LECTURE NOTES
ON
PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT
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SYLLABUS

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PERSONALITY

Personality is the fundamental and foremost determinant of individual behaviour. It seeks to integrate the physiological and psychological facets of an individual to put them into action. Personality consists of an individual’s characteristics and distinctive ways of behaviour.

Probably the most meaningful approach would be to include both the person and the role as Floyd L Ruch does in his definition. He states that:

The human personality includes:

- External appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value.
- Inner awareness of self as a permanent organising force.
- The particular pattern or organisation of measurable traits, both “inner and “outer”.

**PERSONALITY Definition**

Personality definition by authors: No common definition of personality has so far been arrived at. Every individual defines personality in a different way which includes trait factors and physical appearance.

Personality, a characteristic way of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Personality embraces moods, attitudes, and opinions and is most clearly expressed in interactions with other people. It includes behavioral characteristics, both inherent and acquired, that distinguish one person from another and that can be observed in people’s relations to the environment and to the social group.

**BASICS OF PERSONALITY**

The Big Five personality traits are openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. These five factors are assumed to represent the basic structure behind all personality traits. They were defined and described by several different researchers during multiple periods of research.

The Five Traits

The traits are:

**Openness** – Openness to experience describes a person’s degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity, and preference for novelty and variety. Some disagreement remains about how to interpret this factor, which is sometimes called intellect.

**Conscientiousness** – Conscientiousness is a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement. Conscientiousness also refers to planning, organization, and dependability.

**Extraversion** – Extraversion describes energy, positive emotions, assertiveness, sociability, talkativeness, and the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others.
Agreeableness – Agreeableness is the tendency to be compassionate and cooperative towards others rather than suspicious and antagonistic.

Neuroticism – Neuroticism describes vulnerability to unpleasant emotions like anger, anxiety, depression, or vulnerability. Neuroticism also refers to an individual’s level of emotional stability and impulse control and is sometimes referred to as emotional stability.

DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

The determinants of personality can perhaps best be grouped in five broad categories: biological, cultural, family, social, and situational.

- Biological Factors
- Cultural Factors
- Family Factors
- Social Factors
- Situational Factors

BIOLOGICAL FACTORS

The study of the biological contributions to personality may be studied under three heads:

Hereditry

Hereditary refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent from one’s parents.

The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual’s personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes.

Brain
The second biological approach is to concentrate on the role that the brain plays in personality. The psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of the human brain in influencing personality.

Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research give an indication that a better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from the study of the brain.

**Biofeedback**

Until recently, physiologists and psychologists felt that certain biological functions such as brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control.

Now some scientists believe that these involuntary functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback techniques. In BFT, the individual learns the internal rhythms of a particular body process through electronic signals that are feedback from equipment that is wired to the body.

**Physical features**

A vital ingredient of the personality, an individual’s external appearance, is biologically determined. The fact that a person is tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white will influence the person’s effect on others and this in turn, will affect the self-concept.

**CULTURAL FACTORS**

Among the factors that influence personality formation is the culture in which we are raised, early conditioning, norms prevailing within the family, friends and social groups and other miscellaneous experiences that impact us.

The culture largely determines attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition, cooperation and a host of other human responses.

According to Paul H Mussen, “each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child’s cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned.”

**FAMILY FACTORS**

Whereas the culture generally prescribes and limits what a person can be taught, it is the family, and later the social group, which selects, interprets and dispenses the culture. Thus, the family probably has the most significant impact on early personality development.

A substantial amount of empirical evidence indicates that the overall home environment created by the parents, in addition to their direct influence, is critical to personality development.
The parents play an especially important part in the identification process, which is important to the person’s early development.

According to Mischel, the process can be examined from three different perspectives.

(a) Identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour including feelings and attitudes between child and model.

(b) Identification can be looked at as the child’s motives or desires to be like the model.

(c) It can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

From all three perspectives, the identification process is fundamental to the understanding of personality development. The home environment also influences the personality of an individual. Siblings (brothers and sisters) also contribute to personality.

SOCIAL FACTORS

There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organisations, which greatly influence an individual’s personality. This is commonly called the socialization process.

Socialization involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentialities that are open to him or her, those that are ultimately synthesized and absorbed.

Socialization starts with the initial contact between a mother and her new infant. After infancy, other members of the immediate family – father, brothers, sisters and close relatives or friends, then the social group: peers, school friends and members of the work group – play influential roles.

Socialization process is especially relevant to organisational behaviour because the process is not confined to early childhood, taking place rather throughout one’s life. In particular, the evidence is accumulating that socialization may be one of the best explanations for why employees behave the way they do in today’s organisations.

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. The effect of the environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behavior.

An individual’s personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The varying demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one’s personality.

DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

The five stages of development are as follows:
Erikson (1950) believes that personality continues to be moulded throughout the entire lifespan from birth to death. This period has been divided into eight stages by him. Each stage has its characteristic features marked and affected by emotional crisis, particular culture of the person and his interaction with the society of which he is a part.

1. Oral Stage:

This stage expands from zero to one-and-a-half years. During this period mouth is the sensitive zone of the body and the main source of joy and pleasure for the child. How the infant is being cared for by the mother makes the infant trust or mistrusts the world (represented by mother) around him. If his wants are frequently satisfied, he develops trust and believes that the world will take care of him.

In case of frequent dissatisfaction, mistrust develops leading the infant to believe that the people around him cannot be believed, relied on, and that he is going to lose most of what he wants. After the first six months (sucking period), the remaining one year (biting period) is fairly difficult for the child and mother because of eruption of teeth and weaning. If properly handled, infant’s trust gets reinforced and he develops an in-built and lifelong spring of optimism and hope.

Persons, who had an unpleasant (abandoned, unloved and uncared) babyhood, are likely to find parenthood as burdensome and may express dependent, helpless, abusive behaviour, and angry outbursts i.e., oral character. To such people, caseworker is like parents, who helps the client to verbalise his anger and distrust and later provides emotional support and protective services.

The caseworker has to fill the voids (mistrust) created by the early mother and child relationship. The caseworker presents himself as a trustworthy person, and, as a by-product of this relationship the client starts trusting himself and others, around him.

Care should be taken that the client does not feel deprived at the hands of the caseworker who presents himself as a mothering person to the client. It may be made clear that the feeling of trust or mistrust (task of oral stage) is not totally dependent upon mother-child relationship during oral stage. It continues to be modified, reinforced or impoverished according to the experiences of the client in the subsequent years of life also.

2. Anal Stage:
Towards the end of biting period of oral stage, the child is able to walk, talk, and eat on his own. He can retain or release something that he has. This is true of bowel and bladder function also. He can either retain or release his bowel and bladder contents.

Now, the child no more depends upon the mouth zone for pleasure. He now derives pleasure from bowel and bladder (anal zone) functioning, which entails anxiety because of toilet training by parents. Child is taught where to pass urine and where to go for defecation etc.

In this training of bladder and bowel control, child may develop autonomy, or shame and doubt. The task of anal is to develop autonomy. If the parents are supportive without being overprotective and if the child is allowed to function with some independence, he gains some confidence in his autonomy probably by the age of three and prefers love over hate, cooperation over willfulness, and self-expression over suppression.

Autonomy, thus, overbalances shame and doubt and leads to development of confidence that he can control his functions, and also, to some extent, the people around him. Contrary to this, the child may feel angry, foolish and ashamed if parents criticise his faeces and over-control his bowel and bladder functioning during the training for toilet. Observations of sanskaras convey acceptance to the child and help the parents to train them in appropriate manner.

The children (with more mistrust and doubt in their share) when adults may need help in accepting failures and imperfection as an inherent part of one’s life. By accepting the client as he is, the caseworker can reduce his feeling of self-hatred and perfectionism. Over-demanding adults or those who express temper tantrums when asked to assume responsibility may need to be helped to control their impulsive acts.

They should be rewarded when they exhibit controls, and one should reinforce their autonomy and independence when exercised. Autonomy and independence are totally different from impulsive acts as these involve rationality and not emotionality.

3. Genital (Oedipal) Stage:

The task for this period is to develop and strengthen initiative, failing which the child develops a strong feeling of guilt. This period extends from 3rd to 6th years of life, i.e., pre-school period. He is now capable of initiating activity, both intellectual as well as motor on his own. How far this initiative is reinforced depends upon how much physical freedom is given to the child and how far his curiosity is satisfied. If he is led to feel bad about his behaviour or his interests, he may grow with a sense of guilt about his self-initiated activities.

Erikson (1950) opines that the child takes first initiative at home when he/she expresses passionate interest in his/her parent of opposite sex. The parents ultimately disappoint him/her. They should try to help the child to identify with the same sex parent, e.g., the girl should be encouraged to identify with mother and the son with the father.
In addition to this initiative, the child also attempts to wrest a place for self in the race of siblings for parents affection. He sees the difference between what he wants and what he is asked to do. This culminates into a clear-cut division between the child’s set of expanded desires and the parental set of restrictions. He gradually “turns these values (restrictions, i.e., don’ts) into self-punishment”.

Slowly and gradually, he extracts more initiative from the conflict and grows happily if his initiative gets proper and adequate reinforcement. The caseworker encourages the clients burdened with guilt feelings to take initiative in family as well as in other situations, and works with his social environment to strengthen his capacity to take initiative.

4. Latency Stage:

This stage covers the period from 6 to 11 years, i.e., school age. The child can reason out rationally and can use the tools that adults use. The sexual interests and curiosity (common in genital period) get suppressed till puberty. If encouraged and given opportunity, he gains confidence in his ability to perform and use adult materials. This leads to feeling of industry in him.

When unable to use adult materials, he develops inferiority feelings. Such children may develop problems with peers. They need to be encouraged to interact with classmates and be less dependent upon others.

If the child has mastered the task of genital period (initiative in place of guilt) he will be able to master the tasks of latency (industry in place of inferiority) also provided he is encouraged to undertake and helped to execute the responsibilities entrusted to him.

5. Adolescence Stage:

This period, regarded as a period of turmoil, usually starts at 12-13 years and can extend up to 18-19 years. The adolescents, during this transitional process from childhood to maturity, behave something like an adult and sometimes like a child. Parents too show their ambivalence to accept them in their new role of an adult in-the-making.

This stage exhibits all the psycho-social characteristics of earlier period and only towards the end, all these get resolved into a new set of role (identity) for the adolescent. In order to develop a personal identity, he becomes fan of some hero, starts following certain ideologies, and tries his luck with opposite sex.

Indecision and confusion are not uncommon in this stage. Identification with a wrong person shall create problems for him. The task of this age is to develop identity, i.e., values, strengths, skills, various roles, limitations, etc., failing which his identity gets diffused and he fails to know how to behave in different situations. He needs to be helped to deal with the physiological, emotional pressures along-with pressures from parents, peers, etc.
Group work is more helpful with problem-adolescents. When showing confusion about their role, they can be helped to emulate the group leader or identify with group worker. Parents can handle adolescents properly if educated adequately about the needs and problems of this age.

Similarly, tasks for young adulthood, adulthood and old age are intimacy vs. isolation, generativity vs. stagnation, and ego-integrity vs. despair. These psycho-analytical concepts are helpful in understanding behaviour of the individuals. Apart from these, there are some other tasks described by some other scholars for each stage which according to them are to be achieved for a normal human development.

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Researchers have developed a number of personality theories and no theory is complete in itself. The theories of personality can be conveniently grouped under four heads:

- Psychoanalytic Theory
- Type Theories
- Trait Theories
- Self-Theory

Psychoanalytic Theory

The Psychoanalytic Theory of personality has held the interest of psychologists and psychiatrists for a long time. Sigmund Freud, its formulator, was quite an influence.

It attends to emphasizes three main issues i.e. the id, the ego and the superego. Psychoanalysts say that all human personality is comprised of these closely integrated functions.

Type Theories

The type theories represent an attempt to put some degree of order into the chaos of personality theory. The type theory represents an attempt to scientifically describe personality by classifying individuals into convenient categories.

Two categories of type theories are explained below:

Sheldon’s Physiognomy Theory: William Sheldon has presented a unique body-type temperamental model that represents a link between certain anatomical features and psychological traits with distinguishing characteristics of an individual and his behaviour.

Carl Jung’s Extrovert-introvert Theory: The way to type personality is in terms of behavior or psychological factors. Jung’s introvert and extrovert types are an example.

Trait Theories
Some early personality researchers believed that to understand individuals, we must break down behaviour patterns into a series of observable traits.

According to trait theory, combining these traits into a group forms an individual’s personality. A personality trait can be defined as an “enduring attribute of a person that appears consistently in a variety of situations”. In combination, such traits distinguish one personality from another.

**Gordon Allport’s Personality Traits:** Claims that personality traits are real entities, physically located somewhere in the brain. We each inherit our own unique set of raw material for given traits, which are then shaped by our experiences.

**Raymond Cattell’s 16 Personality Factors:** Raymond Cattell considered personality to be a pattern of traits providing the key to understanding and predicting a person’s behaviour.

Cattell identified two types:

- Surface Traits
- Source Traits

**Self-theory**

The psychoanalytic, type and trait theories represent the more traditional approach to explaining the complex human personality.

Carl Rogers is most closely associated with his approach of self-theory. Rogers and his associates have developed this personality theory that places emphasis on the individual as an initiating, creating, influential determinant of behaviour within the environmental framework.

According to Rogers basic ingredients of personality:

**Self Actualization:** Carl Rogers believed that humans have one basic motive that is the tendency to self-actualize – i.e. to fulfil one’s potential and achieve the highest level of ‘human-beingness’ we can.

**Self-concept:** Self-concept is defined as “the organized, consistent set of perceptions and beliefs about oneself”.
PERSONALITY TRAITS

Gordon Allport’s dispositions, Hans Eysenck’s three fundamental traits, and Michael Aston and Kibeom Lee’s six dimensional HEXACO model of personality structure tells important personality traits

Allport’s Disposition Theory

Gordon Allport’s disposition theory includes cardinal traits, central traits, and secondary traits.


Cardinal trait: A trait that dominates and shapes a person’s behavior. These are the ruling passions/obsessions, such as the desire for money, fame, love, etc.

Central trait: A general characteristic that every person has to some degree. These are the basic building blocks that shape most of our behavior, although they are not as overwhelming as cardinal traits. An example of a central trait would be honesty.

Secondary trait: a characteristic seen only in certain circumstances (such as particular likes or dislikes that only very close friend might know). They must be included to provide a complete picture of human complexity.

Eysenck’s Extroversion and Neuroticism Theory

Hans Eysenck rejected the idea that there are “tiers” of personality traits, theorizing instead that there are just three traits that describe human personality. These traits are extroversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. Extroversion and neuroticism provide a two-dimensional space to describe individual differences in behavior. Eysenck described these as analogous to latitude and longitude describing a point on the Earth. An individual could rate high on both neuroticism and extroversion, low on both traits, or somewhere in between. Where an individual falls on the spectrum determines her/his overall personality traits.

The third dimension, psychoticism, was added to the model in the late 1970s as a result of collaborations between Eysenck and his wife, Sybil B. G. Eysenck.

Aston and Lee’s HEXACO Model of Personality

Aston and Lee’s six-dimensional HEXACO model of personality structure is based on a lexical hypothesis that analyzes the adjectives used in different to describe personality, beginning with English. Subsequent research was conducted in other languages, including Croatian, Dutch, Filipino, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Polish, and Turkish. Comparisons of the results revealed six emergent factors. The six factors are generally named Honesty-Humility (H), Emotionality (E), Extroversion (X), Agreeableness (A),
Conscientiousness (C), and Openness to Experience (O). After the adjectives that describe each of these six factors were collected using self-reports, they were distilled to four traits that describe each factor.

**Honesty-Humility (H):** Sincerity, Fairness, Greed Avoidance, Modesty

**Emotionality (E):** Fearfulness, Anxiety, Dependence, Sentimentality

**Extroversion (X):** Social Self-Esteem, Social Boldness, Sociability, Liveliness

**Agreeableness (A):** Forgivingness, Gentleness, Flexibility, Patience

**Conscientiousness (C):** Organization, Diligence, Perfectionism, Prudence

**Openness to Experience (O):** Aesthetic Appreciation, Inquisitiveness, Creativity, Unconventionality

These three personality trait theories, among others, are used to describe and define personalities today in psychology and in organizational behavior.

Perception is the sensory experience of the world. It involves both recognizing environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli.

Through the perceptual process, we gain information about the properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival. Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment.

**PERCEPTION**

Perception includes the five senses; touch, sight, sound, smell, and taste. It also includes what is known as proprioception, a set of senses involving the ability to detect changes in body positions and movements. It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information, such as recognizing the face of a friend or detecting a familiar scent.

**IMPORTANCE OF PERCEPTION:**

(i) Perception is very important in understanding the human behaviour, because every person perceives the world and approaches the life problems differently- Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is. It is because what we hear is not what is really said, but what we perceive as being said. When we buy something, it is not because it is the best, but because we take it to be the best. Thus, it is because of perception, we can find out why one individual finds a job satisfying while another one may not be satisfied with it.
If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behaviour in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment. One person may be viewing the facts in one way which may be different from the facts as seen by another viewer.

With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people’s perception is influenced by their needs. Like the mirrors at an amusement park, they distort the world in relation to their tensions.

Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and events in the work setting. This problem is made more complicated by the fact that different people perceive the same situation differently. In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly.

Thus, for understanding the human behaviour, it is very important to understand their perception, that is, how they perceive the different situations. People’s behaviour is based on their perceptions of what reality is, not on reality itself. The world as it is perceived is the world that is important for understanding the human behaviour.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PERCEPTION

The three important factors influencing the perception is

- Characteristics of the Perceiver,
- Characteristics of the Perceived,
- Characteristics of the Situation.

A. Characteristics of the Perceiver:

When a person looks at a target and attempts to interpreter what he sees, his interpretation is greatly influenced by his personal characteristics which are discussed as follows:

1. Needs and Motives:

Our need pattern play an important part in how we perceive things. A need is a feeling of discomfort or tension when one things he is missing something or requires something. Therefore, unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perception. When people are not able to satisfy their needs they are engaged in wishful thinking which is a way to satisfy their needs not in the real world but
imaginary world. In such cases, people will perceive only those items which suit their wishful thinking. Motives also influence the perception of people. People who are devious are prone to see others as also devious.

2. Self-Concept:

Self-concept indicates how we perceive ourselves which then influences how we perceive others and the situation we are in. The more we understand ourselves, the more we are able to perceive others accurately. For example, secure people tend to see others as warm and friendly. Less secure people often find fault with others. Perceiving ourselves accurately and enhancing our-self-concept are factors that enhance accurate perception.

3. Past Experience:

Our perceptions are often guided by our past experiences and what we expect to see. A person’s past experiences mould the way he perceives the current situation. If a person has been betrayed by a couple of friends in the past, he would tend to distrust any new friendship that he might be in the process of developing.

4. Current Psychological State:

The psychological and emotional states of an individual are likely to influence how things are perceived. If a person is depressed, he is likely to perceive the same situation differently than if he is elated. Similarly, if a person is scared out of wits by seeing a snake in the garden, she is likely to perceive a rope under the bed as a snake.

5. Beliefs:

A person’s beliefs influence his perception to a great extent. Thus, a fact is conceived not on what it is but what a person believes it to be. The individual normally censors stimulus inputs to avoid disturbance of his existing beliefs.

6. Expectations:

Expectations affect the perception of a person. Expectations are related with the state of anticipation of particular behaviour from a person. For example, a technical manager will expect that the non-technical people will be ignorant about the technical features of the product.

7. Situation:
Elements in the environment surrounding an individual like time, location, light, heat etc., influence his perception. The context in which a person sees the objects or events is very important.

8. Cultural Upbringing:

A person’s ethics, values and his cultural upbringing also play an important role in his perception about others. It is difficult to perceive the personality of a person raised in another culture because our judgement is based upon our own values.

B. Characteristics of the Perceived:

Characteristics of the person who is being observed can affect what is perceived. Though, it may go against logic and objectivity, but it cannot be denied that our perceptions about others are influenced by their physical characteristics such as appearances, age, gender, manner of communication as well as personality traits and other forms of behaviour. For example, loud people are more likely to be noticed in a group than are quite ones. So too are extremely attractive or extremely ugly individuals.

Persons, objects or events that are similar to each other tend to be grouped together. People dressed in business suits are generally thought to be professionals, while employees dressed in ordinary work clothes are assumed to be lower level employees.

Manner of communication, both verbal and non-verbal, affect our perception about others. For example, the choice of words and precision of language can form impressions about the education and sophistication of the person. The tone of voice indicates the mood of the person. The depth of conversation and choice of topics provide clues of people’s intelligence. The body language or expressive behaviour such as how a person sits and the movement of his eyes or a smile can indicate whether he is nervous or self confident.

The status or occupation of a person also influences the perception. We tend to behave in a more respectful way when we are introduced to the principal of a school in which our child is studying, judge of the high court or Supreme Court or a famous cricket player. Sometimes our perception of a person tends to be; biased, depending upon the description given to us by other persons. When we meet a person who is described to us as warm and friendly, we treat him differently as compared to meeting a person who is known to be cold & calculating.

C. Characteristics of the Situation:
The context in which we see objects or events is very important. The surrounding environment and the elements present in it influence our perception while perceiving a particular situation or event, its physical, social and organisational setting can also influence the perception. For example, if you meet a person for the first time and he is with a person whom you respect and admire, you will create a favourable image about him in your mind as compared to a situation in which you see him with another person whom you intensely dislike. Of course, the initial impressions may change with the passage of time, but the saying that “First impression is the last impression” is very valued.

Location of a given event is also very important factor in determining the behaviour. For example, a conversation with the boss taking place in a casual reception area may be perceived differently than when taking place in the boss’s office with the door closed. Organisational setting also affects the behaviour of the people. An organisation setting where people are given an opportunity to interact in a friendly and sociable work situation, they become more trustworthy and less defensive.
UNIT III

SELF-AWARENESS

Anyone who is dedicated to self-improvement, personal development or the higher goal of spiritual growth needs to actively seek to understand oneself. This is because only when one understands where one lacks, can he or she focus their efforts on what to improve.

Definition:

Self-awareness is the capacity that a person has to introspect. It includes gaining an understanding of and insight into one’s strengths, qualities, weaknesses, defects, ideas, thoughts, beliefs, ideals, responses, reactions, attitude, emotions and motivations. Thus introspection also includes assessing how one is perceived by others and how others are impacted based on one’s behaviour, responses and conduct.

TYPES OF SELF AWARENESS

Psychologists often break self-awareness down into two different types, either public or private.

**Public Self-Awareness:** This type emerges when people are aware of how they appear to others. Public self-awareness often emerges in situations when people are at the centre of attention, such as when giving a presentation or talking to a group of friends. This type of self-awareness often compels people to adhere to social norms. When we are aware that we are being watched and evaluated, we often try to behave in ways that are socially acceptable and desirable. In short we display our best behaviour, which may not be reflective of our true personality. Public self-awareness can also lead to ‘evaluation anxiety’ in which people become distressed, anxious, or worried about how they are perceived by others.

**Private Self-Awareness:** This type happens when people become aware of some aspects of themselves, but only in a private way. For example, seeing your face in the mirror is a type of private self-awareness. Feeling your stomach lurch when you realize you forgot to study for an important test or feeling your heart flutter when you see someone you are attracted to are also good examples of private self-awareness. Close family members and friends are privy to some aspects of our private self as we let our guard down in front of them. Hence, they become invaluable aides in helping us assess ourselves.
SELF-CONFIDENCE

Self-confidence is an attitude about your skills and abilities. It means you accept and trust yourself and have a sense of control in your life. You know your strengths and weaknesses well, and have a positive view of yourself. You set realistic expectations and goals, communicate assertively, and can handle criticism.

On the other hand, low self-confidence might make you feel full of self-doubt, be passive or submissive, or have difficulty trusting others. You may feel inferior, unloved, or be sensitive to criticism. Feeling confident in yourself might depend on the situation. For instance, you can feel very confident in some areas, such as academics, but lack confidence in others, like relationships.

Having high or low self-confidence is rarely related to your actual abilities, and mostly based on your perceptions. Perceptions are the way you think about yourself and these thoughts can be flawed.

Low self-confidence might stem from different experiences, such as growing up in an unsupportive and critical environment, being separated from your friends or family for the first time, judging yourself too harshly, or being afraid of failure. People with low self-confidence often have errors in their thinking.

WAYS TO INCREASE THE SELF-CONFIDENCE

- Recognize and emphasize your strengths. Reward and praise yourself for your efforts and progress.
- When you stumble on an obstacle, treat yourself with kindness and compassion. Don't dwell on failure.
- Set realistic and achievable goals. Do not expect perfection; it is impossible to be perfect in every aspect of life.
- Slow down when you are feeling intense emotions and think logically about the situation.
- Challenge making assumptions about yourself, people and situations.
- Recognize that past negative life experiences do not dictate your future.
- Express your feelings, beliefs and needs directly and respectfully
- Learn to say no to unreasonable requests.
- Individual counseling can also help increase your self-confidence if you need more help.

MNEMONIC

A mnemonic, also known as a memory aid, is a tool that helps to remember an idea or phrase with a pattern of letters, numbers, or relatable associations. Mnemonic devices include special rhymes and
poems, acronyms, images, songs, outlines, and other tools. Mnemonic (pronounced ni-mon-ik) is derived from the Greek phrase mimnēskesthai meaning to “remember.”

Examples of Mnemonics

Example 1:

**PEMDAS** – Please excuse my dear Aunt Susie.

**PEMDAS** is a common mnemonic for remembering order of operations in pre-algebra meaning: Parentheses, exponents, multiplication, division, adding, and subtraction.

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Types of Mnemonics

Types of mnemonics range from simple catchphrases to the creation of abbreviations and phrases. Here are a few types of mnemonics commonly used:

a. **Connection Mnemonics**

Connection mnemonics are used when one can make a connection between something already known and the new thing to memorize. For example, imagine you meet a new boy named Brian who has a bowl cut. You can remember his name by saying Bowl Cut Brian in your head—the connection of his haircut with his name and the “B” alliteration is a helpful memory aid!

b. **Image / Model Mnemonics**

Sometimes, actual images and models are useful for visual learners, or learners who memorize well with graphs, charts, pictures, and similar devices. For example, parts of a plot are often memorized more easily when arranged on a pyramid shape:
c. Music Mnemonics

This type of mnemonic is self-explanatory: many of us simply remember better when music goes along with the phrase or concept we are learning. A simple example of this is using the “ABC” song to learn the alphabet.

d. Name Mnemonics

With this type of mnemonics, the first letters of the words within a phrase are used to form a name. Memorization of the name allows for memorization of the associated idea. For example, Roy G. Biv is a name used to remember the colors of the rainbow: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet.

e. Name of Expression Mnemonics

In this common type of mnemonic, the first letter of each word in the phrase is used to create new words with a memorable phrase. One example of this is the 7 coordinating conjunctions For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, and So which create FANBOY.

f. Note Organization / Outline Mnemonics

One simple way of remembering things better is simply organizing information. Ways of organization include creating notecards to practice studying terms and definitions and to create outlines of one’s notes.

The Importance of Using Mnemonics

Mnemonics are cheat codes for those who struggle with memorizing a certain complicated subject, list, or concept. They allow us to use more memorable phrases that tie the concepts we want to memorize to our minds. They allow us to quickly and successfully learn, and remember key concepts in a variety of subjects from English to math. They work because our minds tend to remember information to which we can relate or experience.

Mnemonics have been proven to work as tools of memory-forming for a variety of tasks. They aid doctors, scientists, geologists, artists, and students. If you’re struggling to remember something, consider making yourself a mnemonic.
GOAL SETTING

Goal setting involves the development of an action plan designed to motivate and guide a person or group toward a goal. Goal setting can be guided by goal-setting criteria (or rules) such as SMART criteria. Goal setting is a major component of personal-development and management literature.

The Five Golden Rules

1. Set Goals That Motivate You

When you set goals for yourself, it is important that they motivate you: this means making sure that they are important to you, and that there is value in achieving them. If you have little interest in the outcome, or they are irrelevant given the larger picture, then the chances of you putting in the work to make them happen are slim. Motivation is key to achieving goals.

Set goals that relate to the high priorities in your life. Without this type of focus, you can end up with far too many goals, leaving you too little time to devote to each one. Goal achievement requires commitment, so to maximize the likelihood of success, you need to feel a sense of urgency and have an "I must do this" attitude. When you don't have this, you risk putting off what you need to do to make the goal a reality. This in turn leaves you feeling disappointed and frustrated with yourself, both of which are de-motivating. And you can end up in a very destructive "I can't do anything or be successful at anything" frame of mind.

2. Set smart Goals

The simple fact is that for goals to be powerful, they should be designed to be SMART. There are many variations of what SMART stands for, but the essence is this – goals should be:

- Specific.
- Measurable.
- Attainable.
- Relevant.
- Time Bound.

3. Set Goals in Writing
The physical act of writing down a goal makes it real and tangible. You have no excuse for forgetting about it. As you write, use the word "will" instead of "would like to" or "might." For example, "I will reduce my operating expenses by 10% this year," not "I would like to reduce my operating expenses by 10% this year." The first goal statement has power and you can "see" yourself reducing expenses, the second lacks passion and gives you an e-Post your goals in visible places to remind yourself every day of what it is you intend to do. Put them on your walls, desk, computer monitor, bathroom mirror or refrigerator as a constant reminder.

4. Make an Action Plan

This step is often missed in the process of goal setting. You get so focused on the outcome that you forget to plan all of the steps that are needed along the way. By writing out the individual steps, and then crossing each one off as you complete it, you'll realize that you are making progress towards your ultimate goal. This is especially important if your goal is big and demanding, or long-term. Read our article on Action Plans for more on how to do this.

5. Stick With It!

Remember, goal setting is an on-going activity, not just a means to an end. Build in reminders to keep yourself on track, and make regular time-slots available to review your goals. Your end destination may remain quite similar over the long term, but the action plan you set for yourself along the way can change significantly. Make sure the relevance, value, and necessity remain high excuse if you get sidetracked.

TIME MANAGEMENT

- Time Management refers to managing time effectively so that the right time is allocated to the right activity.
- Effective time management allows individuals to assign specific time slots to activities as per their importance.
- Time Management refers to making the best use of time as time is always limited.

Ask yourself which activity is more important and how much time should be allocated to the same? Know which work should be done earlier and which can be done a little later.

Time Management plays a very important role not only in organizations but also in our personal lives.

Time Management includes:

- Effective Planning
• Setting goals and objectives
• Setting deadlines
• Delegation of responsibilities
• Prioritizing activities as per their importance
• Spending the right time on the right activity

• Effective Planning

Plan your day well in advance. Prepare a To Do List or a “TASK PLAN”. Jot down the important activities that need to be done in a single day against the time that should be allocated to each activity. High Priority work should come on top followed by those which do not need much of your importance at the moment. Complete pending tasks one by one. Do not begin fresh work unless you have finished your previous task. Tick the ones you have already completed. Ensure you finish the tasks within the stipulated time frame.

• Setting Goals and Objectives

Working without goals and targets in an organization would be similar to a situation where the captain of the ship loses his way in the sea. Yes, you would be lost. Set targets for yourself and make sure they are realistic ones and achievable.

• Setting Deadlines

Set deadlines for yourself and strive hard to complete tasks ahead of the deadlines. Do not wait for your superiors to ask you everytime. Learn to take ownership of work. One person who can best set the deadlines is you yourself. Ask yourself how much time needs to be devoted to a particular task and for how many days. Use a planner to mark the important dates against the set deadlines.

• Delegation of Responsibilities

Learn to say “NO” at workplace. Don’t do everything on your own. There are other people as well. One should not accept something which he knows is difficult for him. The roles and responsibilities must be delegated as per interest and specialization of employees for them to finish tasks within deadlines. A person who does not have knowledge about something needs more time than someone who knows the work well.

• Prioritizing Tasks

Prioritize the tasks as per their importance and urgency. Know the difference between important and urgent work. Identify which tasks should be done within a day, which all should be done within a month and so on. Tasks which are most important should be done earlier.
• Spending the right time on right activity

Develop the habit of doing the right thing at the right time. Work done at the wrong time is not of much use. Don’t waste a complete day on something which can be done in an hour or so. Also keep some time separate for your personal calls or checking updates on Facebook or Twitter. After all human being is not a machine.

EFFECTIVE PLANNING

The essence of success for any manager is effective planning. In fact planning is the most important management function. The achievement of any successful manager depends, how well he plans. The sales manager has to plan to increase their sales, Advertising manager has to plan his campaign to drive the desired results and Logistics Manager plans to make sure that the material reaches to customers on time.

WHAT IS PLANNING: In simple language it is the answer of questions:

a) What is to be done?

b) How it should be done?

c) When is to be done?

d) By Whom it should be done?

e) So how one should plan?

The planing process starts with setting up the objectives. Once the objectives are achieved, then you start identifying the ways to achieve the objectives. The planner define the resources required to accomplish the task. Once the resources are identified, a timeline is set to achieve the desired objectives. After the identification of resources, the alternative actions are determined and evaluated. Once the all actions are evaluated, the right action is selected and then implementation takes place.

In this process of planning, most of planner forget an important step to make the plan successful: The Monitoring System and Assessment Method. The monitoring and assessment system help us in effective implementation of planning and if required then guide us for modification in original plan to achieve our goals.

FEATURES OF SUCCESSFUL PLANNING:

• Planning needs to be goal oriented
• Good Planning requires time bound actions
• Planning needs to be flexible,
• Planning is the beginning and not an end, the plans must have modification feature
• Planning must result in decision making
UNIT IV

SELF MANAGEMENT

Stress is the body’s natural defense against predators and danger. It causes the body to flood with hormones that prepare its systems to evade or confront danger. People commonly refer to this as the fight-or-flight mechanism.

Stress management is a wide spectrum of techniques and psychotherapies aimed at controlling a person's level of stress, especially chronic stress, usually for the purpose of and for the motive of improving everyday functioning.

Research confirms that the brain functions of frequent meditators change for the better. Meditators are less likely to find themselves at the mercy of distractions and an unruly mind than people who don’t meditate. There are many different meditation techniques for concentration; if you’re looking to sharpen your focus, you can choose one that appeals to you.

MEDITATION METHODS THAT INCREASE CONCENTRATION

Mindfulness

Among the many meditation techniques that are easily accessible, one of the most effective and best-known ways to improve concentration is to practice mindfulness. Can you think of any task that can be performed perfectly without your giving it your full attention? Many activities, including driving, playing sports or music, reading and paying attention at work or at school, require high levels of concentration. In addition, you’re more likely to derive satisfaction from homing in on and accomplishing one chosen task than from trying to juggle several at one go. As you train the mind to remain present and fully focused on one object – physical sensations or the process of breathing, for example – you learn to let go of all other thoughts and distractions as well.

There’s a lot of freedom in discovering that you don’t have to pay attention to every little thing that pops into your mind. When you can be mindful at will, your ability to concentrate naturally increases.

Zen meditation

An Italian neuroscientist named Giuseppe Pagnoni conducted a study where he compared the brain functions of a dozen long-term practitioners of Zen meditation and a dozen people of similar profiles who were not familiar
with meditation. According to an article in Psychology Today, Pagnoni found that the meditators’ minds were more stable than the other group’s and their ability to focus was superior. This isn’t surprising given the rigorous methods that are central to the practice of Zen meditation.

Counting the breath cycles

A recent study suggested that deep breathing has a positive impact on our bodies since it helps us deal more skillfully with stress. Many cutting-edge companies have meditation rooms and encourage their employees to take a break, relax and focus on their breathing.

One meditation method that is especially helpful for those who find it difficult to concentrate is counting the breathing cycles. This form of meditation takes mindfulness a step further by giving the meditator a dynamic task: count inhale, exhale, one. Inhale, exhale, two. Inhale, exhale, three, and so on. Remaining fully aware during this process is a powerful training in concentration – many people notice that their minds have wandered before they can count to three. With time and patience, though, their ability to focus improves and they can keep counting… The sky’s the limit!

SELF HYPNOTISM

Self-hypnosis or auto-hypnosis is a form, a process, or the result of a self-induced hypnotic state. Frequently, self-hypnosis is used as a vehicle to enhance the efficacy of self-suggestion; and, in such cases, the subject "plays the dual role of suggester and suggestee"

Self-Hypnosis Technique

This technique is called eye fixation self-hypnosis and is one of the most popular and effective forms of self-hypnosis ever developed. We will start by using it as a method to help you relax. After you have practised this a number of times we will add hypnotic suggestions and imagery. Reduce distractions by going into a room where you are unlikely to be disturbed and turning off your phone, television, computer, etc. This is your time. You are going to focus on your goal of self-hypnosis and nothing else.

1. Sit in a comfortable chair with your legs and feet uncrossed.

Avoid eating a large meal just before so you don’t feel bloated or uncomfortable. Unless you wish to nod off, sit in a chair, as lying down on a bed will likely induce sleep. You may also wish to loosen tight clothing and
take off your shoes. If you wear contact lenses, it is advisable to remove them. Keep your legs and feet uncrossed.

2. **Look up at the ceiling and take in a deep breath.**

Without straining your neck or tilting your head to far back pick a point on the ceiling and fix your gaze on that point. While you keep your eyes fixed on that point take in a deep breath and hold it for a moment and then breathe out. Silently repeat the suggestion “My eyes are tired and heavy and I want to SLEEP NOW”. Repeat this process to yourself another couple of times and, if your eyes have not already done so, let them close and relax in a normal closed position. It is important when saying the suggestion that you say it to yourself as if you mean it, for example in a gentle, soothing but convincing manner.

3. **Let your body relax.**

Allow your body to become loose and limp in the chair just like a rag doll. Then slowly and with intention count down silently from five to zero. Tell yourself that with each and every count you’re becoming more and more relaxed. Stay in this relaxed state for a number of minutes while focusing on your breathing. Notice the rising and falling of your diaphragm and chest. Be aware how relaxed your body is becoming without you even having to try and relax it. In fact, the less you try, the more relaxed you become.

4. **When ready, come back to the room by counting up from one to five.**

Tell yourself that you are becoming aware of your surroundings and at the count of five you will open your eyes. Count up from one to five in a lively, energetic manner. At the count of five, open your eyes and stretch your arms and legs.

Repeat this technique three or four times and notice how each time you reach a deeper level of relaxation. However, if you find you do not relax as much as you would like, do not force it. There is a learning curve involved so resolve to practice self-hypnosis on a regular basis.

Sometimes people will feel a little spaced out or drowsy after they come out of the hypnosis. This is similar to awaking from an afternoon nap, is harmless and passes after a few moments. However, do not drive or operate machinery until you feel fully awake.
SELF-ACCEPTANCE VS. PERSONAL GROWTH

Within this paradigm it’s only natural that the conflict between self-acceptance and growth should arise. Once you start labeling some points of your life as being of “higher” or “lower” quality than others, then you have the means to compare any point to any other. How does your life today compare with your life five years ago? Are you richer? Happier? Healthier?

Now you have to decide how much you want to push things to improve in quality as you progress through life. You can accept your current position as adequate and opt to simply maintain it, or you can strive to achieve something greater. You can also adopt the belief that your life is largely out of your control, in which case your best bet would be to learn to accept whatever outcomes you experience, regardless of how you might rate their level of quality.

The more you accept where you are, the less motivation there is to grow. And the more you push yourself to grow, the less satisfaction you derive from your current position. You might end up oscillating back and forth along this spectrum, sometimes being very complacent and other times being very driven.
UNIT - V

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Transactional analysis is a psychoanalytic theory and method of therapy wherein social transactions are analysed to determine the ego state of the communicator as a basis for understanding behavior. In transactional analysis, the communicator is taught to alter the ego state as a way to solve emotional problems.

Transactional analysis, developed by psychiatrist Eric Berne, is a form of modern psychology that examines a person's relationships and interactions. Berne took inspiration from Sigmund Freud's theories of personality, combining them with his own observations of human interaction in order to develop transactional analysis. In therapy, transactional analysis can be used to address one's interactions and communications with the purpose of establishing and reinforcing the idea that each individual is valuable and has the capacity for positive change and personal growth.

DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Dr. Eric Berne developed transactional analysis in the last 1950s, using “transaction” to describe the fundamental unit of social intercourse, with “transactional analysis” being the study of social interactions between individuals. His influences included contemporaries such as René Spitz, Erik Erikson, Paul Federn, Edoardo Weiss, as well as Freud and Wilder Penfield, a Canadian neurosurgeon.

Inspired by Freud’s theory of personality—primarily his belief that the human psyche is multifaceted and that different components interact to produce a variety of emotions, attitudes and complex behaviors—and Penfield’s groundbreaking experiments involving the stimulation of specific brain regions with electrical currents, Berne developed an approach that he described as both neo- and extra-Freudian.

Discerning the need to build upon the philosophical concepts Freud introduced with observable data, Berne developed his own observable ego states of Parent, Adult, and Child, following Freud’s proposal of the existence of the Id (emotional and irrational component), Ego (rational component), and Superego (moral component) as different and unobservable factions of personality.

Berne also took special note of the complexities of human communication. He highlighted the fact that facial expressions, gestures, body language, and tone may be regarded as more important by the receiver than any spoken words. In his book Games People Play, he noted that people may sometimes communicate messages underpinned with ulterior motives.
Examining the Ego States of Transactional Analysis

Like Freud, Berne posited that each individual possesses three ego states. His ego states—the Parent, the Adult, and the Child—do not directly correspond to Freud’s Id, Ego, and Superego, however. Instead, these states represent an individual’s internal model of parents, adults, and children. An individual may assume any of these roles in transactions with another person or in internal conversation. These roles are not directly associated with their typical English definitions but can be described as follows:

Parent consists of recordings of external events observed and experienced by a child from birth through approximately the first five years of life. These recordings are not filtered or analyzed by the child; they are simply accepted without question. Many of these external events are likely to involve the individual’s parents or other adults in parent-link roles, which led Berne to call this ego state “the Parent.” Examples of external events recorded in this state:

- Do not play with matches.
- Remember to say “please” and “thank you.”
- Do not speak to strangers.

Child represents all brain recordings of internal events (feelings or emotions) that are directly linked to the external events observed by the child during the first five years of life. Examples of events recorded in this state may include:

- I feel happy when Mom hugs me.
- Dad’s late night movie was very scary.
- I feel sad when Mom is sad.

Adult, the final ego state, is the period in which a child develops the capacity to perceive and understand situations that are different from what is observed (Parent) or felt (Child). The Adult serves as a data processing center that utilizes information from all three ego states in order to arrive at a decision. One important role of the Adult is to validate data which is stored in the Parent:

Example: I see that Suzie’s house was burnt down. Mom was right—I should not play with matches.
Any indication (speech, gestures or other nonverbal cues) that acknowledges the presence of another person is called a transactional stimulus. All transactions are initiated via the use of a transactional stimulus. When two individuals encounter each other and the receiver reacts in a manner related to the transactional stimulus, that individual has performed a transactional response. The key to successful person-to-person communication generally lies in identifying which ego state (in the speaker) initiated the transactional stimulus and which ego state (in the receiver) provided the transactional response.

Due to the typically rational and reasonable nature of the Adult, Berne believes that the easiest and simplest transactions occur between Adult ego states, but transactions may occur between any of the three ego states. In a complementary transaction, the transaction response from the receiver is directed to the sending ego state in the speaker. For example, if the Adult in the speaker sends a transactional stimulus to the Child in the receiver, then the transaction will be complementary if the Child in the receiver then sends the transactional response to the Adult in the speaker. According to Berne, communication will continue if the transactions remain complementary.

A crossed transaction occurs when an ego state that did not receive the transactional stimulus sends the transactional response. Crossed transactions may lead to breakdowns in communication, which may sometimes be followed by conflict. For example, the Adult state in an individual may send a transactional stimulus to the Adult in another individual, asking “Have you seen my coat?” But the Child in the second individual may instead send the transactional response to the Parent in the first individual by replying, “You always blame me for everything!”

Not only is communication considered to be an important aspect of everyday life, it is also thought to be an integral part of being human. Even newborns exhibit the need to be recognized and acknowledged. Research conducted by Spitz showed that infants who received less cuddling, handling, and touching were more likely to experience physical and emotional challenges. Berne described this innate need for social recognition as recognition-hunger, defining the fundamental unit of social action or recognition as a stroke.

From Berne’s perspective, the adversely affected children in Spitz’s studies exhibited physical and emotional deficits due to a lack of strokes. Berne applied this theory to adults, theorizing that men and women also experience recognition-hunger and a need for strokes. However, while infants may desire strokes that are primarily physical, an adult may be contented with other forms of recognition, such as nods, winks, or smiles.
While strokes may be positive or negative, Berne theorized that it is better to receive a negative stroke than no stroke at all. When one person asks another out on a date, for example, and receives a flat refusal, that person may find the refusal to be less damaging than a complete lack of acknowledgment.

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS IN THERAPY

The goal of transactional analysis is help the individual in therapy gain and maintain autonomy by strengthening the Adult state. Typically, the individual and the therapist will establish a contract that outlines the desired outcome they wish to achieve in therapy. This may contribute to the person in therapy taking personal responsibility for events that take place during treatment. The individual will generally then become more able to rely on their Adult ego states to identify and examine various thoughts, behaviors, and emotions which might hinder the ability to thrive.

The atmosphere that supports transactional analysis is one of comfort, security, and respect. When a positive relationship is forged between the therapist and the person seeking treatment, this often provides a model for subsequent relationships developed outside of the therapy arena. Analysts who practice this form of therapy generally use a broad range of tools gathered from many disciplines including psychodynamic, cognitive behavioral, and relational therapies.

TRANSACTIONS

The theory of transactions, along with ego states, lies at the core of understanding Transactional Analysis. In fact both ideas are intrinsically related.

All interactions between people can be broken down into a series of transactions, comprised of a stimulus and a response. For example as I left my home this morning I saw my neighbour hanging out washing. I smiled and shouted “hello” (the stimulus) and she smiled and waved in return (the response). As you can see transactions are not just verbal, they include body language, gestures and tone of voice.

Each transaction can be seen as coming from a specific pair of ego states. It is important to understand that different stimuli can invite different responses from others. In this way understanding and changing our own behaviours can change the nature of our interactions with others.

Transactions theory has clear applications in all 4 fields for building powerful relationships.
Eric Berne, author of The Games People Play, described how the decisions about ourselves, our world and our relationships with others are crystallized during our first 5 years of life. These decisions are based on the pattern of strokes we receive from our parents and primary caregivers. These decisions lead to our acceptance of one of four basic existential/psychological life positions, which then determine our patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour.

Our early existential decisions are reinforced by the verbal and non verbal messages that we continue to receive and perceive throughout our lives. Berne states that dysfunctional behaviour is the result of decisions made in childhood that were the best belief systems available to the child then – allowing them to survive and adapt to those around them, but then become a limiting life script for later life.

Once a person has decided on a life position that will often remain fixed unless there is considerable effort put in to change the underlying beliefs and decisions put in about life. The goal of transactional analysis psychotherapy is to bring into awareness, explore, challenge, and change an ineffective life script. This is based on the belief that because we were the original creators of our own script we have the power to change it.
Life Positions

There are four life positions described by TA – these are:

- I’m OK—You’re OK
- I’m OK—You’re not OK
- I’m not OK—You’re OK
- I’m not OK—You’re not OK

I’m OK—You’re OK position is considered the optimal, healthy position and is generally game-free. People occupying this position will hold the belief that all people are innately worthy and valuable. That people are OK is a statement which describes their being or essence rather than their behaviour. This position is characterized by an attitude openness and of honesty and trust. People occupying this position will be collaborative and accepting of themselves and others.

I’m OK—You’re not OK is occupied by those who project their difficulties onto others, they may be blaming and critical. Transactional games that reinforce this position involve a self-styled superior (the “I’m OK”) who projects anger, disgust, or disdain onto a designated inferior, or scapegoat (the “You’re not OK”). This position requires that there be someone to be ‘worse than’ in order to maintain the sense of self as ok.

The I’m not OK—You’re OK position is depressive, it is characterized by feeling powerless and lacking in comparison with others. People occupying this position may discount their own needs in favour of others and may experience themselves as victims. Transactional games supporting this position include “Kick me” and “Martyr”—games that support the power of others and deny one’s own.

I’m not OK—You’re not OK is a position of hopelessness, futility and frustration. From this position life seems uninteresting and hopeless. This may result in self destructive or violent behaviour.

The challenge of TA is to become aware of how we are attempting to make life real through our basic life position and if necessary, create a healthy alternative.
The four life positions were developed by Frank Ernst into the well-known OK Corral shown here.

WINNERS AND LOSERS

Everyone wants to succeed in life. But not everyone achieves success despite huge efforts. Winners, as often said, don’t do different things but they do things differently. They are never disheartened by the small obstacles that come in their ways. They are very practical and lead others by example.

- **Hard work and consistency:** Hard work and consistency is the key to success. There is no alternative to it. It is often said that luck has a role in success but in reality it is just the hard work that counts. Luck has nothing to do with success. Hard work builds up the calibre and determination for success. It prepares you to face the adversities of life and shine out later.

- **Never give up attitude or perseverance:** Another important thing to succeed is perseverance. Success is not easily achievable; it needs huge efforts, time and one has to overcome certain difficulties and obstacles of life. One should never run away in the midway. Hesitation and doubts should be avoided and one should grab the opportunity with both hands at the appropriate time.

- **Focus and determination:** There is an old saying, “Rolling stone gathers no moss” and this particularly states the importance of focus and determination. One should observe a particular thing and focus on it with full determination. Those who are likely to change and never adamant to anything will never accomplish things in life or anywhere.

- **Strategic planning and deliverance:** Without a proper planning, no one is going to succeed in life, be it a minor household work or a complex corporate one. One has to understand things properly, then check out if any other person is doing the same thing you do, find out how they are doing and how you do it. After this, one can act accordingly to excel in life. If a thing is known properly, deliverance will come up automatically.
● **Self-confidence:** No matter how well one knows a thing or not, if she/he is not confident, he can’t deliver properly and capitalise on anything. Confidence can be achieved through practice only. You are what you think you are. If one thinks that he is capable of doing something, he can and if he thinks he can’t, he can’t. A successful person always stands tall with full confidence.

● **Time management:** Winners are really shrewd and wise. They observe and plans things, perform and deliver in the right time and set the goals in a meaningful manner. None will succeed if a thing is not well managed in time.

● **Practical:** Practice makes a man perfect and winners always are practical. They think and do what they think. They are practical in every aspect of life. They are hardworking, confident, positive, strategic, determined and persevering.

● **Positive thinking:** Positive thinking is the constructive way of thinking anything that comes in life. Winners are positive and never expect that they would fail in what they do. They always stay positive even if they fail and never give up thoughts to succeed somehow. A positive mind always finds a way out and motivates the person to succeed.

**INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS**

Interpersonal relations, except of being dependent on the personality characteristics, interpersonal relations significantly influence the process of personality formation and on the development of its important features.

- Individuals in an interpersonal relationship must share common goals and objectives. They should have more or less similar interests and think on the same lines. It is always better if individuals come from similar backgrounds.
- Individuals in an interpersonal relationship must respect each other’s views and opinions. A sense of trust is important.
- Individuals must be attached to each other for a healthy interpersonal relationship.
- Transparency plays a pivotal role in interpersonal relationship. It is important for an individual to be honest and transparent