learning is a process of progressive behavior adaptation.

### **Theories of Learning -**

There are four theories of learning viz.,

- a) Classical Conditioning Theory
- b) Operant Conditioning Theory
- c) Cognitive Theories
- d) Social Learning Theories

**a) Classical Conditioning :** The Russian Pioneering behaviourist Ivan Pavlov conducted classical conditioning experiment using dogs as subjects. Classical conditioning came out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell. Pavlov measured the amount of Salvia secreted by a dog. Pavlov presented meat powder to the dog (unconditioned stimulus), then he noticed a great deal of salivation (unconditioned response). When he merely rang a bell (neutral stimulus) the dog had no salivation. Next Pavlov presented the meat powder along with ringing the bell. After doing this several times, he rang the bell without presenting the meat. This time the dog salivated to the bell alone. The dog had become classically conditioned to salivated (conditioned response) to the sound of the bell (conditioned stimulus).

The classical conditioning reveals that the stimulus elicits response i.e.,  $S \rightarrow R$ .

### **Four Different Elements In Classical conditioning**

#### 1) Unconditioned Stimulus

This is a certain object or stimulus that triggers an automatic/involuntarily bodily response.

#### 2) Unconditional Response

This is the automatic and involuntary response that occurs when presented with the object or the stimulus. Usually occurs due to the processes of the Central Nervous System (CNS).

#### 3) Conditioned Stimulus

This is also known as the Neutral Stimulus. This stimulus is presented repeatedly with object until the association between the object and the response is formed.

#### 4) Conditioned Response

This is the response obtained after repeated exposure to the conditioned stimulus (which is the bell). This is the response that occurs once the stimulus and response have been associated.

Skinner felt that classical conditioning cannot explain the more complex human behaviours. He felt that human behaviour affects or is affected by the environment. This behaviour is explained by operant conditioning.

**b) Operant Conditioning** - Operant conditioning emphasizes that learning occurs as a consequences of behaviour i.e.,  $R \rightarrow S$ .

Operant conditioning, developed by **B. F. Skinner**, is a learning process where behaviours are influenced by consequences.

Operant conditioning is a type of associative learning that involves strengthening or weakening a behavior by using reinforcement or punishment. Like classical conditioning, operant conditioning relies on forming associations. In operant conditioning, however, associations are made between a behavior and the consequences of that behavior.

**Positive Reinforcement:** Providing a reward (like food) after a desired behavior to increase repetition of that behaviour .

**Negative Reinforcement:** Removing unpleasant stimulus (like an electric shock) after a desired behaviour to increase the likelihood of that behaviour being repeated.

**Punishment:** Presenting an unpleasant stimulus (like an electric shock) after an undesirable behavior to decrease or control that behavior being repeated.

Employees work for more hours to get more salary or not to be fired. If the management pays more salary to those employees who work for more hours, then the employees repeat their behaviour of working for more hours. Paying more salary is called reinforcement. Reinforcement strengthens behaviour and increases the likelihood of repeating that behaviour.

Operant conditioning is more relevant to human learning than classical conditioning. It also explains most of the organisational behaviour researchers to explain the effectiveness of managers.

**In operant conditioning:**

1. Learning occurs when behaviours are followed by either reinforcement or punishment (consequences)
2. These consequences must quickly follow the behavior
3. Focuses on voluntary behaviours

**c) Cognitive Theories-** Cognitive theories emphasise on the cognitive process. Cognitive learning theories establish the relationship between cognitive environmental cues and expectations.

**Edward Tolman** is a widely recognised cognitive theorist. He conducted an experiment using white rats as subjects. He found that a rat could learn to run through as intricate maze with purpose and direction toward a goal (food). The rat learned to expect that certain cognitive cues associated with the choice point might eventually led to food.

Tolman's approach is depicted as S-S (Stimulus-Stimulus).

In other words learning is the association between the cue and expectancy. Employees expect higher salaries, promotions and high quality of work life. Employees learn that they can achieve their expectations by working productively.

The realisation of working productively is the result of cognitive environmental cues. Organizational behaviour researchers are currently concerned about the relationship between cognitions and organisational behaviour.

Four Major Elements of Cognitive Theory -

- Purposive Behaviour – Behaviour is directed towards goals and is driven by internal beliefs, motivations and expectations.
- Cognitive Mapping – Animals develop internal cognitive maps of their environment to find efficient routes to goal.
- Latent Learning – Learning can occur without immediate reward or punishment.
- Sign learning – Individuals learn association between stimuli(signs) and goals.

**d) Social Learning Theory-** People learn through different means like observation of other, direct experiences and indirect experiences. Learning through these various means is called social learning. Social learning theory integrates behavioural concepts, cognitive concepts and environmental determinants. This theory draws the inputs from the principles of classical and operant conditioning. It also recognizes that learning takes place through various means like modelling and self controlling process. People learn from various models like parents, teacher, peers, leaders etc. The influence of models is significant in social learning theory. There are four processes through which the model influences the individuals. These four processes include:

- **Attentional Processes:** People learn from the critical features of the models like leadership skills, attractiveness, timely decision-making etc.
- **Retention Process:** The level of influence of the model depends on the level to what extent the individual remembers the model.

- **Motor Reproduction Processes:** People may times imitate the models. Children imitate their parents and teachers. This is because observation is converted into action.
- **Reinforcement Processes:** Individuals prefer to exhibit the behaviour of the model, if such behaviour results in rewards. People pay more attention to and learn the positively reinforced behaviours from the models.

### **Principles of Learning :**

1. **Principle of association** - Learning is growth like & continuous. The extension worker should understand the level of the farmer & should try to develop it. New learning may be associated with previous successful & satisfying responses.
2. **Principle of clarity** - Learning should be purposeful & meaningful. The extension worker should place the objectives of learning very clearly & meaningfully before the farmers, so that the farmers will understand the value of things learned or taught to him. Care should be taken that subject does not go over the heads of the farmers.
3. **Principle of self activity** – Learning results through self activity. Teacher can only set up the learning situation & stimulate a person to learn. For making the learning effective the learner's maximum sense should be utilized. The capacity of learning mainly depends on the use of the senses. Senses are the gateways to the mind. Seeing, hearing, touching, smelling & testing are the five senses through which an individual learns new ideas.
4. **Principle of readiness & reward** - Learning should be challenging & satisfying. The extension worker should place a challenging picture of new things before the farmers & convince him that he can have satisfaction by learning new things. Teacher should arrange good learning situation. Without drive or interest, a person does not learn.
5. **Principle of practice** - Learning should develop functional understanding of learners. After understanding the new ideas the farmer should be able to utilize

them in a real life situation. Unless the farmer puts into use what he learned, his learning is of no use in reaching the desired objective.

6. **Principle of Environment** - Learning is affected by physical & social environment. The physical (temperature, light, aeration & sitting arrangement) & social environment creates a favorable background for effective learning. The teacher should create a suitable environment.
7. **Principle of disassociation** - learning is affected by the emotions. The intensity of emotional feeling affects learning differently in different individuals.
8. **Principle of Timing** - learning takes place more readily when the facts or skills are given at the time. Implication – select the appropriate time for giving facts or skills
9. **Learning ability varies widely among individuals** - The subject should be within the capacity of the farmer's ability to learn. Extension programme should be organized by taking this individual variation into account.
10. **Learning is gradual process** - Depending on the nature of the innovation, demonstrations & distribution of particular materials will have to be undertaken. If the extension worker can create a picture of what is to be learned, why it is to be learned & to what extent it is to be learned then the people will voluntarily come ahead to learn new things.
11. **The adults have learning capacity** - Learning capacity starting about the age of six increases rapidly until age 20, then it begins level off until around 50. The rate of learning declines about 1% a year after the age of 35. So the extension worker should arrange the equipment so that all can see clearly, also speak clearly, repeat the ideas & encourage them.
12. **Learning is an active process on the part of the learner**- The extension worker can create a learning atmosphere but the farmer will have to learn by himself because learning is an active process on the part of the learner.

## Difference between Learning & Training

Sr. No.	Learning	Training
1	Pursuit of Knowledge	Pursuit of Ability
2	Develops sense of reasoning and Judgement	Improves performance and productivity
3	Method of gaining Knowledge	Method of Skill Development
4	Teaches general concepts	Teaches certain Tasks
5	Theoretical Orientation	Practical Application
6	Long Term Process	Short Term Process
7	Wide Scope	Narrow Scope
8	General Learning	Related to employment
9	Prepares for future Job	Prepares for present Job

## Difference between Learning & Organizational behaviour-

Sr. No.	Learning	Organizational behaviour-
1	Refers to the individual process of acquiring new knowledge, skills or behaviour through study, experience or being taught.	Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of study that examines the behavior of individuals, groups, and structures within an organization.
2	<b>Process</b> - Learning is a personal process	It looks at the collective behaviour within a company based on individual learning & interactions
3	<b>Focus</b> - Learning Focuses on individual development & knowledge acquisition.	OB focuses on the collective dynamics within an organization
4	<b>Application</b> - Learning can be applied to personal development in any context.	OB is used to improve team dynamics, leadership & overall organizational performance.
5	<b>Scope</b> - is a broader concept encompassing various methods of acquiring knowledge.	OB is a specific field of study analyzing behaviors within a workplace.
6	<b>Example</b> - An employee attends a training course to learn new software skills.	Studying how the team dynamics within a department affect employee morale & productivity.

## Attitudes & Values

Attitude has been widely studied in organisational behaviour because it is considered as an important variable of human behaviour. Attitude has a psychological attribute that shapes human behaviour.

Attitudes are evaluative statements which are frequently used to describe people, events and objects. These statements can be either favourable or unfavourable. Attitude reflects one's feelings towards particular object, event or person.

For example, when I say 'I like this pen', with the help of this statement I am expressing my favourable attitude towards the pen. Therefore, we can say that attitude is a bent of mind or predisposition towards certain actions. It shows persistent tendency of an individual to act or behave in a particular manner towards some object.

According to Baron, Attitude is defined as, lasting evaluations of people, groups, objects, or issues- in fact, of virtually any aspect of the social or physical world.

Petty and Cacioppo state, **Attitudes are general evaluations people make about themselves, other persons, objects, or issues.**

In other words Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. The evaluations which people make can range from extremely unfavourable to the extremely favourable, or can be more moderate. Attitudes can be mixed, and with regard to the same object, may vary from time to time.

A value system refers to the order and priority an individual or society grants to ethical and ideological values. While two individuals or groups may share a set of common values, they may not give equal weight or preference to those values.

Edward Spranger defines the values as the constellation of likes, dislikes, viewpoints, shoulds, inner inclinations, rational and irrational judgments, prejudices, and association patterns that determine a person's view of the world.

Milton Rokeach defined values as global beliefs that guide actions and judgements across a variety of situation. he further says "values represent basic

conviction that a specific mode of conduct (or end-state of existence) is personally or socially preferable to an opposite mode of conduct (or end-state of existence)".

**Values are basic and fundamental beliefs that guide or motivate attitudes or actions of individuals.** They help us to determine what is important to us. Values describe the personal qualities we choose to embody to guide our actions; the sort of person we want to be; the manner in which we treat ourselves and others, and our interaction with the world around us. They provide the general guidelines for conduct.

### **Intelligence :**

One of the most important single variables, which affect schooling, is intelligence. Intelligence is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge. Success in school and colleges and in one's own profession, social adjustment, possession of general information etc. are all associated with the concept of "intelligence". The word intelligence is derived from the Latin verb 'intellegere' which means understanding.

According to Alfred Binet intelligence is the ability for judgement or common sense.

Thorndike defines intelligence as "one's capacity to deal effectively with situations".

For Jean Piaget, 'intelligence is the ability to adapt to one's surroundings'.

In the words of Cyril Burt, "Intelligence is the capacity of flexible adjustment."

According to David Wechsler (1977): 'Intelligence is the global capacity to think rationally, act purposefully, and deal effectively with the environment.'

### **Theories of Intelligence**

- a) Uni-factor theory:** Alfred Binet was the first psychologist who formalized the concept of intelligence in terms of mental operations. Binet's theory of intelligence is conceptualized as consisting of one similar set of abilities which can be used for solving any or every problem in an individual's environment.
- b) Two-factor theory:** Charles Spearman (1927) proposed a two-factor theory of intelligence. He suggested that intelligence consisted of a general factor (g-factor) and some specific factors (s-factors). The g-factor includes mental

operations which are primary and common to all performance. s-factors include all specific aspects of intelligence that help you in excelling in your field of interest. For example, Lata Mangeshkar in singing or Sachin Tendulkar in cricket.

**c) Theory of primary mental abilities:** Louis Thurstone proposed the theory of primary mental abilities. It states that intelligence consists of seven primary abilities, each of which is relatively independent of the others. These primary abilities include: (i) Verbal Comprehension (grasping the meaning of words, concepts, and ideas), (ii) Numerical Abilities (speed and accuracy in numerical and computational skills), (iii) Spatial Relations (visualizing patterns and forms), (iv) Perceptual Speed (speed in perceiving details), (v) Word Fluency (using words fluently and flexibly), (vi) Memory (accuracy in recalling information), and (vii) Inductive Reasoning (deriving general rules from presented facts).

**d) Theory of multiple intelligence:** Howard Gardner (1983) proposed the theory of multiple intelligence, wherein intelligence is not considered a single entity; rather believes in the existence of distinct types of intelligence. Each of this intelligence is independent of the other. This means that, if a person exhibits one type of intelligence, it does not necessarily indicate being high or low on other types of intelligence. Also, that different types of intelligence interact and work together to solve a problem. They are as Linguistic (skills involved in the production and use of language), Logical-Mathematical (skills in scientific thinking and problem-solving), Spatial (skills in forming visual images and patterns), Musical (sensitivity to musical rhythms and patterns), Bodily-Kin aesthetic (use whole or portions of the body flexibly and creatively) etc.

One of the widely used measures of intelligence in an individual is 'IQ' or intelligence quotient. IQ as a concept was derived by William Sterns in 1912, wherein he formulated that an IQ is an individual's mental age (MA) divided by his/her Chronological age (CA) and multiplied by 100.

IQ is represented by the following formula:

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$$\text{Intelligent Quotient (IQ)} = \text{MA/CA} \times 100$$

The purpose of multiplication is the avoidance of decimal points. When MA is equal to CA, the IQ is said to be 100 which is the average score of intelligence. When MA is greater than CA, the IQ is above 100 and the individual is said to be more intelligent than his/her peers. When MA is less than CA, IQ is below 100 and then the individual is considered below average as compared to others of his/her age.

### **Tests of intelligence**

Wide variety of intelligence tests have been devised, which can be categorised on the basis of the following criteria:

- **Individual or Group Tests:** An individual intelligence test is one which can be administered to one person at a time. A group intelligence test can be administered to several persons simultaneously. Individual tests require the test administrator to establish a rapport with the subject and be sensitive to her/his feelings, moods and expressions during the testing session. Group tests, however, do not allow an opportunity to be familiar with the subjects' feelings. Individual tests allow people to answer orally or in a written form or manipulate objects as per the tester's instructions. Group tests generally seek written answers usually in a multiple-choice format.
- **Verbal, Non-Verbal, or Performance Tests:** Verbal tests require subjects to give verbal responses either orally or in a written form. Therefore, verbal tests can be administered only to literate people. The non-verbal tests use pictures or illustrations as test items. Performance tests require subjects to manipulate objects and other materials to perform a task. Written language is not necessary for answering the items. For example, Koh's' Block Design Test contains a number of wooden blocks. The subject is asked to arrange the blocks within a time period to produce a given design. A major advantage of performance tests is that they can be easily administered to persons from different cultures.

## **Emotional Intelligence :**

The notion of emotional intelligence broadens the concept of intelligence beyond the intellectual sphere/domain and considers that intelligence includes emotions.

Emotional intelligence is a set of skills that underlie accurate appraisal, expression, and regulation of emotions. It is the feeling side of intelligence.

A good IQ and scholastic record are not enough to be successful in life. You may find many people who are academically talented but are unsuccessful in their own life. They experience problems in the family, workplace, and interpersonal relationships. What do they lack? Some psychologists believe that the source of their difficulty may be a lack of emotional intelligence.

This concept was first introduced by Salovey and Mayer and popularised by Daniel Goleman. Salovey and Mayer defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions".

This definition covers four aspects of emotional intelligence, they are emotional perception, emotional integration, emotional understanding and emotional management.

Whereas, Goleman defined EQ as a cluster of traits relating to the emotional side of life. Goleman proposed 5 aspects of Emotional Intelligence.

They are:

1. Knowing one's own emotions
2. Managing one's own emotions
3. Motivating oneself
4. Recognizing the emotions of others
5. Handling emotions

Emotional Quotient (EQ) is used to express emotional intelligence in the same way as IQ is used to express intelligence.

## **Motivation :**

**Motivation is the internal process that initiates, guides, and sustains goal-directed behaviors.**

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It explains why people act, think, or feel in certain ways, and it plays a key role in achieving goals, enhancing performance, and maintaining commitment.

McClelland defined motivation as 'It is a need for achievement, affiliation, and power that drives behavior.'

According to Herzberg, Motivation involves intrinsic factors (e.g., achievement, recognition) that lead to satisfaction and extrinsic factors that prevent dissatisfaction.

Maslow defined motivation as the process of satisfying a hierarchy of needs, from basic physiological needs to self-actualization.

According to Skinner 'Motivation is shaped by reinforcement – behavior that is rewarded is likely to be repeated (Behaviorist perspective).'

### **Theories of Motivation:**

#### **A. Content Theories (What motivates individuals?)**

- a) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and its Five levels: Physiological → Safety → Love/Belonging → Esteem → Self-actualization.

Motivation moves upward as each need is fulfilled.

- b) Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Hygiene Factors (e.g., salary, work conditions): prevent dissatisfaction.

Motivators (e.g., recognition, responsibility): create satisfaction.

- c) McClelland's Theory of Needs

Focuses on three needs: Achievement, Affiliation, and Power.

Individuals are motivated based on their dominant need.

#### **B. Process Theories (How motivation occurs?)**

- a) Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Motivation = Expectancy × Instrumentality × Valence

People act based on expected outcomes and the value of those outcomes.

- b) Adam's Equity Theory

People are motivated by fairness. They compare their input/output ratio with others.

- c) Goal-Setting Theory (Locke & Latham)

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Specific and challenging goals lead to higher performance if there is commitment and feedback.

d) Skinner's Reinforcement Theory

Behavior is shaped by rewards (positive/negative reinforcement) and punishments.

### **Principles of Motivation**

- a) Individual Differences: Motivation varies between people; what's motivating for one may not be for another.
- b) Clear Goals: People are more motivated when they understand the purpose and outcome of their tasks.
- c) Feedback: Regular feedback enhances motivation by showing progress and areas for improvement.
- d) Rewards and Recognition: Positive reinforcement strengthens desired behaviors.
- e) Participation: Involvement in goal-setting and decision-making increases commitment.
- f) Challenge: Moderate levels of difficulty encourage effort without causing frustration.
- g) Satisfaction of Needs: Motivational strategies should aim to satisfy the various levels of needs.

### **Team & Group Dynamics**

**Team** - A team is a small group of individuals with unique features.

Katzenbach and Smith have defined a team as follows,

**A team is a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.**

### **Characteristics of a team-**

- 1. Small Number of Persons.-** A team consists of small number of persons because the interaction and influence processes needed for the team to function can only occur when the number of team members is small. When large number of persons

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are involved , they have difficulty in interacting and influencing each other, utilizing their complementary skills, meeting goals, and holding themselves accountable for results.

**2. Complementary Skills.** - A team consists of people with complementary skills to get the things done. Three types of skills are usually required in a team. First, the team needs to have members, with the technical or functional skills to do the job . Second, some members need to have problem-solving and decision -making skills to help the learn to identify problems, determine priorities, evaluate alternatives, and make decisions about the direction of the team. Third, members need interpersonal skills to manage communication flow, manage conflicts, direct questions and discussion, provide support, and recognize the interests of all team members. These complementary skills are required in the team so that it can function well without receiving support from outside.

**3. Common Purpose and Performance Goals-** A team has common purpose and performance goals which set the tone and direction of the team. A team comes together to pursue a set of goals which becomes the focus of the team; all decisions and actions are directed to pursue these goals. Team members pull together, find resources within themselves and develop and use skills to achieve team goals.

**4. Common Approach-** A team evolves a common approach which is followed by team members in true spirit. Team's approach usually covers how work will be done, social norms regarding dress, attendance at meetings, norms of fairness and ethical behaviour, and what will or will not be included in team activities.

**5. Mutual Accountability-** A team holds itself mutually accountable for results. rather than merely meeting a manager's demands for results.

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