UNIT-2

Personality: Meaning and Determinants of Personality!

Man is not born a person. At birth he is an infant possessing the potentiality of becoming a person. After birth he associates with other human beings and comes under the influence of their culture. As a result of a variety of experiences and social influences he becomes a person and comes to possess a personality.

The nature of personality and to show the role of culture and social experience in the formation of personality along with the problem of personality disorganisation. Since socialization plays the most important part in the development of personality and we have discussed it already, the present discussion, therefore, can only be brief.

I. The Meaning of Personality:

The term 'personality' is derived from the Latin word 'persona' which means a mask. According to K. Young, "Personality is a patterned body of habits, traits, attitudes and ideas of an individual, as these are organised externally into roles and statuses, and as they relate internally to motivation, goals, and various aspects of selfhood." G. W. Allport defined it as "a person's pattern of habits, attitudes, and traits which determine his adjustment to his environment."

According to Robert E. Park and Earnest W. Burgess, personality is "the sum and organisation of those traits which determine the role of the individual in the group." Herbert A. Bloch defined it as "the characteristic organisation of the individual's habits, attitudes, values, emotional characteristics……. which imparts consistency to the behaviour of the individual." According to Arnold W. Green, "personality is the sum of a person's values (the objects of his striving, such as ideas, prestige, power and sex) plus his non- physical traits (his habitual ways of acting and reacting)." According to Linton, personality embraces the total "organised aggregate of psychological processes and status pertaining to the individual."

Personality, as we understand it, says MacIver, "is all that an individual is and has experienced so far as this "all" can be comprehended as unity." According to Lundberg and others, "The term personality refers to the habits, attitudes, and other social traits that are characteristic of a given individual's behaviour." By personality Ogburn means "the integration of the socio psychological behaviour of the human being, represented by habits of action and feeling, attitudes and opinions." Davis regards personality "a psychic phenomenon which is neither organic nor social but an emergent from a combination of the two."

According to Anderson and Parker, "Personality is the totality of habits, attitudes, and traits that result from socialization and characterizes us in our relationships with others." According to N.L. Munn, "Personality may be defined as the most characteristic integration of an individual's structure modes of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes." According to Morton Prince, "Personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses tendencies and instincts of the individual, and the acquired disposition and tendencies acquired by experience." According to Young, "Personality is the totality of

behaviour of an individual with a given tendency system interacting with a sequence of situations."

Lawrence A. Pewin has given a working definition of personality in these words, "Personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situations."

On the basis of these definitions it may be said there are two main approaches to the study of personality:

(1) The psychological, and

(2) The sociological.

Although there is also a third approach, the biological approach, but the biological definition of personality which comprehends only the bio-physical characteristics of the individual organism is inadequate. The psychological approach considers personally as a certain style peculiar to the individual. This style is determined by the characteristic organisation of mental trends, complexes, emotions and sentiments.

The psychological approach enables us to understand the phenomena of personally disorganisation and the role of wishes, of mental conflict, and of repression and sublimation in the growth of personality. The sociological approach considers personality in terms of the status of the individual in the group, in terms of his own conception of his role in the group of which he is a member. What others think of us plays a large part in the formation of our personality.

Thus personality is the sum of the ideas, attitudes and values of a person which determine his role in society and form an integral part of his character. Personality is acquired by tie individual as a result of his participation in group life. As a member of the group he learns certain behaviour systems and symbolic skills which determine his ideas, attitudes and social values.

These ideas, attitudes and values which an individual holds, comprise his personality. The personality of an individual denotes an adult's inner construction of the outer world. It is the result of the inter-action processes by which standards of ethical judgment, belief and conduct are established in social groups and communities.

To sum up we would say that:

(i) Personality is not related to bodily structure alone. It includes both structure and dynamics

(ii) Personality is an indivisible unit.

(iii) Personality is neither good nor bad.

(iv) Personality is not a mysterious phenomenon.

(v) Every personality is unique.

(vi) Personality refers to persistent qualities of the individual. It expresses consistency and regularly.

(vii) Personality is acquired.

(viii) Personality is influenced by social interaction. It is defined in terms of behaviour.

The Types of Personality:

Some attempts have been made to classify personalities into types. In the 5th century B. C., the Greek physician Hippocrates divided human beings into four types: the sanguine, the melancholic, the choleric, and the phlegmatic. The Swiss psychoanalyst, Carl Gustac Jung, distinguished between two main types, the introvert and the extrovert. The introvert is preoccupied with his own self; the extrovert with things outside self.

In these two types there is a third type—the ambiverts who are neither the one nor the other but vacillate between the two. The majority of people are ambiverts. According to Ernest Kretchmer the German psychiatrist, the extrovert personality is a stout person while the introvert one is a tall and slender person. The first type of persons he called "pykrnic" the second type he called "leptosome" W.I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki distinguished among the Bohemian, the Philistine, and the Creative.

II. Determinants of Personality:

Personality is a result of the combination of four factors, i.e., physical environment, heredity, culture, and particular experiences. Here we discuss each factor determining personality separately.

Personality and Environment:

Above we described the influence of physical environment on culture and pointed out that geographical environment sometimes determines cultural variability. That the Eskimos have a culture different from that of the Indians is due to the fact that the former have a geography different from the latter.

Man comes to form ideas and attitudes according to the physical environment he lives in.

To the extent that the physical environment determines cultural development and to the extent, that culture in turn determines personality, a relationship between personality and environment becomes clear. Some two thousand years ago, Aristotle claimed that people living in Northern Europe were owing to a cold climate, full of spirit but lacking in intelligence and skill. The natives of Asia, on the other hand, are intelligent and inventive but lack in spirit, and are, therefore, slaves.

Montesquieu, in the eighteenth century, claimed that the bravery of those blessed by a cold climate enables them to maintain their liberties. Great heat enervates courage while cold causes

a certain vigour of body and mind. At high temperatures, it is said there is disinclination to work and so civilizations have grown up where the temperatures have been average near or below the optimum.

The people of mountains as well as deserts are usually bold, hard and powerful. Huntington's discussion of the effects of physical environment on man's attitudes and mental make-up is very exhaustive. However, as told previously, the physical conditions are more permissive and limiting factors than causative factors. They set the limits within which personality can develop.

Thus, climate and topography determine to a great extent the physical and mental traits of a people, but it cannot be said that they alone determine human behaviour. Most kinds of personality are found in every kind of culture. The fact remains that civilizations have appeared in regions of widely different climate and topography. Christianity knows no climate belts.

Peoples are monogamous in high altitudes and flat lands, under tropical temperate and arctic conditions. Men's attitudes and ideas change even when no conceivable geographic change has occurred. Proponents of geographic determinism oversimplify the human personality and so their interpretations are to be accepted only after close scrutiny.

Heredity and Personality:

Heredity is another factor determining human personality. Some of the similarities in man's personality are said to be due to his common heredity. Every human group inherits the same general set of biological needs and capacities. These common needs and capacities explain some of our similarities in personality. Man originates from the union of male and female germ cells into a single cell which is formed at the moment of conception.

He tends to resemble his parents in physical appearance and intelligence. The nervous system, the organic drives and the duchess glands have a great bearing upon personality. They determine whether an individual will be vigorous or feeble, energetic or lethargic, idiot of intelligent, coward or courageous.

A man with a good physical structure and health generally possess an attractive personality. A man of poor health, pigmy size and ugly physical features develops inferiority complex. The growth of his personality is checked. Rejected and hated by the society he may turn out to be a thief, dacoit, or drunkard. It is also probable that he may become a leader, or a genius like Socrates and Napoleon. Likewise the nervous system and glandular system may affect the personality of an individual.

The nervous system affects the intelligence and talent of the individual. The hormones affect the growth of personality. Too many or too less of hormones are harmful. Some men are over-patient, overzealous, overactive and overexcited while others are lazy, inactive, and weak. The reason may be secretion of more hormones in the first case and less hormones in the latter case. For a normal personality there should be a balanced secretion of hormones.

Heredity may affect personality in another way, i.e., indirectly. If boys in a society prefers slim girls as their companion, such girls will receive greater attention of the society providing them thereby more opportunities to develop their personality. According to Allport, Gordon, W. no feature of personality is devoid of hereditary influence.

However, heredity does not mould human personality alone and unaided. "For the present, we can only assume that there are -genes for normal personality traits just as there are genes for other aspects of human make-up and functioning. Where in members of the same family, in a similar environment, we can see great differences in personality, we may ascribe these in part at least to differences in gene contributions.

We can also guess that some of the family similarities in personality are genetically influenced. But we are still a long way from identifying specific 'personality' genes, gauging their effects or hazarding predictions as to what the personality of a given child will be on the basis of what we know about its parents." However, according to a news report (Times of India, Jan. 3, 1996) the scientists have identified a gene which influences impulsiveness, excitability and extravagance.

In short, heredity can never be considered as charting a fixed and definite course of anyone's personality. At the best, what anyone inherits are the potentialities for a wide range of personalities, the precise form into which a personality will "jell" being determined by circumstances. Ogburn and Nimkoff write, "It would be an error to hold, as' endocrine enthusiasts do, that the glands determine the whole personality, include rich things, as one's opinions, one's habits, and one's skills." t is possible to over-activate or under-activate some of these kinds by injecting certain kinds of hormones and thereby affect human personality. In other words, it may be said that the available evidence does not support the dogmatic view that personality is biologically transmitted.

Of course, there are some traits which seem to be more directly affected by heredity than others. Manual skills, intelligence and sensory discriminations are some of the abilities which appear more highly developed in some family lines than others. But other traits such as one's beliefs, loyalties, prejudices and manners are for the most part the result of training and experience.

Heredity only furnishes the materials out of which experience will mould the personality. Experience determines the way these materials will be used. An individual may be energetic because of his heredity, but whether he is active on his own belief or on behalf of others is a matter of his training.

Whether he exerts himself in making money or in scholarly activity is also dependent upon his bringing. If personality is a direct consequence of heredity tendencies or traits then all the sons and daughters of the same parents brought up in the same environment should have identical personalities or at least personalities that are very much alike.

But investigation shows that even at the tender age of three or four years they show quite distinct personalities. The new born human being is, to use the phrase of Koenig, Hopper and

Gross, a “candidate for personality.” It is, therefore, clear that an individual’s heredity alone would not enable us to predict his traits and values.

Personality and Culture:

There can be little doubt that culture largely determines the types of personality that will predominate in the particular group. According to some thinkers, personality is the subjective aspect of culture. They regard personality and culture as two sides of the same coin.

Spiro has observed, ‘The development of personality and the acquisition of culture are not different processes, but one and the same learning process.” Personality is an individual aspect of culture, while culture is a collective aspect of personality.” Each culture produces its special type or types of personality.

In 1937 the anthropologist Ralph Linton and the psychoanalyst Abram Kardinar began a series of joint explorations of the relationship between culture and personality by subjecting to minute study reports of several primitive societies and one modern American village. Their studies have demonstrated that each culture tends to create and is supported by a “basic personality type.” A given cultural environment sets its participant members off from other human beings operating under different cultural environments.

According to Frank, ‘culture is a coercive influence dominating the individual and moulding his personality by virtue of the ideas, conceptions and beliefs which had brought to bear on him through communal life.” The culture provides the raw material of which the individual makes his life. The traditions, customs, mores, religion, institutions, moral and social standards of a group affect the personality of the group members. From the moment of birth, the child is treated in ways which shape his personality. Every culture exerts a series of general influences upon the individuals who grow up under it.

Ogburn as we noted above, divided culture into “material” and “non-material.” According to him, both material and non-material culture have a bearing on personality. As for the termer he provides examples of the influence of plumbing on the formation of habits and attitudes favourable to cleanliness and the relation of time-pieces to punctuality. The American Indians who have no clocks or watches in their culture have little notion of keeping appointments with any exactness.

According to him, they have no sense of time. The personality of an American Indian differs from that of a white man in the matter of punctuality and this is because of differences in their culture. Similarly, some cultures greedy value cleanliness as witnessed by the saying: “Cleanliness is next to godliness.” This trait of cleanliness is greatly encouraged by the technology of plumbing and other inventions that are found with it.

The Eskimos are dirty because they have to hang a bag of snow down their backs to melt it in order to get water. A man who has just to turn on a tap of water will naturally be more clean than an Eskimo. Cleanliness, therefore, is a matter not of heredity but of the type of culture. As for the connection between the non-material culture and personality, language affords an

instructive example. We know that one of the principal differences between man and animals is that he alone possesses speech.

Language can be learnt only in society. People who cannot speak exhibit warped personality. Since language is the essential medium through which the individual obtains his information and his attitudes, therefore, it is the principal vehicle for the development of personality. Moreover, speech itself becomes a trait of personality. The coarse voice of woodcutter can be readily distinguished from the hushed tones of a man.

The short, crisp, guttural speech of the German seems to be part of his personality, as does the fluid, flowing voluble speech of the Spaniard. Movements of the hands and shoulders in speech are regarded as part of the very core of the personalities of Italians and Jews. The Jews use their gestures for emphasis only, while Italians depend upon them to convey part of the meaning.

Another illustration of the influence of culture on personality is the relationship of men and women. In the earlier period when farming was the principal business, women generally had no occupations outside the home, and naturally, therefore, they were economically dependent upon their fathers or husbands. Obedience was a natural consequence of such conditions. But today hundreds of women work outside the homes and earn salaries.

They enjoy equal rights with men and are not so dependent upon them as they were in the past. Attitude of independence instead of obedience has today become a trait of women's personality. With the growing realisation of the importance of culture for personality, sociologists have recently made attempts to identify the factors in particular cultures which give a distinctive stamp to the individuals within the group. Ruth Benedict analyzed the cultures of three primitive tribes and found that cultures may be divided into two major types—The Apollonian and the Dionysian.

The Apollonian type is characterised by restraint, even temperances, moderation and co-operativeness, whereas the Dionysian type is marked by emotionalism, excess, pursuit of prestige, individualism and competitiveness. The Zuni culture is classified as Appollonian, while the Kwakiuti and Dobuans as Dionysian.

The personality of the Hindus in India differs greatly from that of Englishmen. Why ? The answer is 'a different Hindu culture'. The Hindu culture lays emphasis not on material and worldly things, but on things spiritual and religious. In every Hindu family there is a religious environment. The mother gets up early in the morning, takes bath and spends an hour in meditation. When the children get up, they go and touch the feet of their parents and bow before the family gods or goddesses. The Hindu child from the very birth begins to acquire a religious and philosophical personality built on the "inner life."

From the various illustrations cited so far it is thus clear that culture greatly moulds personality. The individual ideas and behaviour are largely the results of cultural conditioning. There is a great difference of ideas between the Hindu devotee immersed in religion and the Russian Communist who thoroughly rejects it.

However, it should not be concluded that culture is a massive die that shapes all who come under it with an identical pattern. All the people of a given culture are not of one cast. Personality traits differ within any culture, some people in any culture are more aggressive than others, some are more submissive, kind and competitive. Personality is not totally determined by culture, even though no personality escapes its influence. It is only one determinant among others. Ruth Benedict writes, "No anthropologist with a background of experiences of other cultures has ever believed that individuals were automatons, mechanically carrying out the decrees of their civilizations.

No culture yet observed has been able to eradicate the difference in the temperaments of the persons who compose it. It is always a give and take affair." Linton classified cultural influence into the universals, specialities and alternatives and came to the conclusion that culture makes for uniformity of personality only through the universals and since universals are few in number as compared with specialities and alternatives, the effect of culture is to make for variety as well as uniformity.

Personality and Particular Experiences:

Personality is also determined by another factor, namely, the particular and unique experiences. There are two types of experiences one, those that stem from continuous association with one's group, second, those that arise suddenly and are not likely to recur. The type of people who meet the child daily has a major influence on his personality. The personality of parents does more to affect a child's personality.

If the parents are kind, tolerant of boyish pranks, interested in athletics and anxious to encourage their child's separate interests the child will have a different experience and there shall be different influence on his personality than the one when the parents are unkind, quick tempered and arbitrary. In the home is fashioned the style of personality that will by and large characterise the individual throughout his life.

Social rituals,' ranging from table manners to getting along with others, are consciously inculcated in the child by parents. The child picks up the language of his parents. Problems of psychological and emotional adjustments arise and are solved appropriately by each child in terms of the cultural values and standards of the family. The family set up tends to bring the child into contact with his play-mates and teachers. What his play-game members are, and his school teachers are will also determine his personality development.

Group influences are relatively greater in early childhood. This is the period when the relationships of the child with his mother, father and siblings affect profoundly the organisation of his drives and emotions, the deeper and unconscious aspects of his personality.

A certain degree of maturation is needed before the child can understand the adult norms. The basic personality structure that is formed during this period is difficult to change. Whether a person becomes a leader, a coward, an imitator? whether he feels inferior or superior, whether he becomes altruistic or egoistic depends upon the kind of interaction he has with others. Group interaction moulds his personality.

Away from the group he may become insane or develop queer attitudes. As a child grows he develops wish for response and wish for recognition. To his organic needs are added what are called 'sociogenic' needs which are highly important motivating forces in personality. How the idea of self develops in the child is an important study. The self does not exist at birth but begins to arise as the child learns something of the world of sensation about him.

He comes to learn of what belongs to him and takes pride in his possessions. He learns that parts of his body belong to him. He becomes acquainted with his name and paternity and comes to distinguish himself from others. The praise and blame he receives from others account in large measure for his conduct. The development of self leads to the growth of conscience and ego.

Our view of self conception is usually based on the opinion of others about us. It does not. however, mean that we value all opinions about our conduct equally. We attach importance only to the opinions of those whom we consider for one reason or the other significant than others.

Our parents are usually most significant than others since they are the ones who are intimately related to us and have greatest power than others over us especially during the early years of life. In short, our early experiences are very important in the formation of our personality. It is in early life that the foundations of personality are laid.

Why are the children brought up in the same family differ from one another in their personality, even though they have had the same experiences? The point is that they have not had the same experiences. Some experiences are similar while others are different. Each child enters a different family unit.

One is the first born, he is the only child until the arrival of the second. The parents do not treat all their children exactly alike. The children enter different play groups, have different teachers and meet different incidents. They do not share all incidents and experiences. Each person's experience is unique as no body else perfectly duplicates it. Thus, each child has unique experiences exactly duplicated by no one and, therefore, grows a different personality.

Sometimes a sudden experience leaves an abiding influence upon the personality of an individual. Thus a small child may get frightened at the view of a bloody accident, and even after the accident he may be obsessed of the horror of fear. Sometimes a girl's experience with a rapist may condemn her to a life of sexual maladjustment.

A book may not uneaten challenge a man to renounce the world and seek God. If a man meets an accident which cripples or weakens him, he may come to entertain the feelings of inadequacy. Lord Buddha is said to have been led to renunciation by the sight of a funeral procession. In this way experiences also determine one's personality.

However, it may be noted that one's own personality that one has acquired at any moment will in part determine how the experiences influence his pre-acquired personality. Thus a child who is robust, outgoing, athletic would find his parents in the first case a model for behaviour, a model that would deepen the already apparent personality traits. But if the child is shy, retiring

and bookish he may find such parents' personality distasteful and intensify the opposed personality trends already apparent.

It may also be referred that personality is a matter of social situations. It has been shown by social researchers that a person may show honesty in one situation and not in another. The same is true for other personality traits also. Personality traits tend to be specific responses to particular situations rather than general behaviour patterns. It is a dynamic unity with a creative potential.

Heredity, physical environment, culture and particular experiences are thus the four factors that explain personality—its formation, development and maintenance. Beyond the joint influence of these factors, however, the relative contribution of each factor to personality varies with the characteristic or personality process involved and, perhaps, with the individual concerned.

Genetic or hereditary factors may be more critical for some personality characteristics, while environmental factors, (cultural, financial), may be more important for others. Furthermore, for any one characteristic, the relative contribution of one or another factor may vary from person to person.

Also there is no way yet known to measure the effect of each factor or to state how the factors combine to produce a given result. The behaviour of a juvenile delinquent is affected by his heredity and by his home life. But how much is contributed by each factor, cannot be measured in exact terms.

Major personality traits

The twelve major personality traits influencing organizational behaviour, i.e, (1) Authoritarianism, (2) Bureaucratic Personality, (3) Machiavellianism, (4) Introversion and Extroversion, (5) Problem Solving Style, (6) Achievement Orientation, (7) Locus of Control, (8) Self Esteem, (9) Self Monitoring, (10) Risk Taking, (11) 'Type A' and 'Type B' Personality, and (12) Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).

1. Authoritarianism:

Authoritarianism as a concept was developed by the psychologist Adorno during World War II to measure susceptibility to autocratic, fascistic or antidemocratic appeals. After that the concept was extended to the human personality. According to Adorno, "This concept refers to a belief that there should be status and power differences among people in organisations." Authoritarians tend to place high moral value on their beliefs and are strongly oriented towards conformity of rules and regulations. They naturally prefer stable and structured work environments which are governed by clean rules and procedures.

Further, they believe obedience and respect for authority and blind acceptance of authority. These people are generally conservatives concerned with toughness and power, are close minded and generally less educated. But because of their belief in acceptance of authority they make good followers, work better under directive supervision and are more productive within authoritarian organisational structure.

2. Bureaucratic Personality:

The personality of a bureaucratic person is based upon respect for organisational rules and regulations. He is different from an authoritarian person in respect that his acceptance of authority is not total and blind. A person who is bureaucratic in nature values subordination, conformity to rules, impersonal and formal relationships. These people become better supervisors when the type of work is routine, repetitive and proceduralised because these people are not innovative, they do not like taking risks and feel more at ease in following established directions.

3. Machiavellianism:

This personality trait of Machiavellianism also known as Mach is named after Niccolo Machiavelli, who wrote in the 16th century on how to gain and use power.

The characteristics of high MACH employers are as follows:

(i) A Mach man is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance and believes that ends can justify means.

(ii) A high Mach man manipulates more, wins more, are persuaded less and persuade others more than the low machs.

(iii) High Mach people flourish when they interact face to face with others rather than indirectly.

(iv) These people are successful when the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations.

(v) High Mach man has high self confidence and high self esteem. They are cool and calculating and have no hesitation using others or taking advantage of others in order to serve their own goals.

(vi) They are not easily swayed by a sense of friendship, trust or loyalty. They are specially successful in exploiting structured situations and vulnerable people.

We cannot conclude that whether high machs make good employees or not. The answer will depend upon the type of the job and whether moral and ethical values are considered in evaluating the performance of a person.

4. Introversion and Extroversion:

These two terms are generally associated with the interpersonal behaviour of an individual and his sociability. Extroverts are gregarious and sociable individuals while introverts are shy, quiet and retiring. It has been observed that introverts and extroverts people have different career orientations and require different organisational environment to maximize performance.

Extroverts are more suitable for positions that require considerable interaction with others that is why managerial positions are dominated by extroverts.

Thus, we can say that to be an extrovert is a managerial trait to be a successful manager. On the other hand, introvert people are more inclined to excel at tastes that require thought and analytical skill. An extreme introvert works best alone in a quiet office without external interruption or influence.

5. Problem Solving Style:

Individuals have their own style of solving their problems and making their decisions and this style of their affects their personality in certain ways. There are four problem solving styles based upon Don Hellriegll, John W. Slocum and Richard W. Woodman "organisational behaviour".

These styles are:

(i) Sensation Feeling Style:

The people who have the sensation feeling style are dependable, friendly, social and they approach facts with human concerns. These people are pragmatic, methodical and like jobs which involve human contract and public relations. Some suitable areas of jobs for these people are teaching, customer relations, social workers and marketing.

(ii) Sensation Thinking Style:

People with sensation thinking style are practical, logical, decisive and sensitive to details. These people prefer bureaucratic type organisations. They are not highly suitable for jobs requiring interpersonal relations. But these people are more skilled in technical jobs e.g. production, accounting, engineering and computers.

(iii) Intuition Feeling style:

The persons with intuition feeling style are enthusiastic, people oriented, charismatic and helpful. The professions which are suited to this style are public relations, advertising, politics and personnel.

(iv) Intuition Thinking Style:

These people are very creative, energetic, ingenious and like jobs which are challenging in terms of design and analysis such as system design, law, research and development, top management and so on.

6. Achievement Orientation:

Achievement orientation or a high need to achieve is a personality trait which varies among different types of people and can be used to predict certain behaviour. The people with very high achievement orientation strive to do things in a better way. They want to feel that their

success or failure is due to their own actions. These people do not like to perform easy tasks where there is no challenge or tasks with very high amount of risk as the failure rate is more.

These people like to do the acts with moderate difficulties, so that they can have a sense of achievement also and on the other hand the failure rate is also not very high. Or in other words, achievers will like to do the jobs where the outcome is directly attributed to their efforts and chances of success are so-so. The high achievers will do better in sports, management and sales where there is moderate difficulty, rapid performance feedback and direct relationship between effort and reward.

7. Locus of Control:

Locus of control refers to an individual's belief that events are either within one's control (Internal Locus of Control) or are determined by forces beyond one's control. Some people believe that they are the masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that whatever happens to them in their lives is due to their luck or fate. The first type is labeled as internals and the latter has been called externals. A PERSON'S PERCEPTION OF THE SOURCE OF HIS OR HER FATE IS TERMED LOCUS OF CONTROL.

A large amount of research has consistently shown the following characteristics of the internals and externals.

Internal Locus of Control:

(i) A person with a strong internal locus of control has more control over his own behavior. He believes that he controls events concerning his own life and his internal traits determine what happens in a given situation. He believes that he is the master of his own density.

(ii) These people are more active in seeking more information to make decisions. They are better at retaining the information and are less satisfied with the amount of information they possess.

(iii) Internals are more active socially.

(iv) Internals prefer skill achievement outcomes.

(v) Internals are more likely to use personally persuasive rewards and power bases and less likely to use coercion.

(vi) These people are more independent and less susceptible to influence of others.

(vii) The internals prefer participative management.

(viii) Research has shown that internally oriented people hold jobs of higher Status, advance more rapidly in their careers.

(ix) Internals take more responsibility for their health and have better health habits. As a result their incidents of sickness and of absenteeism are lower.

External Locus of Control:

(i) People who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting and are less involved on jobs than are internals. They generally prefer directive management.

(ii) Unlike the internals, these people prefer chance oriented awards.

(iii) A person with a strong 'external locus of control' feels that outside forces are affecting the events in his life and he is at the mercy of destiny, chance or other people. He believes that everything will happen by the will of God and nothing or nobody can stop it. External locus of control refer

(iv) Unlike, the internals, the externals are more interested in job security and not in advancement of careers.

(v) Whereas the internals prefer intrinsic rewards e.g. feeling of and he is at the mercy of achievement, externals are more interested in extrinsic awards, destiny, chance or other people. From the above mentioned traits of internals and controls it can be concluded that internals would be better on sophisticated tasks, which include most managerial and professional jobs or any other jobs which require complex information processing and learning. In addition, they are suited to jobs requiring initiative and independence of action. As against this, externals would do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and in which success depends heavily on coupling with the directions given by others.

8. Self Esteem:

"Self Esteem refers to the feeling of like or dislike for oneself." "Self Esteem is the degree of respect a person has for himself." This trait varies from person to person as people differ in the degree to which they like or dislike each other. The research on self esteem offers some interesting insights into organisation behaviour.

A few of the research findings about self esteem are:

(i) Self esteem is directly related to the expectations for success. High self esteem people believe that they possess the ability they need to succeed at work.

(ii) Individuals with high self esteem will take more risks in job selection. They are more likely to choose unconventional jobs than people with low self esteem.

(iii) People with low self esteem are more susceptible to external influence than are those with high self esteems. Low esteems are dependent on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result they are more likely to seek approval from others and more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect than are the high esteem.

(iv) In managerial positions, the low esteems tend to be concerned with pleasing others and, therefore, less likely to take unpopular stands than are high esteems.

(v) High esteems are more satisfied with their job than the low esteems.

(vi) High self esteem people are very friendly, affectionate, find it easy to form interpersonal attachments and find good in other people. Low self esteem people are usually critical of others, are generally depressed and blame others for their own failures.

(vii) High esteem people are high performers while low esteem people contribute to poor performance which in turn reinforces low self esteem.

9. Self Monitoring:

"Self monitoring is a personality trait that measures an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors". Self monitoring is a personality trait which has recently received attention. The research on self monitoring is in infancy, so predictions must be guarded.

However, prime evidence suggests the following points:

(i) As self monitoring refers to the individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external factors, individuals with high self monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external, situational factors.

(ii) High self monitors can behave differently in different situations. They are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public, personal and private selves. Low self monitors cannot deviate their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitudes in every situation; hence, there is high behavioural consistency between who they are and what they do.

(iii) The high self monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others and are more capable of conforming than are low self monitors.

(iv) We can also hypothesize that high self monitors will be more successful in managerial positions where individuals are required to play multiple and even contradictory roles. The high self monitor is capable of putting different faces for different audiences.

10. Risk Taking:

The propensity of people to assume risks or avoid risks varies from person to person depending upon the willingness of the people to take chances. This human trait will affect the decision making capability of a manager. This individual personality trait will determine how long will it take a person to take a decision or how much information will be needed before he takes a decision.

Some people are very conscious in nature, while the others are impulsive. An impulsive person is a high risk taking manager; he will make rapid decisions and use less information in making their choices than a very conscious and low risk taking manager. But the research shows that the decision accuracy is generally the same in both the groups.

Research has concluded that managers in organisations are risk aversive, but still there are individual differences on this point. Some jobs specifically demand high risk taking persons e.g. the job of a broker in a brokerage firm. Because in this job for effective performance rapid decisions are required. On the other hand, some jobs are such where risk taking may prove a major obstacle e.g. the job of an accountant who performs auditing activities. This job should be filled by, someone, with low risk taking trait.

11. ‘Type A’ and ‘Type B’ Personality:

People who are impatient, aggressive and highly competitive are termed as ‘Type A’ personality. But those who are easy going, laid back and non-competitive are termed as ‘Type B’ personality. Type ‘A’ people tend to be very productive as they work very hard. Their negative side is that they are very impatient, good team players, more irritable and have poor judgment. Type ‘B’ people do better on complex tasks involving judgment and accuracy rather than speed and hard work.

Despite Type ‘A’s hard work, the Type ‘B’ people are the ones who appear to make it to the top. Great sales persons are usually Type A’s while senior executives are generally Type B’s. The reason is that promotions in corporate and professional organisations usually go to those “who are wise rather than to those who are merely hasty, to those who are tactful, rather than to those who are hostile and to those who are creative rather than to those who are merely agile in competitive stride.”

12. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI):

The personality theory proposed by Carl Jung identified the way people preferred to perceive their environment. Almost Twenty years later, Briggs and Myers developed the Myers – Briggs type indicator (MBTI) a personality test that measured each of the traits in Carl Jung’s model. MBTI is in-fact, one of the most widely used personality tests. It is used by many organisations to select people for a particular position.

It measures how people focus their attention (extrovert or introvert), collect information (sensing or intuition), process the same (thinking or feeling) and finally direct themselves to the other world (judging or perceiving) MBTI then combines the four classifications into 16 personality types.

The alphabet (E) denotes extrovert, (I) stands for introvert, (S) for sensing, (N) for institution, (T) for thinking, (F) is feeling, (J) judging and (P) perceiving. For example if we say marketing people tend to be ESTJ, this means that they are extrovert, sensing, thinking and judging types. MBTI as a test of personality type is so popular, that many organisations encourage their employees to reveal their four letter type so that others in the organisation can better understand their personality.

From the above mentioned personality traits, it becomes very clear that understanding of personality is of immense help in the selection of right lands of people for different jobs. Analysis of an individual’s personality wills reveals his strong and weak points. A person may be unfit for one job but may be fit for another because job requirements may be different,

Understanding the personality will also help in designing the training programmes for the personnel in the organisation.

Personality helps the managers in understanding why do workers behave as they do and what incentive schemes are to be designed to motivate the workers. Further, personality has a great influence on work performance, particularly, in a job with high human relations content, where most of the working day is spent interacting with other people.

Personality is the major determinant of the person holding the key job. Each man's personality reveals itself in the way he works with his superior, his subordinates and other people. As a result, when one person on a job changes, everyone has to adjust to a whole series of changes in the way the work is accomplished. All this will affect the individual performance as well as the organisational performance.

Probably the best statement on personality was made many years ago by Kluckhohn and Murray who said that to some extent, a person's personality is like all other people, like some other people's and like no other people's.

Nature of emotions

In order to have deep understanding of the nature of emotions, one must look for answers to the "Five Perennial Questions of Emotion" that was formulated by John Marshall Reeve (2009).

The "Five Perrenial Questions" must be addressed to improve one's knowledge of the nature of emotions. These include:

What is an emotion?

What causes an emotion?

How many emotions are there?

What is good with the emotions?

What is the difference between emotion and mood?

Let's discuss them one by one.

1. What is an Emotion?

Merriam-Webster defines emotion as a conscious and subjective mental reaction toward a particular event and is usually accompanied by changes in the physiologic and behavioural aspects of a person. From this definition, we can deduce that an emotion has four components, namely: cognitive reactions, physiological reactions, behavioural reactions and affect. Cognitive reactions refer to a person's memory, thinking and perception of an event. Physiological reactions are primarily caused by changes in the hormonal levels in the body. On

the other hand, behavioural reactions comprise the active expression of the emotion. Lastly, affect includes the positive or negative state of the emotion and is what makes an emotion a conscious and subjective experience.

Let’s use a scenario to clearly discuss these aspects of emotion. Suppose you are watching a scary television show alone late at night. You see the physical form of the antagonist and you think he is so scary and spooky (cognitive reaction). Because of this thinking, your face shows fear towards the character (affect). The character runs after the protagonist, and you feel your heart beating fast (physiological reaction) and you cover your eyes with your hands in fear (behavioural reaction).

2. What Causes an Emotion?

There are several theories that provide explanations regarding the origin and process of emotions and what causes them. These theories use the concepts of emotional arousal, physiological responses and/or the subjective perception/interpretation of the event in formulating hypotheses on emotions and their causes. In the early theories of emotion, there is a distinction between cognition and biological responses as the causes of emotions, as explained in the James-Lange Theory and the Cannon-Bard Theory. On the other hand, there are theories that use two-systems view approach, such as the Schachter-Singer Theory. Having a sound knowledge of these theories provides a better understanding of the theoretical causes of emotions.

3. How Many Emotions are There?

As defined, emotion is a subjective experience. There are over 7 billion humans on Earth, and each one of us experiences different kinds of emotions. For this reason, there is no clear answer as to the exact number of emotions and its types. Robert Plutchik (1980) states that there are eight basic emotions, which include: anger, fear, sadness, disgust, surprise, anticipation, trust and joy. Many theorists also believe that the mixture of two or more emotions yields another kind of emotion, also know as a secondary emotion. For instance, anger and disgust might lead to contempt. There is probably no "correct" answer to how many emotions there are: It dependes on how you think about emotions.

4. What is Good with Emotions?

The fourth perennial question inquires about the function of emotions. According to Kennedy, Moore & Watson, emotions play three important roles in the lives of humans. First, emotions are needed for adaptation and survival. Happiness and trust motivate a person to perform at his best, while fear and disgust make a person vigilant to danger. Second, emotions influence a person on how he perceives the world. Thus, emotions have a regulatory function. Third, emotions helps people communicate their needs, wants and feeling to others.

5. What is the Difference Between Emotion and Mood?

“Emotion" and “mood" are two words that are mistakenly used interchangeably. One of the differences between the two lies on their time course. Emotions are generally short-lived,

whereas moods are often long-lived. Another difference is that emotions may be expressed (and are easier to express) while moods may not be expressed due to the lack of perception/understanding of the stimulus.

Five Dimensions of Emotions

How do you measure or classify emotions? Here are four variables scales along which emotions can be placed. When you classify emotions (or anything), you start to make more sense of them, aiding communication, discussion and general understanding. From this can also stem interventions, where you use your knowledge to deliberately change emotions.

Pleasure (positive, negative)

Emotions can be positive, pleasant and giving good feelings. Emotions may also be negative, unpleasant and cause discomfort. Any emotion can be placed on a scale between extreme pleasure and extreme discomfort, with a zero point between where neither positive nor negative feelings are experienced (such as the way surprise is often experienced).

While we may wonder about the value of negative emotions, they are designed by evolution to keep us alive. For example fear helps us avoid danger while anger helps us defend ourselves. Positive emotions also have evolutionary benefit, such as love that bonds people together and pride that drives learning.

Aristotle first talked about pleasure and pain as fundamental drivers and these have been taken up many times since. The basic effect is that we move towards pleasure and away from pain. Many basic persuasive methods are based on negative emotions, but can be ineffective or have problematic side-effects, such as when people coerced into action take subtle revenge on those who seek to control them.

Positive emotions	Negative emotions
Happiness, liking, respect, hope, contentment	Sadness, anger, fear, shame, disgust

Focus (internal, external)

Emotions may have a primary focus inside us or outside us, for example being about ourselves or about the outer world. Sometimes these are very much about one or the other and at other times they may be a bit of both. A highly outward emotion is anger, as we project bad feelings

toward others. A highly inward one is contentment, for example in the way a meditating person feels.

People who are more introverted may have more internally focused emotions, while extraverts spend more of their time and emotions in the outer world, particularly with other people. When we interact with others, we have external emotions about them. Their actions and other external events can lead to thoughts and feelings that can become increasingly internal, such as when we think about what we might do and how we may feel about this.

Internal emotions	External emotions
Shame, contentment, surprise, pride	Anger, fear, liking, disgust

Direction (attraction, repulsion)

Emotions often have direction, bringing us together with things or pushing us away from them. For example love is an attractive emotion, while fear is repulsive. We can reduce distance by moving ourselves towards object of interest or bringing it close. Likewise we can act on repulsion by pushing it away or removing ourselves from its proximity.

Direction is often about other people, such as when we like or dislike them. It can also be about things and situations of danger or attraction. Greed, for example, may pull us towards money, while fear may push us away from a dangerous place. We can even be attracted or repulsed by an idea, such as within our own internal musings or in response to the rhetoric of politicians.

Inward emotions	Outward emotions
Pride, shame, contentment, admiration, embarrassment	Anger, fear, disgust, contempt

Intensity

Intensity is about how strongly we feel emotions. This is a uni-polar dimension, as it can range from close to zero, for example when we feel flat or just a bit irritated, to very intense, such as feelings of grief or extreme anger. Pleasure and Locus are bi-polar scales as they have two poles with a 'zero' in between. Many emotions have words for high and low intensity, such as the more intense 'anger' and the less intense 'irritation'.

Intensity can be highly energizing, and it can also be paralyzing. In extreme, the strength of emotion can overcome us, blotting out our external senses as we focus on the inner experience. Negative intensity can be dangerous and lead us into actions we later regret, such as when hate leads to murder. Strongly positive emotions can be wonderful, such as the joy of new love.

Low intensity emotions	High intensity emotions
Irritation, contentment, mild surprise, dislike	Hate, grief, joy, disgust

Arousal

Arousal is about activation, the energy and motivation that the emotions give us towards taking action. It is uni-polar and similar to intensity, but it is not the same. You can experience an intense emotion, such as joy, but not be motivated to act. Likewise, arousing emotions such as curiosity may not be particularly intense.

Lower arousal emotions lead to inaction, perhaps because we are feeling flat, with low intensity, or because the emotion has an inward direction. Higher arousal emotions lead either to external action or intense thinking, such as when we pay close attention to a threat or item of personal interest. We may not seem to be doing much, but our minds are working overtime.

The states of high and low arousal are also known as hot and cold. This temperature metaphor reflects how we often feel. An aroused person may be red-faced, reflecting the activation of their body.

Low arousal emotions	High arousal emotions
Depression, contentment	Anger, curiosity, fear

Emotional Intelligence – "is 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" (Salovey & Mayer 1990).

"Emotional Intelligence is a way of recognising, understanding, and choosing how we think, feel, and act. It shapes our interactions with others and our understanding of ourselves. It defines how and what we learn; it allows us to set priorities; it determines the majority of our daily actions. Research suggests it is responsible for as much as 80% of the "success" in our lives" (Freedman et al).

What makes a good Leader?

You may think of an excelling leader as someone who has a calm assuring demeanour and who is in control no matter what the situation. You may also think of someone who has complete trust in all around them; a compassionate listener, always speaking kindly and with clarity; is approachable and always seems to make the right informed decisions.

Effectively, these are all attributes of someone who has high levels of Emotional Intelligence. Referencing Salovey above: the leader is controlling his/her own emotions as well as those of the team to perform excelling results. It is, therefore an extremely important subject – Emotional Intelligence theory and Leadership have a deep embedded relationship that should not be underestimated or overlooked.

What Is Emotional Intelligence Theory?

Often referred to as EI, Emotional intelligence is about having the ability to understand and manage the emotions of yourself and also those around you. Remember, the objective of a leader is to complete the task successfully, keep the team together and manage the team on an individual basis to ensure everyone is happy and playing to their strengths.

Question – Who is more likely to Succeed?

A Manager that shouts and criticises his/her team when under stress?

OR

A Leader that is in control and calmly assesses the situation?

The latter, obviously: the person who is in control of the situation and the surroundings – the one with good Emotional Intelligence!

Emotional Intelligence Theory: The Four Elements

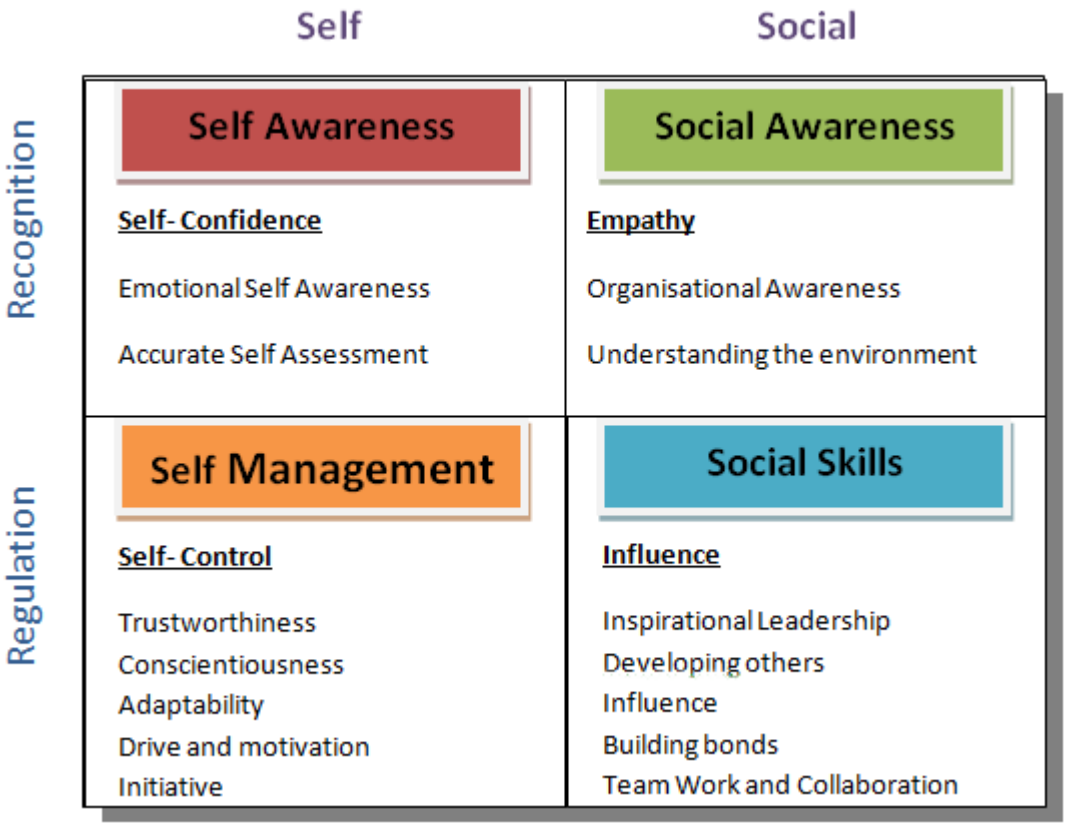
Daniel Goleman, (2002), A psychologist who helped make the idea of EI popular, presented the concept of Emotional Intelligence as being encapsulated by four elements:

Self Awareness

Self Management

Social Awareness

Social Skills



The theory is simple – The more that you, as a leader, are in control and manage each of these elements, the higher your emotional intelligence!

1. Self-awareness

The first element of Emotional Intelligence theory – Being self aware means that you understand you. – You understand what makes you tick and therefore, your strengths and weaknesses as a person, and a Leader. You can then start to understand why you feel, and what makes you feel. “Is this a good emotion, or should I feel a different way?” If you understand your emotions, you can identify their impact to you and those in your team. It is a path on the road to having humility, which is a much needed facet in Leadership.

2. Self-Management

The second element of Goleman’s Emotional Intelligence theory: – Through being in control of what you say and do, whilst rejecting the temptation to make rushed decisions, you can be in charge of your actions and therefore reducing the chance of compromising your values. Other aspects to nurture in this element are to show and actively apply conscientiousness, trustworthiness, Leading and adapting to change, complete drive to succeed and the initiative to think fast and act creatively and innovatively to solve problems.

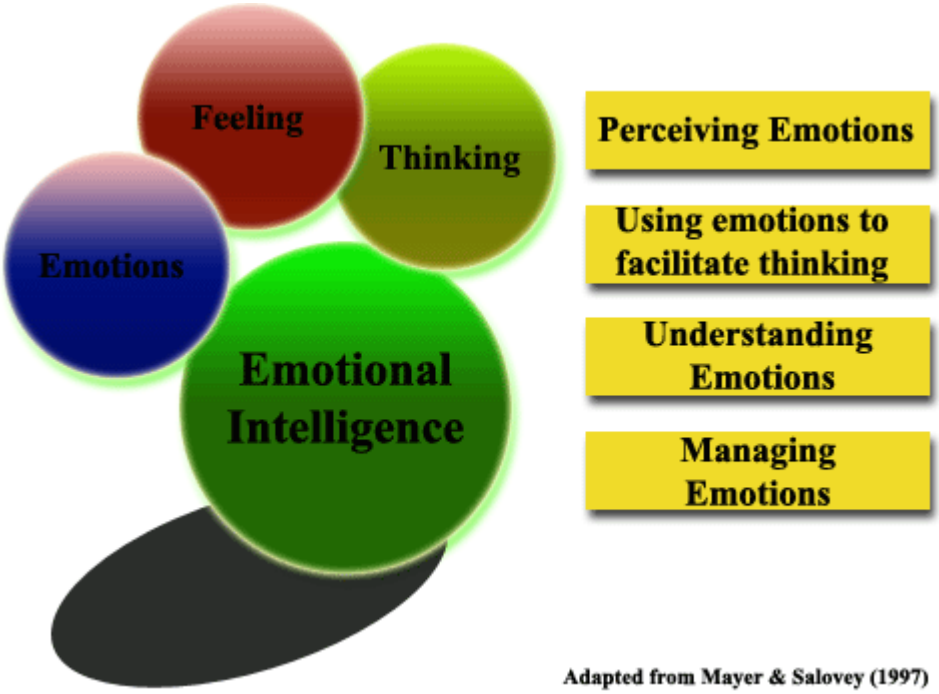
3. Social Awareness

The third element of Emotional Intelligence Theory: Social awareness is the ability for a Leader to understand the emotions of the team members around them and to get a good comprehension

of their emotional makeup. The ability to treat people according to these emotional reactions is vital. This area is linked to empathy: The ability to understand and see things in other peoples view points, expertise in building and retaining talent, valuing diversity and appreciating the organisational goals. In essence this part of emotional intelligence then, is about understanding and being truly in touch with the complete demands of the environment and acting to suit those conditions.

4. Social Skills

The fifth and final element from Goleman's emotional intelligence theory, which links Leadership and Emotional Intelligence together: Leaders with good Social Skills are often very good communicators. Leaders who are good in this discipline are also good at conflict resolution and communicating the vision to team members, enlightening them and creating motivation and inspiration throughout the team. They are experts at getting their team to support them and also believe in their leadership. They set the example, for others to follow by demonstrating the acceptable behaviours and values.



Perfection takes practice

Being a great Leader takes time. It is one that can be achieved, and through the use of emotional intelligence Theory and Leadership combined, and following some of the suggestions referred to on this page, your skills can be increased.

Focus on these four elements of emotional intelligence theory, and with practice, you will improve. Keep doing it, and you will improve further. Repetition is the mother of skill!

How to improve your Emotional Intelligence:

A daily journal – Journals help improve your self-awareness. Writing down your thoughts can move you to a higher degree of self-awareness. Understand what you did, why, how did it make you feel/ act? What did you do well? What could you improve on? Just reflecting on this everyday, will enhance your Self awareness and personal improving routine.

Calm! – Running one hundred miles an hour can be a blur – SLOW DOWN at times, and when strong emotions rise through demanding situations, use the three second rule – Pause, count to three and then ask why. Why are you feeling angry? What can you do to counter this? An emotion is a state of mind – how can you convert anger to a more positive emotion? What can you learn from this situation? No matter what the situation, you can always choose how you react to it.

Understand your values – Take time to understand what you believe in and what your values are. Understand your driving values: things that get you going and that create ambition. Also, list those values that are your 'away from' values: those that cause you to avoid things because of fear. Spend some time to understand your high valued principles as well. These are important values and principles that you do not want to compromise. If you know what is important to you, decisions will be easier to take – ones which do not compromise your values.

Be Accountable for your actions – Remember, you have a choice in everything you do. If you don't already, take accountability for your actions and decisions. If you make a bad decision, learn from it, but face the music and take responsibility for it. You gain respect if you do and with respect comes great Leadership.

Re-examine why you're a Leader – When times get tough, it is fairly easy to forget what you really love about your career. You must take some time to remember why you wanted this job and what your long term vision is. Try to remind yourself daily where you are, where you want to be and how you will get there. If you are still unhappy try to get to the root cause to understand why. Once you highlight this, you can then act to do something about it.

Goals – For every one of your goals, write down the reasons why you absolutely want to achieve them! These reasons will give you motivation when times are hard.

Turn negative situations into positives – Every time things are difficult, ask yourself, "What can I learn from this?" Is there anything that you can take away and introduce so the situation doesn't happen again? Write your learning points in your journal.

Learn and understand conflict resolution – Leaders must know how to resolve conflicts between their team members, customers, or vendors. Learning this skills is imperative if you want to succeed as a leader.

Learn how to praise others – As a leader, you can inspire the loyalty of your team simply by giving praise when it's earned. Learning how to effectively praise others is a fine art, but well worth the effort. Remember that journal – record your actions, review it daily and polish your skills!