



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)
(Established under section 3 of UGC Act 1956)
Coimbatore-641021

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

Subject: **MANAGING INTERPERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

Semester: **III**

Subject Code: **17MBAPH303B**

Class- II MBA

Scope:

The course creates self awareness through Transactional analysis for the personal growth of the students

Objectives:

To make the students aware, monitor and build self - efficiency. Help the students to overcome the barriers of communication and personality development. Make the students to focus on counseling interventions.

Unit I

Self – Definition - Perception - Self-Schemes - Gaining Self-knowledge - Self-awareness - Self-Effectiveness - Self-Presentation - Motivation and Strategies - Self-monitoring - Impression management

Unit II

Communication and language – Models - Oral – Qualities and Profile of Good Speakers - Written – Clarity, Responsibility, Simplicity, Style – Barriers - Ways of overcoming –Paralanguage, Eye contact, Facial Expression, Kinesics, Body Language, Deception.

Unit III

Assertiveness – Nature - Importance and relevance to organizational life – Assertion and Aggression - Assertive writing - Preparing for Assertive Business Writing, Effective letter writing and business mail – Tools, Tips, Pitfalls - Persuasion - When to say Yes/No - Being Assertive with Oneself – cutting , Rewriting, editing - Enhance individual assertiveness.

Unit IV

Transaction Analysis - Ego states – Exclusion – Contamination – Strokes - Life position - Type of transactions - Time Structure – Withdrawal, Rituals, Pastimes, Activities, Games-types, Stamps, Racket and Sweat shirts, Scripts - Advantage and Disadvantage of TA.

Unit V

Counseling - Steps - Elements of counseling – Counseling as a helping strategy - Significant Predicating People's Problem - Journey in a Life Space – Anxiety – Causes of anxiety - Counseling to develop organizations - Check list for counselors - Training for counseling

Suggested Readings:

Text book:

1. Venkatapathy, R. and Jackson, P.T. Aditya. (2009). *Managing Interpersonal Effectiveness*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

References:

1. Thomas Haris. (2007). *I'm Okay You're okay*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
2. Fisher Uray. (2009). *Getting to say Yes*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
3. Albert and Emmonds, M. (2009). *Complete guide to Assertive Living*. New Delhi: Jaico Publishing house



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DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

Name: **Dr. A. MARTIN JAYARAJ (Assistant Professor)**

Department: **Management**

Subject Code: **17MBAPH303B**

Semester: **III**

Year: **2017-19 Batch**

Subject: **Managing Interpersonal Effectiveness - Lesson Plan**

UNIT - 1			
S. No	Lecture Hours	Contents	References
1	1	Self-Definition - Perception	T1 – Pg 1- 5
2	1	Self-Schemes	T1 – Pg 6- 8
3	1	Gaining Self-Knowledge	T1 – Pg 8- 12
4	1	Self-Awareness	T1 – Pg 12- 15
5	1	Self-Effectiveness	T1 – Pg 15- 21
6	1	Self-Presentation - Motivate and Strategies	T1 – Pg 21- 22
7	1	Self-Monitoring	T1 – Pg 23- 30
8	1	Impression Management	T1 – Pg 30- 31
9	1	Recapitulation & Discussion on important questions	-
Total no. of Hours planned for Unit 1			9
UNIT - 2			
1	1	Communication and Language -	T1 – Pg 35- 37
2	1	Models of Communication	T1 – Pg 37- 42
3	1	Oral - Qualities and Profile of good Speakers	T1 – Pg 43- 49
4	1	Written - Clarity, Responsibility, Simplicity, Style	T1 – Pg 49- 66
5	1	Barriers - Ways of Overcoming	T1 – Pg 66 - 68
6	1	Paralanguage, Eye Contact	T1 – Pg 70 – 74
7	1	Facial Expression, Kinesics	T1 – Pg 75 – 77
8	1	Body Language, Deception	T1 – Pg 77 - 80
9	1	Recapitulation & Discussion on important questions	-
Total no. of Hours planned for Unit 2			9
UNIT - 3			
1	1	Assertiveness - Nature, Importance,	T1 – Pg 83 – 85
2	1	Relevance to Organizational life	T1 – Pg 85
3	1	Assertion and Aggression - Assertive Writing	T1 – Pg 85 – 90
4	1	Preparing for Assertive Business Writing	T1 – Pg 90 – 91
5	1	Tools, Tips, Pitfalls, Persuasion	T1 – Pg 92 – 99
6	1	When to say YES/NO	T1 – Pg 99 - 103
7	1	Being Assertive with Oneself, Cutting , Rewriting, Editing	T1 – Pg 103 - 105
8	1	Enhance individual Assertiveness	T1 – Pg 105

9	1	Recapitulation & Discussion on important questions	-
Total number of hours planned for Unit 3			9
UNIT - 4			
1	1	Transaction Analysis	T1 – Pg 107–110
2	1	Ego States, Exclusion	T1 – Pg 110–112
3	1	Contamination, Strokes, Life Position	T1 – Pg 112-117
4	1	Type of Transactions - Time Structure – Withdrawal	T1 – Pg 117-120
5	1	Rituals, Pastimes, Activities	T1 – Pg 120-122
6	1	Games - type, Stamps, Racket	T1 – Pg 122-133
7	1	Sweat Shirts, Scripts	T1 – Pg 133-140
8	1	Advantage and Disadvantage of TA	T1 – Pg 141-147
9	1	Recapitulation & Discussion on important questions	-
Total no. of Hours planned for Unit 4			9
UNIT - 5			
1	1	Counseling – Steps - Elements	T1 – Pg 157–166
2	1	Counseling as a Helping Strategy	T1 – Pg 166-169
3	1	Significant Predicating People's Problem	T1 – Pg 170-177
4	1	Journey in a Life Space - Anxiety	T1 – Pg 178-185
5	1	Counseling to develop organizations	T1 – Pg 186-187
6	1	Check list for Counselors	T1 – Pg 188-193
7	1	Training for Counseling	T1 – Pg 193-197
8	1	Case Study	-
9	1	Recapitulation & Discussion on important questions	-
10	1	Revision of previous year question paper	-
11	1	Revision of previous year question paper	-
12	1	Revision of previous year question paper	-
Total no. of Hours planned for Unit 5			12

Suggested Readings:**Text Books:**

T1. Venkatapathy, R. and Jackson, P.T. Aditya. (2009). *Managing Interpersonal Effectiveness*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

Reference Books:

R1. Thomas Haris. (2007). *I'm Okay You're okay*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

R2. Fisher Uray. (2009). *Getting to say Yes*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

R3. Albert and Emmonds, M. (2009). *Complete guide to Assertive Living*. New Delhi: Jaico Publishing house.

Journals:

J1. Asian Journal of Professional Ethics & Management

J2. Readers Shelf

J3. Journal on Effective Executive

J4. Prabandhan - Indian Journal of Management

Websites:

W1. <http://humanresources.about.com>

W2. <http://stress.about.com>

UNIT-I – SELF CONCEPT

SYLLABUS

Self – Definition - Perception - Self-Schemes - Gaining Self-knowledge - Self-awareness - Self-Effectiveness - Self-Presentation - Motivation and Strategies - Self-monitoring - Impression management.

The Concept of “SELF”

The psychology of self is the study of either the cognitive and affective representation of one's identity or the subject of experience. The earliest formulation of the self in modern psychology derived from the distinction between the self as I, the subjective knower, and the self as Me, the object that is known.

Current views of the self in psychology position the self as playing an integral part in human motivation, cognition, affect, and social identity. It may be the case that we can now usefully attempt to ground experience of self in a neural process with cognitive consequences, which will give us insight into the elements of which the complex multiply situated selves of modern identity are composed.

KOHUT'S FORMULATION

Heinz Kohut initially proposed a bipolar self compromising two systems of narcissistic perfection: 1) *a system of ambitions and*, 2) *a system of ideals*. Kohut called the pole of ambitions the *narcissistic self* (later, the *grandiose self*), while the pole of ideals was designated the *idealized parental imago*. According to Kohut, these poles of the self represented natural progressions in the psychic life of infants and toddlers.

Kohut argued that when the child's ambitions and exhibitionistic strivings were chronically frustrated, arrests in the grandiose self led to the preservation of a false, expansive sense of self that could manifest outwardly in the visible grandiosity of the frank narcissist, or remain hidden from view, unless discovered in a narcissistic therapeutic transference (or *selfobject transference*) that

would expose these primitive grandiose fantasies and strivings. Kohut termed this form of transference mirror *transference*. In this transference, the strivings of the grandiose self are mobilized and the patient attempts to use the therapist to gratify these strivings.

Kohut proposed that arrests in the pole of ideals occurred when the child suffered chronic and excessive disappointment over the failings of early idealized figures. Deficits in the pole of ideals were associated with the development of an idealizing transference to the therapist who becomes associated with the patient's primitive fantasies of omnipotent parental perfection.

Kohut believed that narcissistic injuries were inevitable and, in any case, necessary to temper ambitions and ideals with realism through the experience of more manageable frustrations and disappointments. It was the chronicity and lack of recovery from these injuries (arising from a number of possible causes) that he regarded as central to the preservation of primitive self systems untempered by realism.

By 1984, Kohut's observation of patients led him to propose two additional forms of transference associated with self deficits: 1) *the twinship and*, 2) *the merger transference*. In his later years, Kohut believed that selfobject needs were both present and quite varied in normal individuals, as well as in narcissistic individuals. To be clear, selfobjects are not external persons. Kohut and Wolf, 1978 explain:

"Self objects are objects which we experience as part of our self; the expected control over them is, therefore, closer to the concept of control which a grownup expects to have over his own body and mind than to the concept of control which he expects to have over others. (p.413)"

Kohut's notion of the self can be difficult to grasp because it is experience-distant, although it is posited based upon experience-near observation of the therapeutic transference. Kohut relied heavily on empathy as a method of observation. Specifically, the clinician's observations of his or her own feelings in the transference help the clinician see things from the subjective view of the patient—to experience the world in ways that are closer to the way the patient experiences it. (Note: Kohut did not regard empathy as curative. Empathy is a method of observation).

WINNICOTT'S SELVES

True self and False self

D W Winnicott distinguished what he called the "true self" from the "false self in the human personality, considering the true self as based on a sense of being in the experiencing body: 'for Winnicott, the sense of being is primary, the sense of doing an outgrowth of it'. As he memorably put it to Harry Guntrip, 'You know about "being active", but not about "just growing, just breathing"'.

Nevertheless, Winnicott did not underestimate the need as well for a false self, seeing indeed 'the False self as a necessary defensive organization, a survival kit, a caretaker self, the means by which a threatened person has managed to survive'.

'Winnicott postulates that there is a *continuum of false self development* ', distinguishing indeed five levels of organization of the false self:

1. 'At the pathological end of the continuum the false self acts as if it were the real person'- the true self remaining concealed, only a virtual possibility. However, the false self always lacks "... something essential" socially, the person is perceived as false.
2. Less severely, the false self protects the true self, which remains unactualised - for Winnicott a clear example of a clinical condition organised for the positive goal of preserving the individual in spite of abnormal environmental conditions of the environment.
3. Closer to health, the false self supports the individual's search for conditions that will allow the true self to recover its well-being - its own identity.
4. Even closer to health, we find the false self "... established on the basis of identifications".
5. In a healthy person, the false self is composed of that which facilitates "... a polite social behavior, good manners and a certain reserve". It is this essential courtesy that makes possible life in society: 'the false self acts to allow smooth passage through the world by inducing appropriate and socially acceptable ways of expressing love and hate'.

As for the true self, 'Winnicott's conception of the self became increasingly that of a "hide and seek self', in his growing concern about the possibility of 'thefts of the child's or the patient's creative ownership of their own knowing, in their own time'.

Winnicott believed that 'in *health* there is a core of the personality which corresponds to the true self, and which 'must never be communicated with or be influenced by external reality. The question is: how to be isolated without having to be insulated?

Vaknin: the narcissistic self

'Abstracting ideas from many theoretical perspectives - including concepts from Sigmund Freud, Melanie Klein, Heinz Kohut and the school of object relations and self -psychology' – Sam Vaknin emphasises the self -made nature of the narcissist's self, stressing how narcissists 'create an inner dialogue to maintain consistency with their grandiose or omnipotent self. This inner dialogue takes precedence over external input in self -formation - 'just carrying on a dialogue within a narcissistic structure'.

The narcissistic personality - still according to 'Vaknin, an expert on this personality type' - attempts to 'protect the vulnerable self by building layers of grandiosity and a huge sense of entitlement. He sees the roots of the condition as lying in childhood self -formation: 'the child represses his needs and develops the protective grandiose image or false self rather than his true self - hence the reason 'Vaknin comments on the importance of early detection and treatment'.

Failing intervention, once the narcissistic personality is established, 'a narcissist will always prefer his false self over his true self. No one can convince the narcissist that his true self is far more lovable and intriguing than his grandiose, inflated false self (Vaknin, 2006)

Berne: ego states and self

Eric Berne distinguished the personality's ego states - Parent, Adult and Child - from what he called 'the real self, the one that can move from one ego state to another'. Berne considered that 'the feeling of self is a mobile one. It can reside in any of the three ego states at any given moment, and can jump from one to the other as occasion arises'.

Nevertheless, Berne saw the self as the most valuable part of the personality: 'when people get to know each other well, they penetrate into the depths where this real self resides, and that is the part of the other person they respect and love'

Jungian understandings

In Jungian theory, the self is one of several archetypes. It signifies the coherent whole, unifying both the consciousness and unconscious mind of a person. The self, according to Jung, is realized as the product of individuation, which is defined as the process of integrating one's personality. For Jung, the self is symbolized by the circle (especially when divided into four quadrants), the square, or the mandala. The Wise Old Woman / Man can also serve as 'a symbolic personification of the self.

What distinguishes Jungian psychology from previous iterations is the idea that there are two centers of the personality. The ego is the center of conscious identity, whereas the self is the center of the total personality—including consciousness, the unconscious, and the ego. The self is both the whole and the center. While the ego is a self-contained little circle off the center contained within the whole, the self can be understood as the greater circle.

The Self besides being the centre of the psyche is also autonomous, meaning that it exists outside of time and space. Jung also called the Self an imago dei. The Self is the source of dreams and often appears as an authority figure in dreams with the ability to perceive the future or guide one in the present.

Critiques of the concept of selfhood

'Selfhood' or complete autonomy is a common Western approach to psychology and models of Self are employed constantly in areas such as psychotherapy and Self help. Edward E Sampson (1989) argues that the preoccupation with independence is harmful in that it creates racial, sexual and national divides and does not allow for observation of the self -in-other and other-in-self.

The very notion of selfhood has been attacked on the grounds that it is seen as necessary for the mechanisms of advanced capitalism to function. In *Inventing our selves: psychology, power, and personhood*, Nikolas Rose (1998) proposes that psychology is now employed as a technology that allows humans to buy into an invented and arguably false sense of self. In this way, Foucault's theories of self have been extensively developed by Rose to explore techniques of governance via self -formation...the self has to become an enterprising subject, acquiring cultural capital in order to gain employment', thus contributing to self -exploitation.

It is suggested by Kohut that for an individual to talk about, explain, understand or judge oneself is linguistically impossible, since it requires the self to understand its self. This is seen as philosophically invalid, being self - referential, or reification, also known as a circular argument.. Thus, if actions arise so that the self attempts self -explanation, confusion may well occur within linguistic mental pathways and processes.

As for the theorists of the self, 'Vaknin has his detractors. Some people have criticised him for recreating narcissism in his own image': - his "narcissistic self" is only his own self writ large. Winnicott too has his critics, suggesting that his theory of the way 'the False self is invented to manage a prematurely important object...enacts a kind of dissociated regard or recognition of the object' is itself rooted in 'his own childhood experience of trying to "make my living" by keeping his mother alive'.

Memory

One view of the self, following from John Locke, sees it as a product of episodic memory. It has been suggested that transitory mental constructions within episodic memory form a self - memory system that grounds the goals of the working self, but research upon those with amnesia find they have a coherent sense of self based upon preserved conceptual autobiographical knowledge, and semantic facts, and so conceptual knowledge rather than episodic memory.

Both episodic and semantic memory systems have been proposed to generate a sense of self identity: personal episodic memory enables the phenomenological continuity of identity, while personal semantic memory generates the narrative continuity of identity. "The nature of personal narratives depends on highly conceptual and 'story-like' information about one's life, which resides at the general event level of autobiographical memory and is thus unlikely to rely on more event-specific episodic systems."

Social psychology

Symbolic interactionism stresses the 'social construction of an individual's sense of self ' through two main methods: 'In part the self emerges through interaction with others....But the self is a product of social structure as well as of face-to-face interaction'.

Social psychology acknowledges that 'one of the most important life tasks each of us faces is understanding both who we are and how we feel about ourselves'. However, rather than absolute

knowledge, it would seem that 'a healthy sense of self calls for both accurate self -knowledge and protective self -enhancement, in just the right amounts at just the right times.'

Self as emergent phenomena

In dynamical social psychology as proposed by Nowak *et al.*, the self is rather an emergent property that emerges as experiential phenomena from the interaction of societies of psychological perceptions and experience. This is also hinted in dynamical evolutionary social psychology by Douglas Kenrick *et al.* where a set of decision rules generates complex behaviour.

Self – knowledge

Self-knowledge is a term used in psychology to describe the information that an individual draws upon when finding an answer to the question "*What am I like?*".

While seeking to develop the answer to this question, self-knowledge requires ongoing self-awareness and self-consciousness (which is not to be confused with consciousness.) Young infants and even animals will display some of the traits self-awareness and agency /contingency, yet not be considered as also having self-consciousness. At some greater level of cognition, however, a self-conscious component emerges in addition to an increased self-awareness component, and then it becomes possible to ask "*What am I like?*", and to answer with self-knowledge.

Self-knowledge is a component of the self, or more accurately, the self - concept. It is the knowledge of one's self and one's properties and the *desire* to seek such knowledge that guide the development of the self concept. Self-knowledge informs us of our mental representations of ourselves, which contain attributes that we uniquely pair with ourselves, and theories on whether these attributes are stable, or dynamic.

The self-concept is thought to have three primary aspects:

- The Cognitive Self
- The Affective Self
- The Executive Self

The affective and executive selves are also known as the *felt* and *active* selves respectively, as they refer to the emotional and behavioral components of the self-concept. Self-knowledge is linked

to the cognitive self in that its motives guide our search to gain greater clarity and assurance that our own self-concept is an accurate representation of our *true self*; for this reason the cognitive self is also referred to as the *known self*. The cognitive self is made up of everything we know (or *think we know* about ourselves). This implies physiological properties such as hair color, race, and height etc.; and psychological properties like beliefs, values, and dislikes to name but a few.

Self-Knowledge and its Relation with Memory

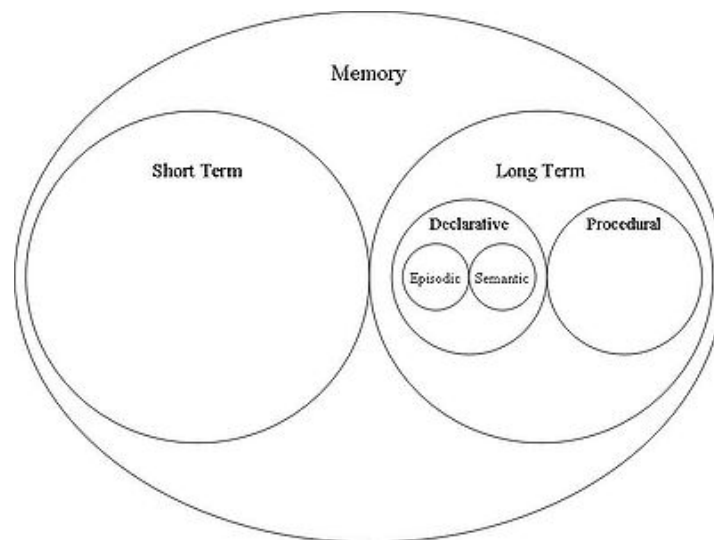
Self-knowledge and its structure affect how events we experience are encoded, how they are selectively retrieved / recalled, and what conclusions we draw from how we interpret the memory. The analytical interpretation of our own memory can also be called metamemory, and is an important factor of metacognition.

The connection between our memory and our self-knowledge has been recognized for many years by leading minds in both philosophy and psychology, yet the precise specification of the relation remains a point of controversy.

Is There a Specialized Memory for Self-Knowledge?

- Studies have shown there is a memory advantage for information encoded with reference to the self.
- Patients with Alzheimer's who have difficulty recognizing their own family have not shown evidence of self-knowledge.
- Self-Knowledge and the Division of Memory

Self-theories have traditionally failed to distinguish between different source that inform self-knowledge, these are episodic memory and semantic memory. Both episodic and semantic memory are facets of declarative memory, which contains memory of facts. Declarative memory is the explicit counterpart to procedural memory, which is implicit in that it applies to skills we have learnt; they are not *facts* that can be *stated*.



A basic schematic representation of memory showing the 'locations' of semantic and episodic memory.

Episodic Memory

Episodic Memory does not refer to concept-based knowledge stored about a specific experience like episodic memory. Instead it includes the memory of meanings, understandings, general knowledge about the world, and factual information etc. This makes semantic knowledge independent of context and personal information. Semantic memory enables an individual to know information, including information about their selves, without having to consciously recall the experiences that taught them such knowledge.

Semantic Memory

Semantic Memory is the autobiographical memory that individuals possess which contains events, associated emotions, and knowledge around a given context. This kind of declarative memory provides an individual with a personal narrative and a view of their selves as existing throughout a period of time.

Semantic Self as the Source of Self-Knowledge

People are able to maintain a sense of self that is supported by semantic knowledge of personal facts in the absence of direct access to the memories that describe the episodes on which the knowledge is based.

- Individuals have been shown to maintain a sense of self despite catastrophic impairments in episodic recollection. For example subject W.J., who suffered dense retrograde amnesia leaving her unable to recall any events that occurred prior to the development of amnesia. However, her memory for general facts about her life during the period of amnesia remained intact.
- This suggests that a separate type of knowledge contributes to the self-concept, as W.J.'s knowledge could not have come from her episodic memory
- A similar dissociation occurred in K.C. who suffered a total loss of episodic memory, but still knew a variety of facts about himself.
- Evidence also exists that shows how patients with severe amnesia can have accurate and detailed semantic knowledge of what they are like as a person, for example which particular personality traits and characteristics they possess.

This evidence for the dissociation between episodic and semantic self-knowledge has made several things clear:

1. Episodic memory is not the only drawing point for self-knowledge, contrary to long-held beliefs. Self-knowledge must therefore be expanded to include the semantic component of memory.
2. Self-knowledge about the traits one possesses can be accessed without the need for episodic retrieval. This is shown through study of individuals with neurological impairments that make it impossible to recollect trait-related experiences, yet who can still make reliable and accurate trait-ratings of themselves, and even revise these judgments based on new experiences they cannot even recall.

Motives that Guide our Search for Self-Knowledge

People have goals that lead them to seek, notice, and interpret information about themselves. These goals begin the quest for self-knowledge. There are three primary motives that lead us in the search for self-knowledge:

- Self-Enhancement

- Accuracy
- Consistency

Self-Enhancement

Self-enhancement refers to the fact that people seem motivated to experience positive emotional states and to avoid experiencing negative emotional states. People are motivated to feel good about them in order to maximize their feelings of self-worth, thus enhancing their self-esteem.

The emphasis on *feelings* differs slightly from how other theories have previously defined self-enhancement needs, for example the *Contingencies of Self-Worth Model*. Other theorists have taken the term to mean that people are motivated to *think* about themselves in highly favorable terms, rather than *feel* they are "good".

In many situations and cultures, feelings of self-worth are promoted by thinking of oneself as highly capable or *better* than one's peers. However in some situations and cultures, feelings of self-worth are promoted by thinking of oneself as *average* or even *worse* than others. In both cases, thoughts about the self still serve to enhance feelings of self-worth. The universal need is not a need to think about oneself in any specific way, rather a need to maximize one's feelings of self-worth. This is the meaning of the self enhancement motive with respect to self-knowledge.

Accuracy

Accuracy needs influence the way in which people search for self-knowledge. People frequently wish to know the truth about themselves without regard as to whether they learn something positive or negative. There are three considerations which underlie this need:

- Occasionally people simply want to reduce any uncertainty. They may want to know for the sheer intrinsic pleasure of knowing what they are truly like.
- Some people believe they have a moral *obligation* to know what they are really like. This view holds particularly strong in theology and philosophy, particularly existentialism.
- Knowing what one is really like can sometimes help an individual to achieve their goals. The basic fundamental goal to any living thing is survival, therefore accurate self knowledge can be adaptive to survival.

Accurate self-knowledge can also be instrumental in maximizing feelings of self-worth. Success is one of the number of things that make people feel good about themselves, and knowing what we are like can make successes more likely, so self-knowledge can again be adaptive. This is because self-enhancement needs can be met by knowing that one *can not* do something particularly well, thus protecting the person from pursuing a dead-end dream that is likely to end in failure.

Consistency

Many theorists believe that we have a motive to protect the self-concept (and thus our self-knowledge) from change. This motive to have consistency leads people to look for and welcome information that is consistent with what they believe to be true about themselves; likewise, they will avoid and reject information which presents inconsistencies with their beliefs. This phenomenon is also known as self-verification theory. Not everyone has been shown to pursue a self-consistency motive; but it has played an important role in various other influential theories, such as cognitive dissonance theory.

Self – Verification Theory

This theory was put forward by William Swann of the University of Texas at Austin in 1983 to put a name to the aforementioned phenomena. The theory states that once a person develops an idea about what they are like, they will strive to verify the accompanying self-views.

Two considerations are thought to drive the search for self-verifying feedback:

- We feel more comfortable and secure when we believe that others see us in the same way that we see ourselves. Actively seeking self-verifying feedback helps people avoid finding out that they are wrong about their self-views.
- Self-verification theory assumes that social interactions will proceed more smoothly and profitably when other people view us the same way as we view ourselves. This provides a second reason to selectively seek self-verifying feedback.

These factors of self-verification theory create controversy when persons suffering from low-self esteem are taken into consideration. People who hold negative self-views about themselves *selectively seek negative feedback* in order to verify their self-views. This is in stark contrast to self-enhancement motives that suggest a person is driven by the desire to feel good about themselves.

Sources of Self-Knowledge

There are three sources of information available to an individual through which to search for knowledge about the self:

- The Physical World
- The Social World
- The Psychological World

The Physical World

The physical world is generally a highly visible, and quite easily measurable source of information about one's self. Information one may be able to obtain from the physical world may include:

- Weight - By weighing oneself.
- Strength - By measuring how much one can lift.
- Height - By measuring oneself.

The Social World

The comparative nature of self-views means that people rely heavily on the social world when seeking information about their selves. Two particular processes are important:

- Social Comparison Theory
- *Reflected Appraisals*

Social Comparison Theory

People compare attributes with others and draw inferences about what they themselves are like. However, the conclusions a person ultimately draws depend on whom in particular they compare themselves with. The need for accurate self-knowledge was originally thought to guide the social comparison process, and researchers assumed that comparing with others who are similar to us in the *important* ways is more informative.

Complications of the Social Comparison Theory

People are also known to compare themselves with people who are slightly better off than they themselves are (known as an *upward comparison*); and with people who are slightly worse off or

disadvantaged (known as a *downward comparison*). There is also substantial evidence that the need for *accurate* self-knowledge is neither the only, nor most important factor that guides the social comparison process, the need to feel good about ourselves affects the social comparison process.

Reflected Appraisals

Reflected appraisals occur when a person observes how others respond to them. The process was first explained by the sociologist Charles H. Cooley in 1902 as part of his discussion of the "*looking-glass self*", which describes how we see ourselves reflected in other peoples' eyes. He argued that a person's feelings towards themselves are socially determined via a three-step process:

"A self-idea of this sort seems to have three principled elements: the imagination of our appearance to the other person; the imagination of his judgment of that appearance; and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification. The comparison with a looking-glass hardly suggests the second element, the imagined judgment which is quite essential. The thing that moves us to pride or shame is not the mere mechanical reflection of ourselves, but an imputed sentiment, the imagined effect of this reflection upon another's mind."

In simplified terms, Cooley's three stages are:

1. We imagine how we appear in the eyes of another person.
2. We then imagine how that person is evaluating us.
3. The imagined evaluation leads us to feel good or bad, in accordance with the judgement we have conjured.

Note that this model is of a phenomenological nature.

In 1963, John W. Kinch adapted Cooley's model to explain how a person's *thoughts* about themselves develop rather than their *feelings*.

Kinch's three stages were:

1. Actual Appraisals - What other people actually think of us.
2. Perceived Appraisals - Our perception of these appraisals.
3. Self-Appraisals - Our ideas about what we are like based on the perceived appraisals.

This model is also of a phenomenological approach.

Arguments against the Reflected Appraisal Models

Research has only revealed limited support for the models and various arguments raise their heads:

- People are not generally good at knowing what an individual thinks about them.
Felson believes this is due to communication barriers and imposed social norms which place limits on the information people receive from others. This is especially true when the feedback would be negative; people rarely give one-another negative feedback, so people rarely conclude that another person dislikes them or is evaluating them negatively.
- Despite being largely unaware of how one person in particular is evaluating them, people are better at knowing what other people *on the whole* think.

The reflected appraisal model assumes that *actual appraisals* determine *perceived appraisals*. Although this may in fact occur, the influence of a common third variable could also produce an association between the two.

The sequence of reflected appraisals may accurately characterize patterns in early childhood due to the large amount of feedback infants receive from their parents, yet it appears to be less relevant later in life. This is because people are not passive, as the model assumes. People *actively* and *selectively* process information from the social world. Once a person's ideas about themselves take shape, these also influence the manner in which new information is gathered and interpreted, and thus the cycle continues.

The Psychological World

The psychological world describes our "inner world". There are three processes that influence how people acquire knowledge about themselves:

- Introspection
- Self – Perception Processes
- Causal Attributions

Introspection

Introspection involves looking inwards and directly consulting our attitudes, feelings and thoughts for meaning. Consulting one's own thoughts and feelings can result in meaningful self-knowledge.

- A stranger's ratings about a participant are more correspondent to the participant's self-assessment ratings when the stranger has been subject to the participant's thoughts and feelings than when the stranger has been subject to the participant's behavior alone, or a combination of the two.

Arguments against Introspection

Whether introspection always fosters self-insight is not entirely clear. Thinking too much about why we feel the way we do about something can sometimes confuse us and undermine true self-knowledge. Participants in an introspection condition are less accurate when predicting their own future behavior than controls and are less satisfied with their choices and decisions.

Self – Perception Processes

Wilson's work is based on the assumption that people are not always aware of *why* they feel the way they do. Bem's self-perception theory makes a similar assumption. The theory is concerned with how people *explain* their behavior. It argues that people don't always *know* why they do what they do. When this occurs, they infer the causes of their behavior by analyzing their behavior in the context in which it occurred. Outside observers of the behavior would reach a similar conclusion as the individual performing it. The individuals then draw logical conclusions about why they behaved as they did.

"Individuals come to "know" their own attitudes, emotions, and other internal states partially by inferring them from observations of their own overt behavior and/or the circumstances in which this behavior occurs. Thus, to the extent that internal cues are weak, ambiguous, or uninterpretable, the individual is functionally in the same position as an outside observer, an observer who must necessarily rely upon those same external cues to infer the individual's inner states."

The theory has been applied to a wide range of phenomena. Under particular conditions, people have been shown to infer their attitudes, emotions, and motives, in the same manner described by the theory.

Similar to introspection, but with an important difference: with introspection we *directly examine* our attitudes, feelings and motives. With self-perception processes we *indirectly infer* our attitudes, feelings, and motives by *analyzing our behavior*

Casual Attributions

Causal attributions are an important source of self-knowledge, especially when people make attributions for positive and negative events. The key elements in self-perception theory are explanations people give for their actions, these explanations are known as causal attributions.

Causal attributions provide answers to "Why?" questions by attributing a person's behavior (including our own) to a cause.

People also gain self-knowledge by making attributions for *other people's* behavior; for example "If nobody wants to spend time with me it must be because I'm boring".

Activation of Self-Knowledge

Individuals think of themselves in many different ways, yet only some of these ideas are active at any one given time. The idea that is specifically active at a given time is known as the Current Self-Representation. Other theorists have referred to the same thing in several different ways:

- The Phenomenal Self
- Spontaneous Self-Concept
- Self-Identifications
- Aspects of the Working Self-Concept

The current self-representation influences information processing, emotion, and behavior and is influenced by both *personal* and *situational* factors.

Personal Factors that Influence Current Self-Representation

Self – Concept

Self-Concept, or how people usually think of themselves is the most important personal factor that influences current self-representation. This is especially true for attributes that are important and self-defining.

Self-concept is also known as the self-schema, made of innumerable smaller self-schemas that are "chronically accessible"

Self-Esteem

Self-Esteem affects the way people think about themselves. People with high self-esteem are more likely to be thinking of themselves in positive terms at a given time than people suffering low self-esteem.

Mood State

Mood state influences the accessibility of positive and negative self-views. When we are happy we tend to think more about our positive qualities and attributes, whereas when we are sad our negative qualities and attributes become more accessible. This link is particularly strong for people suffering low self-esteem.

Goals

People can deliberately activate particular self-views. We select appropriate images of ourselves depending on what role we wish to play in a given situation. One particular goal that influences activation of self-views is the desire to feel good.

Physical Factors

Chemical imbalances in the brain can trigger positive and negative thoughts about oneself. Other physiological factors such as hunger, lack of sleep, and hormonal changes can also alter the way people think about themselves.

Certain drugs such as Lithium and Fluoxetine (Prozac) can have a similar effect.

- Some of the effect will be mediated through mood.
- Some of the effect will be direct, from the chemicals in the drugs.

Situational Factors that Influence Current Self-Representation

Social Roles

How a person thinks of themselves depends largely on the social role they are playing. Social roles influence our personal identities.

Social Context and Self-Description

People tend to think of themselves in ways that distinguish them from their social surroundings.

- The more distinctive the attribute, the more likely it will be used to describe oneself. Distinctiveness also influences the salience of group identities. Self-categorization theory proposes that whether people are thinking about themselves in terms of either their social groups or various personal identities depends partly on the social context.
- Group identities are more salient in the intergroup contexts.

Group Size

The size of the group affects the salience of group-identities. Minority groups are more distinctive, so group identity should be more salient among minority group members than majority group members.

Group Status

Group status interacts with group size to affect the salience of social identities.

Social Context and Self-Evaluation

The social environment has an influence on the way people evaluate themselves as a result of social-comparison processes.

The Contrast Effect

People regard themselves as at the opposite end of the spectrum of a given trait to the people in their company. However, this effect has come under criticism as to whether it is a primary effect as it seems to share space with the *Assimilation Effect*.

The assimilation effect states that people evaluate themselves more positively when they are in the company of others who are exemplary on some dimension.

Whether the assimilation or contrast effect prevails depends on the psychological closeness, with people feeling psychologically disconnected with their social surroundings being more likely to show contrast effects. Assimilation effects occur when the subject feels psychologically connected to their social surroundings.

Significant Others and Self-Evaluations

Imagining how one appears to others has an effect on how one thinks about oneself.

Recent Events

Recent events can cue particular views of the self, either as a direct result of failure, or via mood.

The extent of the effect depends on personal variables. For example people with high self-esteem do not show this effect, and sometimes do the opposite.

Memory for prior events influence how people think about themselves.

Fazio et al. found that selective memory for prior events can temporarily activate self-representations which, once activated, guide our behavior.

Deficiencies

Specific Types

Misperceiving

Deficiency in knowledge of the *present self*. Giving reasons but not feelings disrupts self-insight.

Misremembering

Deficiency of knowledge of the *past self*. Knowledge from the present *overinforms* the knowledge of the past. False theories shape autobiographical memory.

Misprediction

Deficiency of knowledge of the *future self*. Knowledge of the present *overinforms* predictions of future knowledge. Affective forecasting can be affected by durability bias..

Miswanting

Self-awareness

Self-awareness is the capacity for introspection and the ability to reconcile oneself as an individual separate from the environment and other individuals. Self-awareness, though similar to sentience in concept, includes the experience of the self, and has been argued as implicit to the hard problem of consciousness.

The basis of personal identity

A philosophical view

"I think, therefore I exist, as a thing that thinks."

"...And as I observed that this truth 'I think, therefore I am' (Cogito ergo sum) was so certain and of such evidence ...I concluded that I might, without scruple, accept it as the first principle of the Philosophy I was in search."

"...In the statement 'I think, therefore I am' ... I see very clearly that to think it is necessary to be, I concluded that I might take, as a general rule, the principle, that all the things which we very clearly and distinctly conceive are true..."

While reading Descartes, Locke began to relish the great ideas of philosophy and the scientific method. On one occasion, while in a meeting with friends, the question of the "limits of human understanding" arose. He spent almost twenty years of his life on the subject until the publication of *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, a great chapter in the History of Philosophy.

According to Locke, personal identity (the self) "depends on consciousness, not on substance" nor on the soul. We are the same person to the extent that we are conscious of our past

and future thoughts and actions in the same way as we are conscious of our present thoughts and actions. If consciousness is this "thought" which doubles all thoughts, then personal identity is only founded on the repeated act of consciousness: "This may show us wherein personal identity consists: not in the identity of substance, but ... in the identity of consciousness". For example, one may claim to be a reincarnation of Plato, therefore having the same soul. However, one would be the same person as Plato only if one had the same consciousness of Plato's thoughts and actions that he himself did. Therefore, self-identity is not based on the soul. One soul may have various personalities.

Self-identity is not founded either on the body or the substance, argues Locke, as the substance may change while the person remains the same: "animal identity is preserved in identity of life, and not of substance", as the body of the animal grows and changes during its life. Take for example a prince's soul which enters the body of a cobbler: to all exterior eyes, the cobbler would remain a cobbler. But to the prince himself, the cobbler would be himself, as he would be conscious of the prince's thoughts and acts, and not of the cobbler's life. A prince's consciousness in a cobbler body: thus the cobbler is, in fact, a prince. But this interesting border-case leads to this problematic thought that since personal identity is based on consciousness, and that only oneself can be aware of his consciousness, exterior human judges may never know if they really are judging—and punishing—the same person, or simply the same body. In other words, Locke argues that you may be judged only for the acts of your body, as this is what is apparent to all but God; however, you are in truth only responsible for the acts for which you are conscious. This forms the basis of the insanity defense: one can't be held accountable for acts in which one was unconsciously irrational, mentally ill—and therefore leads to interesting philosophical questions:

"Personal identity consists [not in the identity of substance] but in the identity of consciousness, wherein if Socrates and the present mayor of Queenborough agree, they are the same person: if the same Socrates waking and sleeping do not partake of the same consciousness, Socrates waking and sleeping is not the same person. And to punish Socrates waking for what sleeping Socrates thought, and waking Socrates was never conscious of, would be no more right, than to punish one twin for what his brother-twin did, whereof he knew nothing, because their outsides were so like, that they could not be distinguished; for such twins have been seen."

Or again:

"PERSON, as I take it, is the name for this self. Wherever a man finds what he calls himself, there, I think, another may say is the same person. It is a forensic term, appropriating actions and their merit; and so belong only to intelligent agents, capable of a law, and happiness, and misery. This personality extends itself beyond present existence to what is past, only by consciousness, -- whereby it becomes concerned and accountable; owns and imputes to itself past actions, just upon the same ground and for the same reason as it does the present. All which is founded in a concern for happiness, the unavoidable concomitant of consciousness; that which is conscious of pleasure and pain, desiring that that self that is conscious should be happy. And therefore whatever past actions it cannot reconcile or APPROPRIATE to that present self by consciousness, it can be no more concerned in it than if they had never been done: and to receive pleasure or pain, i.e. reward or punishment, on the account of any such action, is all one as to be made happy or miserable in its first being, without any demerit at all. For, supposing a MAN punished now for what he had done in another life, whereof he could be made to have no consciousness at all, what difference is there between that punishment and being CREATED miserable? And therefore, conformable to this, the apostle tells us, that, at the great day, when everyone shall 'receive according to his doings, the secrets of all hearts shall be laid open.' The sentence shall be justified by the consciousness all person shall have, that THEY THEMSELVES, in what bodies soever they appear, or what substances soever that consciousness adheres to, are the SAME that committed those actions, and deserve that punishment for them."

Henceforth, Locke's conception of personal identity found it not on the substance or the body, but in the "same continued consciousness", which is also distinct from the soul. He creates a third term between the soul and the body—and Locke's thought may certainly be meditated by those who, following a scientist ideology, would identify too quickly the brain to consciousness. For the brain, as the body and as any substance, may change, while consciousness remains the same. Therefore personal identity is not in the brain, but in consciousness. However, Locke's theory also reveals his debt to theology and to Apocalyptic "great day", which by advance excuse any failings of human justice and therefore humanity's miserable state.

A modern scientific view

Self-Awareness Theory

Self-Awareness Theory states that when we focus our attention on ourselves, we evaluate and compare our current behavior to our internal standards and values. We become self-conscious as objective evaluators of ourselves. However self-awareness is not to be confused with self-consciousness. Various emotional states are intensified by self-awareness. However, some people may seek to increase their self-awareness through these outlets. People are more likely to align their behavior with their standards when made self-aware. People will be negatively affected if they don't live up to their personal standards. Various environmental cues and situations induce awareness of the self, such as mirrors, an audience, or being videotaped or recorded. These cues also increase accuracy of personal memory. In Demetriou's theory, one of the neo-Piagetian theories of cognitive development, self-awareness develops systematically from birth through the life span and it is a major factor for the development of general inferential processes. Moreover, a series of recent studies showed that self-awareness about cognitive processes participates in general intelligence on a par with processing efficiency functions, such as working memory, processing speed and reasoning.

In theater

Theater also concerns itself with other awareness besides self-awareness. There is a possible correlation between the experience of the theater audience and individual self-awareness. As actors and audiences must not "break" the fourth wall in order to maintain context, so individuals must not be aware of the artificial, or the constructed perception of his or her reality. This suggests that self-awareness is an artificial continuum just as theater is.

In animals

Thus far, there is evidence that bottlenose dolphins, some apes and elephants may have the capacity to be self-aware. Recent studies from the Goethe University Frankfurt show that magpies may also possess self-awareness. Common speculation suggests that some other animals may be self-aware.

In science fiction

In science fiction, self-awareness describes an essential human property that bestows "personhood" onto a non-human. If a computer, alien or other object is described as "self-aware", the reader may assume that it will be treated as a completely human character, with similar rights, capabilities and desires to a normal human being. A computer that is self-aware has the ability to think for itself, rather than thinking what is predetermined by its code. The words "sentience", "sapience" and "consciousness" are used in similar ways in science fiction.

In psychology

In psychology, the concept of "self-awareness" is used in different ways:

- As a form of intelligence, self-awareness can be an understanding of one's own knowledge, attitudes, and opinions. Alfred Binet's first attempts to create an intelligence test included items for "auto-critique" – a critical understanding of oneself. Surprisingly we do not have a privileged access to our own opinions and knowledge directly. For instance, if we try to enumerate all the members of any conceptual category we know, our production falls much short of our recognition of members of that category.
- Albert Bandura has created a category called self-efficacy that builds on our varying degrees of self-awareness.

Our general inaccuracy about our own abilities, knowledge, and opinions has created many popular phenomena for research such as the better than average effect. For instance, 90% of drivers may believe that they are "better than average" (Swenson, 1981) Their inaccuracy comes from the absence of a clear definable measure of driving ability and their own limited self-awareness; and this of course underlines the importance of objective standards to inform our subjective self-awareness in all domains. Inaccuracy in our opinion seems particularly disturbing, for what is more personal than opinions. Yet, inconsistency in our opinion is as strong as in our knowledge of facts. For instance, people who call themselves opposite extremes in political views often hold not just overlapping political views, but views that are central to the opposite extreme. Reconciling such differences proves difficult and gave rise to Leon Festinger's theory of Cognitive Dissonance.

Part A (ONE Mark)

Multiple Choice Questions

Online Examination

Part B (2 Marks)

1. What do you understand about “Self”?
2. How to know about the “Self”?
3. What are the factors that influence “Self-effectiveness”?
4. What is meant by “Self-awareness”?
5. Write a note on “Self-Monitoring”
6. What do you mean by perception?
7. Write a note on self knowledge?
8. What are the components of self?

Part C (8 Marks)

1. What is self –monitoring? What is its significance in understanding the self?
2. Discuss the significance of self focusing
3. “Self-monitoring is a negative, undesirable, unwanted, irrelevant characteristic”. Do you agree with the statement? Why or why not?
4. How “Self-esteem” will get affected? Explain
5. Discuss the ways to improve “Self-Esteem”
6. Explain Self Monitoring. Differentiate between low self monitors and high self monitors.
7. What is impression management? What types of people are most likely to engage in Impression management?
8. Explain Self Schema.
9. What do you mean by Self awareness? How will you enhance your Self awareness?

Part –A

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
William James distinguished “Self Known” into ----- types	3	2	4	5	2
The distinction of self as “me” and “I” was by-----	William James	Gordon	Turner	Gerzen	William James
Me is an object of -----	Inner feeling	Value	Experience	Hereditary	Experience
-----made the respondents to answer the question who am I	William James	Gordon	Turner	Gerzen	Gordon
Human being are personified as having not oneself but-----	Double selves	Multiple Selves	Only one self	No one	Multiple Selves
The Self one presents to the external world is -----	Dynamic	Static	Reality	Revenge	Dynamic
The distinction between self image and self concept was made by-----	William James	Gordon	Turner	Gerzen	Turner
The self image may --- ----- in a short time	change frequently	be steady	face competition	No reaction	change frequently
One can have ----- --- self images at the same time	only one	only two	several	only three	several
----- advocates the theory of Multiple selves.	William James	Gordon	Turner	Gerzen	Gerzen
----- can change according to the situation in which it is operating.	Self	Competition	Perception	Friends	Self
Self concept emerges from -----	one’s interaction with other people	situation	other judgement	No judgement	one’s interaction with other people
-----is the reflection of how one believes and other	situation	others judgement	self concept	No judgement	self concept

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
people perceive the self					
Organised collection of belief and feelings about oneself is called- -----	Situation	others judgement	self concept	No judgement	self concept
----- takes place through all five organs.	Stimuli	action	reaction	Reality	Stimuli
_____ is the inner core of identity, including the person's goal, ambitions and belief	material self	spiritual self	personal self	outer self	spiritual self
The understanding of "what one is" is _____	self monitoring	self esteem	self reality	self concept	self concept
The self can change according to the _____	place	situation	people	Friends	situation
The life space of an adult and a child are -- -----	different	same	static	dynamic	different
Unresolved problems do cause----- ---	Happiness	Unhappiness	Pride	Revenge	Unhappiness
-----makes managers to solve bigger and bigger problems	Promotions	Happiness	salary	Revenge	Promotions
Organizational problems are also considered to be -----	Job dissatisfaction	People problems	Organizational loss	Delayed Productivity	People problems
There are _____ main elements of looking glass self	4	3	2	5	3
People develop their own self concept only after they become aware of being the object of other people's	work	costumes	activities	perceptions	perceptions
A scheme is a set of _____	information	activities	topics	evaluations	information

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
_____ is theory built	self monitoring	social inferences	self concept	self knowledge	self concept
There are _____ categories of social schemas	4	2	5	3	3
One such way to gain self knowledge is through _____	information	feedback	evaluation	work done	information
The process of self can be understood by _____	schemas	esteem	monitor	situations	schemas
Self perception theory requires us to make fewer _____	degrees	monitoring others	feedback	assumptions	assumptions
Schemas for other individuals include a variety of types of _____	information	activities	topics	evaluations	information
_____ - in its simplest sense is to present ourselves to others.	self esteems	self motivation	self presentation	self monitoring	self presentation
Self concept emerges from _____	one's interaction with other people	situation	other judgement	friends	one's interaction with other people
_____ is the reflection of how one believes and other people perceive the self	situation	others judgement	self concept	friends	self concept
Jones and Pittman identified _____ major types of strategies	five	six	four	three	five
_____ is the techniques of offering others information that will make us look competent or skilled	exemplification	self promotion	supplication	ingratiation	self promotion
The style of developing options and then gets the client to select the one he favours is called-----	Telling	Advising	manipulating	Counselling	Advising

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
The process which is client oriented but excludes the client from problem solving is called-----	Telling	Advising	manipulating	Counselling	manipulating
The self image may --- ----- in a short time	change frequently	be steady	face competition	Evaluate others	change frequently
One can have ----- --- self images at the same time	only one	only two	several	only three	several
Human being are personified as having not oneself but-----	Double selves	Multiple Selves	Only one self	No one	Multiple Selves
_____ explain that people learn about their own attitudes.	self perception theory	self evaluation theory	self monitoring	self esteem	self perception theory
----- can change according to the situation in which it is operating.	Self	Competition	Perception	Friends	Self
Self concept emerges from -----	one's interaction with other people	situation	other judgement	No judgement	one's interaction with other people
-----is the reflection of how one believes and other people perceive the self	situation	others judgement	self concept	No judgement	self concept
Organised collection of belief and feelings about oneself is called-----	Situation	Wheel communication network	self concept	No judgement	self concept
Schemas for other individuals include a variety of types of	information	activities	topics	evaluations	information
_____ - in its simplest sense is to present ourselves to others.	self esteems	self motivation	self presentation	self monitoring	self presentation
Self concept emerges from ----- -----	one's interaction with other people	situation	other judgement	friends	one's interaction with other people

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
-----is the reflection of how one believes and other people perceive the self	situation	others judgement	self concept	friends	self concept
The perspective that Self Concept is one's ability to take role of others to see oneself as others see him was made by _____	William James	Mead	Turner	Gerzen	Mead
Who did the experiment among students to find that awareness develops quite early	McGuire	Mead	Turner	Gerzen	McGuire
The influence of Self Schemas on social inferences and judgement was explained as scheme by _____	McGuire	Mead	Marcus	Gerzen	Marcus
Traits such as Aggressive, Energetic, Socially skilled and interested in money are possessed by _____	Craftsman	Agriculturist	Business men	Housewife	Business men
Self Concept is _____	Fixed	Flexible	Fluctautive	Financial	Flexible
_____ advocated the Self Perception Theory	McGuire	Bem	Marcus	Gerzen	Bem
A Child who is loved and wanted will be labeled by parents as _____	Intelligent	harmful	disabled	disgusting	Intelligent
Negative labels are applied primarily to members of _____	Lowest class	Middle class	Upper class	Working class	Lowe Class
Low Self Monitors shall have _____ degree of consistency	Low	Medium	High	Never	High
High Self Monitoring Women are more _____	beautiful	depressive	expressive	submissiv e	expressive

UNIT-II – COMMUNICATION

SYLLABUS

Communication and language – Models - Oral – Qualities and Profile of Good Speakers - Written – Clarity, Responsibility, Simplicity, Style – Barriers - Ways of overcoming –Paralanguage, Eye contact, Facial Expression, Kinesics, Body Language, Deception.

Communication is the activity of conveying information. Communication has been derived from the Latin word "communis", meaning to share. Communication requires a sender, a message and an intended recipient, although the receiver need not be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of Communication, thus Communication can occur across vast distances in time and space. Communication requires that the communicating parties share an area of communicative commonality. The Communication process is complete once the receiver has understood the message of the sender. Feedback is critical to effective Communication between parties.

Human Communication

Human spoken and picture languages can be described as a system of symbols (sometimes known as lexemes) and the grammar(rules) by which the symbols are manipulated. The word "language" also refers to common properties of languages. Language learning normally occurs most intensively during human childhood. Most of the thousands of human languages use patterns of sound or gesture or symbols which enable Communication with others around them. Languages seem to share certain properties although many of these include exceptions. There is no defined line between a language and a dialect. Constructed languages such as Esperanto, programming languages, and various mathematical formalisms are not necessarily restricted to the properties shared by human languages.

A variety of verbal and non-verbal means of communicating exists such as body, eye contact, sign language, paralanguage, haptic Communication, chronemics, and media such as pictures, graphics, sound, and writing.

Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal Communication describes the process of conveying meaning in the form of non-word messages. Research shows that the majority of our Communication is non verbal, also known as body language. Some of non verbal Communication includes chronemics, haptics, gesture, body language or posture; facial expression and eye contact, object Communication such as clothing, hairstyles, architecture, symbols infographics, and tone of voice as well as through an aggregate of the above.

Speech also contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage. These include voice lesson quality, emotion and speaking style as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation and stress. Likewise, written texts include nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words and the use of emoticons to convey emotional expressions in pictorial form.

Oral Communication

Oral Communication, while primarily referring to spoken verbal Communication, can also employ visual aids and non-verbal elements to support the conveyance of meaning. Oral Communication includes speeches, presentations, discussions, and aspects of interpersonal Communication. As a type of face-to-face Communication, body language and voice tonality play a significant role, and may have a greater impact upon the listener than informational content. This type of Communication also garners immediate feedback.

Written Communication and its historical development

Over time the forms of and ideas about Communication have evolved through progression of technology. Advances include communications psychology and media psychology; an emerging field of study. Researchers divide the progression of written Communication into three revolutionary stages called "Information Communication Revolutions".

During the first stage, written Communication first emerged through the use of pictographs. The pictograms were made in stone, hence written Communication was not yet mobile.

During the second stage, writing began to appear on paper, papyrus, clay, wax, etc. Common alphabets were introduced and allowed for the uniformity of language across large distances. A leap in technology occurred when the Gutenberg printing-press was invented in the 15th century.

The third stage is characterized by the transfer of information through controlled waves and electronic signals.

Communication is thus a process by which meaning is assigned and conveyed in an attempt to create shared understanding. This process, which requires a vast repertoire of skills in interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, gestures, and evaluating enables collaboration and cooperation.

Misunderstandings can be anticipated and solved through formulations, questions and answers, paraphrasing, examples, and stories of strategic talk. Written Communication can be clear by planning follow-up talk on critical written Communication as part of the normal way of doing business. Minutes spent talking now will save time later having to clear up misunderstandings later on. Then, take what was heard and reiterate in your own words, and ask them if that's what they meant.

Barriers to effective Human Communication

Communication is the key factor in the success of any organization. When it comes to effective Communication, there are certain barriers that every organization faces. People often feel that Communication is as easy and simple as it sounds. No doubt, but what makes it complex, difficult and frustrating are the barriers that come in its way. Some of these barriers are mentioned below.

Barriers to successful Communication include *message overload* (when a person receives too many messages at the same time), and *message complexity*.

Physical barriers: Physical barriers are often due to the nature of the environment. Thus, for example, the natural barrier which exists, if staff are located in different buildings or on different sites. Likewise, poor or outdated equipment, particularly the failure of management to introduce new technology, may also cause problems. Staff shortages are another factor which frequently causes Communication difficulties for an organization. Whilst distractions like background noise, poor

lighting or an environment which is too hot or cold can all affect people's morale and concentration, which in turn interfere with effective Communication.

System design: System design faults refer to problems with the structures or systems in place in an organization. Examples might include an organizational structure which is unclear and therefore makes it confusing to know who to communicate with. Other examples could be inefficient or inappropriate information systems, a lack of supervision or training, and a lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities which can lead to staff being uncertain about what is expected of them.

Attitudinal barriers: Attitudinal barriers come about as a result of problems with staff in an organization. These may be brought about, for example, by such factors as poor management, lack of consultation with employees, personality conflicts which can result in people delaying or refusing to communicate, the personal attitudes of individual employees which may be due to lack of motivation or dissatisfaction at work, brought about by insufficient training to enable them to carry out particular tasks, or just resistance to change due to entrenched attitudes and ideas.

Ambiguity of Words/Phrases: Words sounding the same but having different meaning can convey a different meaning altogether. Hence the communicator must ensure that the receiver receives the same meaning. It would be better if such words can be avoided by using alternatives.

Individual linguistic ability is also important. The use of difficult or inappropriate words in Communication can prevent people from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion. We can all think of situations where we have listened to something explained which we just could not grasp. Interestingly, however, research in Communication has shown that confusion can lend legitimacy to research when persuasion fails.

Physiological barriers: may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused—for example—by ill health, poor eye sight or hearing difficulties.

Presentation of information: is also important to aid understanding. Simply put, the communicator must consider the audience before making the presentation itself and in cases where it is not possible the presenter can at least try to simplify his/her vocabulary so that majority can understand.

NON-Human Communication

Every information exchange between living organisms — i.e. transmission of signals that involve a living sender and receiver can be considered a form of Communication; and even primitive creatures such as corals are competent to communicate. Nonhuman Communication also include cell signaling, cellular Communication, and chemical transmissions between primitive organisms like bacteria and within the plant and fungal kingdoms.

Animal Communication

The broad field of animal Communication encompasses most of the issues in ethology. Animal Communication can be defined as any behavior of one animal that affects the current or future behavior of another animal. The study of animal Communication, called *zoosemiotics*' (distinguishable from anthroposemiotics, the study of human Communication) has played an important part in the development of ethology, sociobiology, and the study of animal cognition. Animal Communication, and indeed the understanding of the animal world in general, is a rapidly growing field, and even in the 21st century so far, many prior understandings related to diverse fields such as personal symbolic name use, animal emotions, animal culture and learning, and even sexual conduct, long thought to be well understood, have been revolutionized.

Plants and fungi

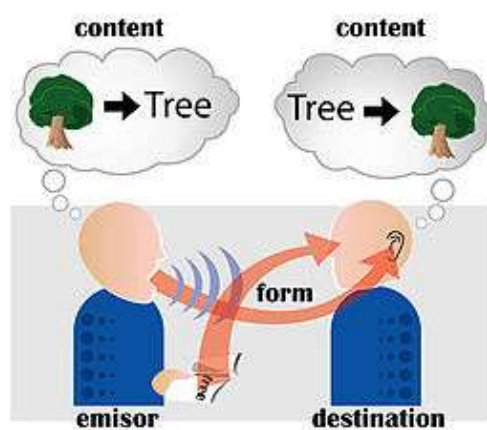
Communication is observed within the plant organism, i.e. within plant cells and between plant cells, between plants of the same or related species, and between plants and non-plant organisms, especially in the root zone. Plant roots communicate in parallel with rhizome bacteria, with fungi and with insects in the soil. These parallel sign-mediated interactions are governed by syntactic, pragmatic, and semantic rules, and are possible because of the decentralized "nervous system" of plants. The original meaning of the word "neuron" in Greek is "vegetable fiber" and recent research has shown that most of the intraorganismic plant Communication processes are neuronal-like. Plants also communicate via volatiles when exposed to herbivory attack behavior thus warning neighboring plants. In parallel they produce other volatiles to attract parasites which attack these herbivores. In stress situations plants can overwrite the genomes they inherited from their parents and revert to that of their grand- or great-grandparents.

Fungi communicate to coordinate and organize their growth and development such as the formation of mycelia and fruiting bodies. Fungi communicate with same and related species as well

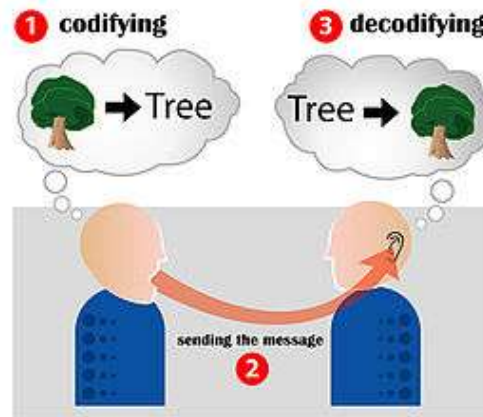
as with nonfungal organisms in a great variety of symbiotic interactions, especially with bacteria, unicellular eukaryotes, plants and insects through semiochemicals of biotic origin. The semiochemicals trigger the fungal organism to react in a specific manner, while if the same chemical molecules are not part of biotic messages, they do not trigger the fungal organism to react. This implies that fungal organisms can differ between molecules taking part in biotic messages and similar molecules being irrelevant in the situation. So far five different primary signalling molecules are known to coordinate different behavioral patterns such as filamentation, mating, growth, and pathogenicity. Behavioral coordination and production of signalling substances is achieved through interpretation processes that enables the organism to differ between self or non-self, abiotic indicator, biotic message from similar, related, or non-related species, and even filter out "noise", i.e. similar molecules without biotic content.

Bacteria quorum sensing

Communication is not a tool used only by humans, plants and animals, but it is also used by microorganisms like bacteria. The process is called quorum sensing. Through quorum sensing, bacteria are able to sense the density of cells, and regulate gene expression accordingly. This can be seen in both gram positive and gram negative bacteria. This was first observed by Fuqua *et al.* in marine microorganisms like *V.harveyi* and *V.fischeri*.



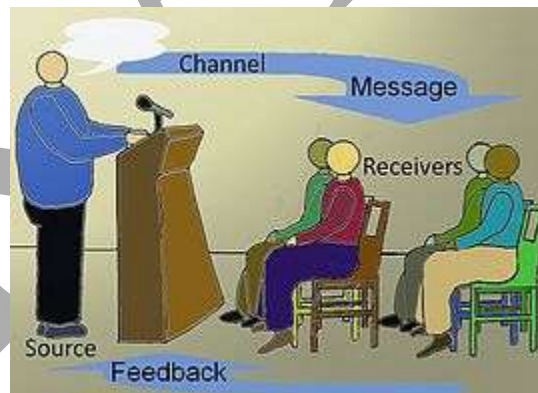
Communication major dimensions scheme



Communication code scheme



Berlo's Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver Model of Communication



Transactional Model of Communication

The first major model for Communication came in 1949 by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver for Bell Laboratories. The original model was designed to mirror the functioning of radio

and telephone technologies. Their initial model consisted of three primary parts: sender, channel, and receiver. The sender was the part of a telephone a person spoke into, the channel was the telephone itself, and the receiver was the part of the phone where one could hear the other person. Shannon and Weaver also recognized that often there is static that interferes with one listening to a telephone conversation, which they deemed noise.

In a simple model, often referred to as the transmission model or standard view of Communication, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emitter/ sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. This common conception of Communication simply views Communication as a means of sending and receiving information. The strengths of this model are simplicity, generality, and quantifiability. Social scientists Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver structured this model based on the following elements:

1. An information source, which produces a message.
2. A transmitter, which encodes the message into signals
3. A channel, to which signals are adapted for transmission
4. A receiver, which 'decodes' (reconstructs) the message from the signal.
5. A destination, where the message arrives.

Shannon and Weaver argued that there were three levels of problems for Communication within this theory.

The technical problem: how accurately can the message be transmitted?

The semantic problem: how precisely is the meaning 'conveyed'?

The effectiveness problem: how effectively does the received meaning affect behavior?

Daniel Chandler critiques the transmission model by stating:

It assumes communicators are isolated individuals.

No allowance for differing purposes.

No allowance for differing interpretations.

No allowance for unequal power relations.

No allowance for situational contexts.

In 1960, David Berlo expanded on Shannon and Weaver's (1949) linear model of Communication and created the SMCR Model of Communication. The Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver Model of Communication separated the model into clear parts and has been expanded upon by other scholars.

Communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Message (what type of things are communicated), source / emitter / sender / encoder (by whom), form (in which form), channel (through which medium), destination / receiver / target / decoder (to whom), and Receiver. Wilbur Schram (1954) also indicated that we should also examine the impact that a message has (both desired and undesired) on the target of the message. Between parties, Communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of Communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. Together, Communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:

1. Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
2. Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users) and
3. Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent).

Therefore, Communication is social interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules. This commonly held rule in some sense ignores autocommunication, including intrapersonal Communication via diaries or self-talk, both secondary phenomena that followed the primary acquisition of communicative competences within social interactions.

In light of these weaknesses, Barnlund (2008) proposed a transactional model of Communication. The basic premise of the transactional model of Communication is that individuals are simultaneously engaging in the sending and receiving of messages.

In a slightly more complex form a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. This second attitude of Communication, referred to as the constitutive model or constructionist view, focuses on how an individual communicates as the determining factor of the way the message will be

interpreted. Communication is viewed as a conduit; a passage in which information travels from one individual to another and this information becomes separate from the Communication itself. A particular instance of Communication is called a speech act. The sender's personal filters and the receiver's personal filters may vary depending upon different regional traditions, cultures, or gender; which may alter the intended meaning of message contents. In the presence of "Communication noise" on the transmission channel (air, in this case), reception and decoding of content may be faulty, and thus the speech act may not achieve the desired effect. One problem with this encode-transmit-receive-decode model is that the processes of encoding and decoding imply that the sender and receiver each possess something that functions as a codebook, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not identical. Although something like code books is implied by the model, they are nowhere represented in the model, which creates many conceptual difficulties.

Theories of coregulation describe Communication as a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Canadian media scholar Harold Innis had the theory that people use different types of media to communicate and which one they choose to use will offer different possibilities for the shape and durability of society (Wark, McKenzie 1997). His famous example of this is using ancient Egypt and looking at the ways they built themselves out of media with very different properties stone and papyrus. Papyrus is what he called '**Space Binding**', it made possible the transmission of written orders across space, empires and enables the waging of distant military campaigns and colonial administration. The other is stone and '**Time Binding**', through the construction of temples and the pyramids can sustain their authority generation to generation, through this media they can change and shape Communication in their society.

Bernard Luskin, UCLA, 1970, advanced computer assisted instruction and began to connect media and psychology into what is now the field of media psychology. In 1998, the American Association of Psychology, Media Psychology Division 46 Task Force report on psychology and new technologies combined media and Communication as pictures, graphics and sound increasingly dominate modern Communication

Communication noise

In any Communication model, noise is interference with the decoding of messages sent over a channel by an encoder. There are many examples of noise:

Environmental Noise: Noise that physically disrupts Communication, such as standing next to loud speakers at a party, or the noise from a construction site next to a classroom making it difficult to hear the professor.

Physiological-Impairment Noise: Physical maladies that prevent effective Communication, such as actual deafness or blindness preventing messages from being received as they were intended.

Semantic Noise: Different interpretations of the meanings of certain words. For example, the word "weed" can be interpreted as an undesirable plant in your yard, or as a euphemism for marijuana.

Syntactical Noise: Mistakes in grammar can disrupt Communication, such as abrupt changes in verb tense during a sentence.

Organizational Noise: Poorly structured Communication can prevent the receiver from accurate interpretation. For example, unclear and badly stated directions can make the receiver even more lost.

Cultural Noise: Stereotypical assumptions can cause misunderstandings, such as unintentionally offending a non-Christian person by wishing them a "Merry Christmas".

Psychological Noise: Certain attitudes can also make Communication difficult. For instance, great anger or sadness may cause someone to lose focus on the present moment. Disorders such as Autism may also severely hamper effective Communication.

Overcoming Communication Barriers

There are lot of Communication barriers faced these days by all. The message intended by the sender is not understood by the receiver in the same terms and sense and thus Communication breakdown occurs. It is essential to deal and cope up with these Communication barriers so as to ensure smooth and effective Communication.

1. **Eliminating differences in perception:** The organization should ensure that it is recruiting right individuals on the job. It's the responsibility of the interviewer to ensure that the interviewee has command over the written and spoken language. There should be proper Induction program so that the policies of the company are clear to all the employees. There should be proper trainings conducted for required employees (for eg: Voice and Accent training).

2. **Use of Simple Language:** Use of simple and clear words should be emphasized. Use of ambiguous words and jargons should be avoided.
3. **Reduction and elimination of noise levels:** Noise is the main Communication barrier which must be overcome on priority basis. It is essential to identify the source of noise and then eliminate that source.
4. **Active Listening:** Listen attentively and carefully. There is a difference between “listening” and “hearing”. Active listening means hearing with proper understanding of the message that is heard. By asking questions the speaker can ensure whether his/her message is understood or not by the receiver in the same terms as intended by the speaker.
5. **Emotional State:** During Communication one should make effective use of body language. He/she should not show their emotions while Communication as the receiver might misinterpret the message being delivered. For example, if the conveyer of the message is in a bad mood then the receiver might think that the information being delivered is not good.
6. **Simple Organizational Structure:** The organizational structure should not be complex. The number of hierarchical levels should be optimum. There should be an ideal span of control within the organization. Simpler the organizational structure, more effective will be the Communication.
7. **Avoid Information Overload:** The managers should know how to prioritize their work. They should not overload themselves with the work. They should spend quality time with their subordinates and should listen to their problems and feedbacks actively.
8. **Give Constructive Feedback:** Avoid giving negative feedback. The contents of the feedback might be negative, but it should be delivered constructively. Constructive feedback will lead to effective Communication between the superior and subordinate.
9. **Proper Media Selection:** The managers should properly select the medium of Communication. Simple messages should be conveyed orally, like: face to face interaction or meetings. Use of written means of Communication should be encouraged for delivering complex messages. For significant messages reminders can be given by using written means of Communication such as : Memos, Notices etc.
10. **Flexibility in meeting the targets:** For effective Communication in an organization the managers should ensure that the individuals are meeting their targets timely without skipping

the formal channels of Communication. There should not be much pressure on employees to meet their targets.

Kinesics

Kinesics is the interpretation of body language such as facial expressions and gestures or, more formally, non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole.

Bird whistell's work

The term was first used (in 1952) by Ray Birdwhistell, an anthropologist who wished to study how people communicate through posture, gesture, stance, and movement. Part of Birdwhistell's work involved making film of people in social situations and analyzing them to show different levels of Communication not clearly seen otherwise. The study was joined by several other anthropologists, including Margaret Mead and Gregory Bateson.

Drawing heavily on descriptive linguistics, Birdwhistell argued that all movements of the body have meaning (ie. are not accidental), and that these non-verbal forms of language (or paralanguage) have a grammar that can be analyzed in similar terms to spoken language. Thus, a "kineme" is "similar to a phoneme because it consists of a group of movements which are not identical, but which may be used interchangeably without affecting social meaning". (Knapp 1972:94-95)

Birdwhistell estimated that "no more than 30 to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by the words." (Birdwhistell, 1985: 158). He also concluded that there were no universals in these kinesic displays - a claim disproved by Paul Ekman's analysis of universals in facial expression.

A few Birdwhistell-isms are as follows:

- Social personality is a temporo-spatial system. All behaviors evinced by any such system are components of the system except as related to different levels of abstractions.
- Even if no participant of an interaction field can recall, or repeat in a dramatized context, a given series or sequence of body motions, the appearance of a motion is of significance to the

general study of the particular kinesic system even if the given problem can be rationalized without reference to it.

- All meaningful body motion patterns are to be regarded as socially learned until empirical investigation reveals otherwise.
- No kineme ever stands alone.

Modern applications

In one current application, kinesics are used as signs of deception by interviewers. Interviewers look for clusters of movements to determine the veracity of the statement being uttered. Some related words may be:

- **Emblems** - Substitute for words and phrases
- **Illustrators** - Accompany or reinforce verbal messages
- **Affect Displays** - Show emotion
- **Regulators** - Control the flow and pace of Communication
- **Adaptors** - Release physical or emotional tension

Kinesics are an important part of non-verbal Communication behavior. The movement of the body, or separate parts, conveys many specific meanings and the interpretations may be culture bound. As many movements are carried out at a subconscious or at least a low-awareness level, kinesic movements carry a significant risk of being misinterpreted in an intercultural communications situation.

Face – to - Face

The **face-to-face** relation refers to a concept in the French philosopher Emmanuel Levinas' thought on human sociality.

Lévinas' phenomenological account of the "face-to-face" encounter serves as the basis for his ethics and the rest of his philosophy. For Lévinas, "Ethics is the first philosophy." Lévinas argues that the encounter of the Others through the face veals a certain poverty which forbids a reduction to Sameness and, simultaneously, installs a responsibility for the Other in the Self.

Lévinas' account of the face-to-face encounter bears many similarities to Martin Buber's "I and Thou" relation. Its influence is also particularly pronounced in Jacques Derrida's ethical writings. (However, some post-structuralist thinkers maintain that Derrida does not agree with Levinas. See, perhaps most significantly, Martin Hagglund.)

The major difference between Buber's account of the I and Thou relation and the ethics of the face-to-face encounter is the application of Lévinas' asymmetry towards the other. For Buber, ethical relation meant a "symmetrical co-presence," while Lévinas, on the other hand, considers the relation with the other as something inherently asymmetrical: the other as they appear, the face, gives itself priority to the self, its first demand even before I react to it, love it or kill it, is: "thou shalt not kill me". Such a demand for Lévinas is prior to any reaction or any assertion of freedom by a subject. The face of the other in this sense looms above the other person and traces "where God passes." God (the infinite other) here refers to the God of which one cannot refuse belief in Its history, that is the God who appears in traditional belief and of scripture and not some conceptual God of philosophy or ontotheology.

The face, in its nudity and defenselessness, signifies: "Do not kill me." This defenseless nudity is therefore a passive resistance to the desire that is my freedom. Any exemplification of the face's expression, moreover, carries with it this combination of resistance and defenselessness: Levinas speaks of the face of the other who is "widow, orphan, or stranger."

In the face-to-face encounter we also see how Levinas splits ethics from morality. Ethics marks the primary situation of the face-to-face whereas morality comes later, as some kind of, agreed upon or otherwise, set of rules that emerge from the social situation, wherein there are more than just the two people of the face-to-face encounter. This ethical relation for Levinas is prior to an ontology of nature, instead he refers to it as a meontology, which affirms a meaning beyond Being, a mode of non-Being.

Facial Expression in Communication

Expression implies a revelation about the characteristics of a person, a message about something internal to the expresser. In the context of the face and nonverbal Communication, expression usually implies a change of a visual pattern over time, but as a static painting can express

a mood or capture a sentiment, so too the face can express relatively static characteristics (sometimes called physiognomy). The concept of facial expression, thus, includes:

1. a characteristic of a person that is represented, i.e., the signified;
2. a visual configuration that represents this characteristic, i.e., the signifier;
3. the physical basis of this appearance, or sign vehicle, e.g., the skin, muscle movements, fat, wrinkles, lines, blemishes, etc.; and
4. Typically, some person or other perceiver that perceives and interprets the signs.

The existence and relationships among these components is a large area for study in the psychological and behavioral sciences. To read more about nonverbal Communication, facial signs, and sign vehicles, see the on-line document Essential Behavioral Science of animal species display

Facial Expressions, but expressions are highly developed particularly in the primates, and perhaps most of all, in humans. Even though the human species has acquired the powerful capabilities of a verbal language, the role of facial expressions in person-to-person interactions remains substantial. Messages of the face that provide commentary and illustration about verbal communications are significant in themselves. To see examples of such nonverbal Communication, see the FAQ. Other types of expressions provide another, different mode for understanding the private, hidden side of the inner person, a side which may not be accessible in the form of verbalizations. For example, the facial behaviors related to emotion can reveal part of the feeling side of a person's private life. Such emotion indicators range from stereotyped, full-face expressions that are obvious to fleeting, partial-face movements that are hard to see. For more information about emotion expressions and some pictures of facial expressions, see the Emotion section.

The study of human facial expressions has many aspects, from computer simulation and analysis to understanding its role in art, nonverbal Communication, and the emotional process. Many questions about facial expressions remain unanswered and some areas are relatively unexplored. To get a broad picture of the kinds of questions that have been asked, answers to some of these questions, and the scientific research about the face that needs to be completed to answer them, see the online document Understanding the Face: Report to the National Science. Facial Expressions and the ability to understand them are important for successful interpersonal relations, so improving these skills is often sought.

Tools for Studying Facial Expression Produced by Muscular Action

The Facial Action Coding System(FACS) is a method that researchers use to measure facial expressions by identifying the muscular activity underlying transient changes in facial appearance. Researchers use in facial analysis to determine the elementary behaviors that pictures of facial expressions portray.

The FACS Affect Interpretation Database (FACSAID) is a tool for understanding what the muscular actions that FACS measures mean in terms of psychological concepts. FACSAID interprets the facial expressions in terms of meaningful scientific concepts.

A facial expression is one or more motions or positions of the muscles in the skin. These movements convey the emotional state of the individual to observers. Facial expressions are a form of nonverbal Communication. They are a primary means of conveying social information among humans, but also occur in most other mammals and some other animal species. Facial Expressions and their significance in the perceiver can, to some extent, vary between cultures.

Humans can adopt a facial expression to read as a voluntary action. However, because expressions are closely tied to emotion, they are more often involuntary. It can be nearly impossible to avoid expressions for certain emotions, even when it would be strongly desirable to do so; a person who is trying to avoid insulting an individual he or she finds highly unattractive might nevertheless show a brief expression of disgust before being able to reassume a neutral expression. Micro expressions are one example of this phenomenon. The close link between emotion and expression can also work in the other direction; it has been observed that voluntarily assuming an expression can actually cause the associated emotion (Schnall & Laird, 2003; Soussignan, 2002 as cited in Papa & Bonanno, 2008).

Some expressions can be accurately interpreted even between members of different species-anger and extreme contentment being the primary examples. Others, however, are difficult to interpret even in familiar individuals. For instance, disgust and fear can be tough to tell apart.

Because faces have only a limited range of movement, expressions rely upon fairly minuscule differences in the proportion and relative position of facial features, and reading them requires considerable sensitivity to same. Some faces are often falsely read as expressing some emotion, even when they are neutral, because their proportions naturally resemble those another face would temporarily assume when emoting.

Universality debate

Still, up to the mid-20th century most anthropologists believed that facial expressions were entirely learned and could therefore differ among cultures. Studies conducted in the 1960s by Paul Ekman eventually supported Darwin's belief to a large degree.

Ekman's work on facial expressions had its starting point in the work of psychologist Silvan Tomkins. Ekman showed that contrary to the belief of some anthropologists including Margaret Mead, facial expressions of emotion are *not* culturally determined, but universal across human cultures.

The South Fore people of New Guinea were chosen as subjects for one such survey. The study consisted of 189 adults and 130 children from among a very isolated population, as well as twenty three members of the culture who lived a less isolated lifestyle as a control group. Participants were told a story that described one particular emotion; they were then shown three pictures (two for children) of facial expressions and asked to match the picture which expressed the story's emotion.

While the isolated South Fore people could identify emotions with the same accuracy as the non-isolated control group, problems associated with the study include the fact that both fear and surprise were constantly misidentified. The study concluded that certain facial expressions correspond to particular emotions, regardless of cultural background, and regardless of whether or not the culture has been isolated or exposed to the mainstream..

Expressions Ekman found to be universal included those indicating anger, disgust fear, joy, sadness and surprise (note that none of these emotions has a definitive *social* component, such as shame, pride, or schadenfreude). Findings on contempt (which *is* social) are less clear, though there is at least some preliminary evidence that this emotion and its expression are universally recognized.

More recent studies in 2009 show that people from different cultures are likely to interpret facial expressions in different ways. For example, in Canada, the surprised face can be easily mixed up for the disgusted (or sometimes scared) in Kowloon.

Communication Eye contact

A person's face, especially their eyes, creates the most obvious and immediate cues that lead to the formation of impressions. This article discusses eyes and facial expressions and the effect they have on interpersonal Communication.

A person's eyes reveal much about how they are feeling, or what they are thinking. Blink rate can reveal how nervous or at ease a person may be. Research by Boston College professor Joe Tecce suggests that stress levels are revealed by blink rates. He supports his data with statistics on the relation between the blink rates of presidential candidates and their success in their races. Tecce claims that the faster blinker in the presidential debates has lost every election since 1980. Though Tecce's data is interesting, it is important to recognize that non-verbal Communication is multi-channelled, and focusing on only one aspect is reckless. Nervousness can also be measured by examining each candidates' perspiration, eye contact and stiffness.

Eye contact is another major aspect of facial Communication. Some have hypothesized that this is due to infancy, as humans are one of the few mammals who maintain regular eye contact with their mother while nursing. Eye contact serves a variety of purposes. It regulates conversations, shows interest or involvement, and establishes a connection with others.

Eye contact regulates conversational turn taking, communicates involvement and interest, manifests warmth, and establishes connections with others...[and] it can command attention, be flirtatious, or seem cold and intimidating... [it] invites conversation. Lack of eye contact is usually perceived to be rude or inattentive.

But different cultures have different rules for eye contact: Certain Asian cultures can perceive direct eye contact as a way to signal competitiveness, which in many situations may prove to be inappropriate. Others lower their eyes to signal respect, and similarly eye contact is avoided in Nigeria, and between men and women in Islam; however, in western cultures this could be misinterpreted as lacking self-confidence..

Even beyond the idea of eye contact, eyes communicate more data than a person even consciously expresses. Pupil dilation is a significant cue to a level of excitement, pleasure, or attraction. Dilated pupils indicate greater affection or attraction, while constricted pupils send a colder signal.

Face overall

The face as a whole indicates much about human moods as well. Specific emotional states, such as happiness or sadness, are expressed through a smile or a frown, respectively. There are seven universally recognized emotions shown through facial expressions: fear, anger, surprise, contempt, disgust, happiness, and sadness. Regardless of culture, these expressions are the same. However, the same emotion from a specific facial expression may be recognized by a culture, but the same intensity of emotion may not be perceived. For example, studies have shown that Asian cultures tend to rate images of facial emotions as less intense than non-Asian cultures surveyed. This difference can be explained by display rules, which are culture-specific guidelines for behavior appropriateness. In some countries, it may be more rude to display an emotion than in another. Showing anger toward another member in a group may create problems and disharmony, but if displayed towards a competitive rival, it could create in-group cohesion.

Signed languages

Facial expression is used in signed languages to convey specific meanings. In American Sign Language (ASL), for instance, raised eyebrows combined with a slightly forward head tilt indicate that what is being signed is a yes/no question. Lowered eyebrows are used for wh-word questions. Facial expression is also used in signed languages to show adverbs and adjectives such as distance or size: an open mouth, squinted eyes, and tilted back head indicate something far while the mouth pulled to one side and the cheek held toward the shoulder indicate something close, and puffed cheeks mean very large. It can also show the manner in which something is done, such as carelessly or routinely. Some of these expressions, also called non-manual signs, are used similarly in different signed languages while others are different from one language to another. For example, the expression used for 'carelessly' in ASL means 'boring or unpleasant' in British Sign Language.

Facial Expressions

There are six classically defined facial expressions:

- Joy
- Surprise

- Fear
- Anger
- Disgust
- Sadness

Some other examples of feelings that can be expressed are:

- Anger
- Concentration
- Confusion
- Contempt
- Desire
- Disgust
- Excitement
- Empathy
- Fear
- Flirt
- Frustration
- Glaring
- Happiness
- Love
- Sadness
- Snarl, mainly involving the levator labii superioris alaeque nasi muscle
- Surprise

Eye Contact

Eye Contact is a meeting of the eyes between two individuals.

In human beings, eye contact is a form of nonverbal Communication and is thought to have a large influence on social behavior. Coined in the early to mid-1960s, the term has come in the West to often define the act as a meaningful and important sign of confidence and social Communication.

The customs and significance of eye contact vary widely between cultures, with religious and social differences often altering its meaning greatly.

The study of eye contact is sometimes known as *oculesics*.

Social meanings of Eye Contact

Eye Contact and facial expressions provide important social and emotional information. People, perhaps without consciously doing so, probe each other's eyes and faces for positive or negative mood signs. In some contexts, the meeting of eyes arouses strong emotions.

Eye Contact is also an important element in flirting, where it may serve to establish and gauge the other's interest in some situations.

Mutual eye contact that signals attraction initially begins as a brief glance and progresses into a repeated volleying of eye contact, according to Beverly Palmer, Ph.D. and professor of psychology at California State University, Dominguez Hills.

In the process of civil inattention strangers in close proximity, such as a crowd, avoid eye contact in order to help maintain their privacy.

The effectiveness of eye contact

Parent-child eye contact

A 1985 study published in the Journal of Experimental Child Psychology suggested that "3-month-old infants are comparatively insensitive to being the object of another's visual regard". A 1996 Canadian study with 3 to 6 month old infants found that smiling in the infants decreased when adult eye contact was removed. A recent British study in the Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience found that face recognition by infants was facilitated by direct gaze. Other recent research has confirmed the belief that the direct gaze of adults influences the direct gaze of infants.

Communicating attention

A person's direction of gaze may indicate to others where his or her attention lies.

Facilitating learning

Recent studies suggest that eye contact has a positive impact on the retention and recall of information and may promote more efficient learning.

Cultural differences

In the Islamic faith, Muslims often lower their gaze and try not to focus on the opposite sex's faces and eyes after the initial first eye contact, other than their legitimate partners or family members, in order to avoid potential unwanted desires. Lustful glances to those of the opposite sex, young or adult, are also prohibited. This means that eye contact between any man and woman is allowed only for a second or two.

Japanese children are taught in school to direct their gaze at the region of their teacher's Adam's apple or tie knot. As adults, Japanese lower their eyes when speaking to a superior as a gesture of respect.

In many cultures, such as East Asia and Nigeria, it is respectful not to look the dominant person in the eye, but in Western Culture this can be interpreted as being "shifty-eyed", and the person judged badly because "he wouldn't look me in the eye"; references such as "shifty-eyed" can refer to suspicions regarding an individual's unrevealed intentions or thoughts. Nevertheless, the seeking of constant unbroken eye contact by the other participant in a conversation can often be considered overbearing or distracting by many even in western cultures, possibly on an instinctive or subconscious level.

Eye aversion and mental processing

A study by Phelps, Doherty-Sneddon, and Warnock concluded that children who avoid eye contact while considering their responses to questions are more likely to answer correctly than children who maintain eye contact. According to Doherty-Sneddon:

"Looking at faces is quite mentally demanding. We get useful information from the face when listening to someone, but human faces are very stimulating and all this takes processing. So when we are trying to concentrate and process something else that's mentally demanding, it's unhelpful to look at faces."

Contrariwise, Doherty-Sneddon suggests that a blank stare indicates a lack of understanding.

Difficulty with eye contact

Some people find eye contact more difficult than others. For example, those with autistic disorders or social anxiety may find eye contact to be particularly unsettling.

Between species

Patterns of eye contact between non-human mammals and between humans and other mammals are also well documented.

Animals of many species, including dogs, often perceive eye contact as a threat. Many programs to prevent dog bites recommend avoiding direct eye contact with an unknown dog. According to a report in The New Zealand Medical Journal, maintaining eye contact is one reason young children may be more likely to fall victim to dog attacks.

In the 1990s, black bears returned to Maryland's Catoctin Mountain Park after a twenty-year absence. Park officials recommend that visitors avoid direct eye contact if a bear stands on its hind legs. Chimpanzees use eye contact to signal aggression in hostile encounters, and staring at them in a zoo can induce agitated behavior.

How to improve Eye Contact in Communication?

Good Communication skills can help you in both your personal and professional life. While verbal and written Communication skills are important, research has shown that nonverbal behaviors make up a large percentage of our daily interpersonal Communication. How can you improve your nonverbal Communication skills? The following top ten tips for nonverbal Communication can help you learn to read the nonverbal signals of other people and enhance your own ability to communicate effectively.

1. Pay Attention to Nonverbal Signals

People can communicate information in numerous ways; so pay attention to things like eye contact, gestures, posture, body movements, and tone of voice. All of these signals can convey important information that isn't put into words. By paying closer attention to other people's nonverbal behaviors, you will improve your own ability to communicate nonverbally.

2. Look for Incongruent Behaviors

If someone's words do not match their nonverbal behaviors, you should pay careful attention. For example, someone might tell you they are happy while frowning and staring at the ground. Research has shown that when words fail to match up with nonverbal signals, people tend to ignore what has been said and focus instead on nonverbal expressions of moods, thoughts, and emotions.

3. Concentrate on Your Tone of Voice When Speaking

Your tone of voice can convey a wealth of information, ranging from enthusiasm to disinterest to anger. Start noticing how your tone of voice affects how others respond to you and try using tone of voice to emphasize ideas that you want to communicate. For example, if you want to show genuine interest in something, express your enthusiasm by using an animated tone of voice.

4. Use Good Eye Contact

When people fail to look others in the eye, it can seem as if they are evading or trying to hide something. On the other hand, too much eye contact can seem confrontational or intimidating. While eye contact is an important part of Communication, it's important to remember that good eye contact does not mean staring fixedly into someone's eyes. How can you tell how much eye contact is correct? Some Communication experts recommend intervals of eye contact lasting four to five seconds.

5. Ask Questions about Nonverbal Signals

If you are confused about another person's nonverbal signals, don't be afraid to ask questions. A good idea is to repeat back your interpretation of what has been said and ask for clarification. An example of this might be, "So what you are saying is that..."

6. Use Signals to Make Communication More Effective and Meaningful

Remember that verbal and nonverbal Communication work together to convey a message. You can improve your spoken Communication by using nonverbal signals and gestures that reinforce and support what you are saying. This can be especially useful when making presentations or when speaking to a large group of people.

7. Look at Signals as a Group

A single gesture can mean any number of things, or maybe even nothing at all. The key to accurately reading nonverbal behavior is to look for groups of signals that reinforce a common point. If you place too much emphasis on just one signal out of many, you might come to an inaccurate conclusion about what a person is trying to communicate.

8. Consider Context

When you are communicating with others, always consider the situation and the context in which the Communication occurs. Some situations require more formal behaviors that might be interpreted

very differently in any other setting. Consider whether or not nonverbal behaviors are appropriate for the context. If you are trying to improve your own nonverbal Communication, concentrate on ways to make your signals match the level of formality necessitated by the situation.

9. Be Aware That Signals Can be Misread

According to some, a firm handshake indicates a strong personality while a weak handshake is taken as a lack of fortitude. This example illustrates an important point about the possibility of misreading nonverbal signals. A limp handshake might actually indicate something else entirely, such as arthritis. Always remember to look for groups of behavior. A person's overall demeanor is far more telling than a single gesture viewed in isolation.

10. Practice, Practice, Practice

Some people just seem to have a knack for using nonverbal Communication effectively and correctly interpreting signals from others. These people are often described as being able to "read people." In reality, you can build this skill by paying careful attention to nonverbal behavior and practicing different types of nonverbal Communication with others. By noticing nonverbal behavior and practicing your own skills, you can dramatically improve your Communication abilities.

Body Language

Body Language is a form of mental and physical ability of human non-verbal communication, which consists of body posture, gestures, facial expressions, and eye movements. Humans send and interpret such signals almost entirely subconsciously.

James Borg states that human communication consists of 93 percent body language and paralinguistic cues, while only 7% of communication consists of words themselves; however, Albert Mehrabian, the researcher whose 1960s work is the source of these statistics, has stated that this is a misunderstanding of the findings. Others assert that "Research has suggested that between 60 and 70 percent of all meaning is derived from nonverbal behavior."

Body Language may provide clues as to the attitude or state of mind of a person. For example, it may indicate aggression, attentiveness, boredom, relaxed state, pleasure, amusement, and intoxication, among many other cues.

Understanding body language

The technique of "reading" people is used frequently. For example, the idea of mirroring body language to put people at ease is commonly used in interviews. Body language can show feelings to other people, which works in return for other people. People who show their body language to you can reveal their feelings and meanings. Mirroring the body language of someone else indicates that they are understood. It is important to note that some indicators of emotion (e.g. smiling/laughing when happy, frowning/crying when sad) are largely universal; however in the 1990s Paul Ekman expanded his list of basic emotions, including a range of positive and negative emotions, not all of which are encoded in facial muscles. The newly included emotions are:

A study in body language

1. Amusement
2. Contempt
3. Contentment
4. Embarrassment
5. Excitement
6. Guilt
7. Pride in achievement
8. Relief
9. Satisfaction
10. Sensory pleasure
11. Shame

Body Language signals may have a goal other than communication. People would keep both these two in mind. Observers limit the weight they place on non-verbal cues. Signalers clarify their signals to indicate the biological origin of their actions. Verbal communication also requires body language to show that the person you are talking with that you are listening. These signals can consist of; eye contact and nodding your head to show you understand. More examples would include yawning (sleepiness), showing lack of interest (sexual interest/survival interest), attempts to change the topic (fight or flight drivers). Rudolf Laban and Warren Lamb add much to this about dancers. Mime artists such as Booff Show utilize these techniques to communicate entire shows without a single word.

Physical expression

Physical expressions like waving, pointing, touching and slouching are all forms of non verbal communication. The study of body movement and expression is known as kinesics. Humans move their bodies when communicating because, as research has shown, it helps "ease the mental effort when communication is difficult." Physical expressions reveal many things about the person using them. For example, gestures can emphasize a point or relay a message, posture can reveal boredom or great interest, and touch can convey encouragement or caution.

- One of the most basic and powerful body language signals is when a person **crosses his or her arms across the chest**. This can indicate that a person is putting up an unconscious barrier between themselves and others. It can also indicate that the person's arms are cold, which would be clarified by rubbing the arms or huddling. When the overall situation is amicable, it can mean that a person is thinking deeply about what is being discussed. But in a serious or confrontational situation, it can mean that a person is expressing opposition. This is especially so if the person is leaning away from the speaker. A harsh or blank facial expression often indicates outright hostility.
- Consistent eye contact can indicate that a person is thinking positively of what the speaker is saying. It can also mean that the other person doesn't trust the speaker enough to "take their eyes off" the speaker. Lack of eye contact can indicate negativity. On the other hand, individuals with anxiety disorders are often unable to make eye contact without discomfort. Eye contact can also be a secondary and misleading gesture because cultural norms about it vary widely. If a person is looking at you, but is making the arms-across-chest signal, the eye contact could be indicative that something is bothering the person, and that he wants to talk about it. Or if while making direct eye contact, a person is fiddling with something, even while directly looking at you, it could indicate the attention is elsewhere. Also, there are three standard areas that a person will look which represent different states of being. If the person looks from one eye to the other, then to the forehead, it is a sign that they are taking an authoritative position. If they move from one eye to the other, then to the nose, that signals that they are engaging in what they consider to be a "level conversation" with neither party holding superiority. The last case is from one eye to the other and then down to the lips. This is a strong indication of romantic feelings.

- Disbelief is often indicated by averted gaze, or by touching the ear or scratching the chin. When a person is not being convinced by what someone is saying, the attention invariably wanders, and the eyes will stare away for an extended period.
- Boredom is indicated by the head tilting to one side, or by the eyes looking straight at the speaker but becoming slightly unfocused. A head tilt may also indicate a sore neck or Amblyopia, and unfocused eyes may indicate ocular problems in the listener.
- Interest can be indicated through posture or extended eye contact, such as standing and listening properly.
- Deceit or the act of withholding information can sometimes be indicated by touching the face during conversation. Excessive blinking is a well-known indicator of someone who is lying. Recently, evidence has surfaced that the absence of blinking can also represent lying as a more reliable factor than excessive blinking.

Some people use and understand body language differently, or not at all. Interpreting their gestures and facial expressions (or lack thereof) in the context of normal body language usually leads to misunderstandings and misinterpretations (especially if body language is given priority over spoken language). It should also be stated that people from different cultures can interpret body language in different ways.

How prevalent is non-verbal communication in humans?

Some researchers put the level of nonverbal communication as high as 80 percent of all communication when it could be at around 50-65 percent. Different studies have found differing amounts, with some studies showing that facial communication is believed 4.3 times more often than verbal meaning, and another finding that verbal communication in a flat tone is 4 times more likely to be understood than a pure facial expression. Albert Mehrabian is noted for finding a 7%-38%-55% rule, supposedly denoting how much communication was conferred by words, tone, and body language. However he was only referring to cases of expressing feelings or attitudes.

Proxemics

Introduced by Edward T Hall in 1966, proxemics is the study of measurable distances between people as they interact with one another. The distance between people in a social situation often discloses information about the type of relationship between the people involved. Proximity may also reveal the type of social setting taking place. There is an intimate zone reserved for lovers, children and close family members. This zone is between six and eighteen inches. 1.5 to 4 feet is the distance that friends or associates will generally be within. That is, people that are close but not necessarily on a regular touching basis. Between 4 and 12 feet is the zone for more social environments. These are familiar people such as co-workers or someone else that is seen occasionally throughout the week. The outer end of this zone is reserved for newly formed groups, and new acquaintances. The last zone accruing between 10 and 25 feet and is known to be public distance. This area of space is used for speeches, lectures and theater; essentially, public distance is the range reserved for larger audiences or for people that are not familiar.

Unintentional gestures

Recently, there has been huge interest in studying human behavioral clues that could be useful for developing an interactive and adaptive human-machine system. Unintentional human gestures such as making an eye rub, a chin rest, a lip touch, a nose itch, a head scratch, an ear scratch, crossing arms, and a finger lock have been found conveying some useful information in specific context. Some researchers have tried to extract such gestures in a specific context of educational applications. In poker games, such gestures are referred to as "tells" and are useful to players for detecting deception or behavioral patterns in an opponent(s).

There is also a huge interest in learning to avoid any unintentional gesture that might leave a negative impression on the onlookers. A large number of people are starting to attend special sessions on controlled body behavior and take advice from expert sociologists. Learning good body language, such as living styles of foreign people, is important during interaction in any sort of global community.

Deception

Though we know it's wrong, and most don't like to admit it, we've all told that little white lie. Sometimes we tell a lie to keep from hurting someone's feelings, and sometimes we tell half-truths because we want people to think we are something we are not. But often, lies are told with more sinister intentions. Lies are told to hurt, to steal, to change the outcome of things normally out of a person's control. They start out small, but they can quickly turn into a monster that is hard to slay.

Deception is the act of lying (telling untruths) to someone, or trying to trick them for some kind of gain. The intent can be malicious, with the objective being to hurt someone; the intent can also be defensive, with the goal being the concealment of a secret or other information.

The Body Language of Deception

If a person is even the slightest bit concerned about being caught in a lie (this is called having a conscience!), chances are he or she will give off one or more physical cues. You might be surprised to find out that it is not always easy to tell that someone is lying. A "good" liar, or someone who has a habit of telling or living untruths (often thought of as a pathological liar) might not show any obvious signs of a deception. Some people tell lies so often that they have trouble distinguishing the lies from the reality of their own lives.

Even if you know a person (or at least if you think you know a person), it can be tricky to pick up on the subtle body language of deception. For the deceiver, the most important thing is to not let the cat out of the bag! Just imagine the anxiety that is involved for most people (sociopaths NOT included!) in keeping the secret of a lie for even a short period of time!

Anxious feelings have a tendency to spill out into non-verbal body cues. These can include:

- Sweating
- Flushed cheeks
- Jerky movements
- Eye and mouth twitching
- Rapid speech
- High-pitched speech

The signs of anxiety can be an indication that a person is hiding information, or outright telling a lie.

For someone trying to keep a lie from being divulged, he or she may try too hard to control his or her body language (which is usually pointless, anyway, since body language is most often an involuntary body response. This overcompensation or under-compensation is called signals of control, and the purpose is to take attention away from the person telling the lie, or to give the illusion that the truth is being told (depending on the strength of the person's moral compass) and they may include:

- Forced smile (the mouth is smiling, but the eyes aren't) Clumsiness
- Trying to use open body language
- Displaying defensive body language
- Trying to keep the body still, free of any body language at all (hands in pockets, or hands, arms, or legs folded)

A deceiver might also seem distracted during a seemingly normal conversation. For example:

- When asked a question, a person might pause a little too long in trying to formulate a reply.
- A person might overreact or under react in conversation, since they are so sensitive to their own situation, and so worried about keeping themselves from being revealed.

Other subtle (and not-so-subtle) clues that usually reveal a liar can be:

- Eye rubbing
- Avoiding eye contact (might also indicate shame - could there be a guilty conscience lurking there?)
- Covering the mouth (literally trying to keep from "spilling the beans")
- Clearing the throat
- Touching the nose, or the "Pinocchio Response"

Even the smallest lie can turn into the biggest disaster. Telling a lie and perpetuating it as the truth takes work, and it takes energy. That energy can take a toll on your health and your state of mind. And though you might be able to pull the wool over some eyes, there will be a few who will pick up

on those subtle clues of your body language, and discover the reality behind the lie. The body language of deception always speaks the truth!

Paralanguage

Paralanguage refers to the non-verbal elements of communication used to modify meaning and convey emotion. Paralanguage may be expressed consciously or unconsciously, and it includes the pitch, volume, and, in some cases, intonation of speech. Sometimes the definition is restricted to vocally-produced sounds. The study is known as **paralinguistics**.

The term 'Paralanguage' is sometimes used as a cover term for body language, which is not necessarily tied to speech, and paralinguistic phenomena in speech. The latter are phenomena that can be observed in speech (Saussure's *parole*) but that do not belong to the arbitrary conventional code of language (Saussure's *langue*).

The paralinguistic properties of speech play an important role in human speech communication. There are no utterances or speech signals that lack paralinguistic properties, since speech requires the presence of a voice that can be modulated. This voice must have *some* properties, and all the properties of a voice as such are paralinguistic. However, the distinction linguistic vs. paralinguistic applies not only to speech but to writing and sign language as well, and it is not bound to any sensory modality. Even vocal language has some paralinguistic as well as linguistic properties that can be *seen* (lip reading, McGurk effect), and even *felt*, e.g. by the Tadoma method.

One can distinguish the following aspects of speech signals and perceived utterances:

Perspectival aspects

Speech signals that arrive at a listener's ears have acoustic properties that may allow listeners to localize the speaker (distance, direction). Sound localization functions in a similar way also for non-speech sounds. The perspectival aspects of lip reading are more obvious and have more drastic effects when head turning is involved.

Organic aspects

The speech organs of different speakers differ in size. As children grow up, their organs of speech become larger and there are differences between male and female adults. The differences concern not only size, but also proportions. They affect the pitch of the voice and to a substantial

extent also the formant frequencies, which characterize the different speech sounds. The organic quality of speech has a communicative function in a restricted sense, since it is merely informative about the speaker. It will be expressed independently of the speaker's intention.

Expressive aspects

The properties of the voice and the way of speaking are affected by emotions and attitudes. Typically, attitudes are expressed intentionally and emotions without intention, but attempts to fake or to hide emotions are not unusual. Expressive variation is central to paralanguage. It affects loudness, speaking rate, pitch, pitch range and, to some extent, also the formant frequencies.

Linguistic aspects

These aspects are the main concern of linguists. Ordinary phonetic transcriptions of utterances reflect only the linguistically informative quality. The problem of how listeners factor out the linguistically informative quality from speech signals is a topic of current research.

Some of the linguistic features of speech, in particular of its prosody, are paralinguistic or pre-linguistic in origin. A most fundamental and widespread phenomenon of this kind is known as the "frequency code" (Ohala, 1984). This code works even in communication across species. It has its origin in the fact that the acoustic frequencies in the voice of small vocalizers are high while they are low in the voice of large vocalizers. This gives rise to secondary meanings such as 'harmless', 'submissive', 'unassertive', which are naturally associated with smallness, while meanings such as 'dangerous', 'dominant', and 'assertive' are associated with largeness. In most languages, the frequency code also serves the purpose of distinguishing questions from statements. It is universally reflected in expressive variation, and it is reasonable to assume that it has phylogenetically given rise to the sexual dimorphism that lies behind the large difference in pitch between average female and male adults.

In text-only communication such as email, chatrooms and instant messaging, paralinguistic elements can be displayed by emoticons, font and color choices, capitalization and the use of non-alphabetic or abstract characters. Nonetheless, paralanguage in written communication is limited in comparison with face-to-face conversation, sometimes leading to misunderstandings.

Part A (ONE Mark)

Multiple Choice Questions

Online Examination

Part B (2 Marks)

1. What do you understand about “Communication”?
2. What are the characteristics of a good speaker?
3. What is Oral Communication?
4. How to write effective letters?
5. Define style?
6. Define Paralanguage?
7. What is the role of body language in communication?

Part C (8 Marks)

1. What are the barriers to communication?
2. Discuss the role and relevance of Body language.
3. How and why Eye Contact is important in Communication?
4. What do you understand about Non-verbal Communication?
5. Explain the impact of Kinesics?
6. Describe the communication process. Identify its key parts. Give an example of how this process operates with both oral and written messages.
7. Elucidate the non-verbal communication. What does a manager need to know about non-verbal communication?
8. Explain the models of communication with the diagram.

PART - A

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Every day we receive lots and lots of -----	Stimuli	action	reaction	forward action	Stimuli
The meaningful bits and pieces of stimuli are called---	Ground Principle	Figure Principle	Organising	Selection	Figure Principle
Meaningless bits and pieces of selective perception is called-----	Ground Principle	Figure Principle	Organising	Selection	Ground Principle
People try to find out an explanation of their own behaviour is-----	Stimuli	Action	self Perception theory	Organs	self Perception theory
Organising the bits of information into a meaningful whole is called-	Zero	Action	Organizatio n	forward action	Organization
Grouping the workers with similar opinion is --	Relevance	Similarity	Proximity	Realitivity	Similarity
Grouping the workers coming from the same place is-----	Relevance	Similarity	Proximity	Realitivity	Proximity
The tendency to form a complete message from an incomplete is	Grouping	Closure	relevance	Simplificati on	Closure
People selectively perceive things which are relevant to meet their needs and desires are called-----	Grouping	Closure	relevance	Simplificati on	relevance
The process of simplifying the overloaded information by giving meaning is called--	Grouping	Closure	relevance	Simplificati on	Simplificatio n

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Assigning meanings to data is called-----	Grouping	Closure	Interpretation	Action	Interpretation
Drawing a general impression about an individual based on a single trait is called----	Hallo effect	Attribution	Stereotyping	Action	Hallo effect
Explaining Human Behaviour in terms of cause and effect is ----	Hallo effect	Attribution	Stereotyping	Action	Attribution
When individuals are judged on the basis of the characteristics of the group to which they belong is called-----	Hallo effect	Attribution	Stereotyping	Action	Stereotyping
----- is the resultant behaviour of individual emerging from the perceptual process	Hallo effect	Attribution	Stereotyping	Action	Action
-----is the result of directing our attention inward	Objective self awareness	Awareness of mental process	Labeling Theory	Self comparison	Objective self awareness
----- failed to study individual explanation instead look at responses from group responses	Objective self awareness	Awareness of mental process	Labeling Theory	Self comparison	Awareness of mental process
The use of other people as a source of comparison to shape out self concept is called----	Objective self awareness	Awareness of mental process	Labeling Theory	Self comparison	Self comparison
The word esteem means ---	to estimate or appraise	distinguish	high	low	to estimate or appraise
People with low self esteem are --	Unhappy	Optimistic	Biases	pessimistic	Unhappy
Individuals with high self esteem are more-----	Unhappy	Optimistic	Biases	pessimistic	Optimistic

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
There should be proper-----to achieve the organization's goal	Team work	Individual performance	Objectives	group	Team work
managers role as --- -----is significant in achieving organizations targets	Counsellor	Supervisor	Salesman	purchase man	Counsellor
One way communication from sender to receiver between individuals	Linear model	Transaction model	Interactions model	stimuli	Linear model
Simultaneous sending and receiving	Linear model	Transaction model	Interactions model	stimuli	Transaction model
Two way ongoing communications	Linear model	Transaction model	Interactions model	stimuli	Interactions model
Message move sequentially from one person to the next	Chain communication network	Wheel communication network	All channel communication network	Group	Chain communication network
One person relays message to all other members of the group	Chain communication network	Wheel communication network	All channel communication network	Group	Wheel communication network
Telephones, public address system, speeches and meeting are example of	Written communication	Formal communication	Oral communication	Informal	Written communication
_____ communication is most effective	Telephone	Face to face	Public address	Informal	Face to face
_____ can be often be eliminated by solving the problem on the spot	Communication	Disagreement	Expressions	Persistent effort	Disagreement
David Berlo Suggested _____ Communicati on model	SMMC	SMCR	SCMR	SMMR	SMCR

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
_____ should lead to more persistent effort	Memory	Failure	Audience	Inspiration	Failure
Cultivate the _____ style as soon as possible	Extempore	Activate	Artificial	Treacherous	Extempore
Public speaking is enlarged with _____	Profile	Conservation	Discussion	Interruption	Conservation
If you think of and prepare your address in these ways, it will be _____	Good talking	Good speaker	Good living	Good environment	Good talking
You want them to feel to _____, to do something.	hard	Honour	Think	talk	Think
A good speaker speaks of it with _____	Honour	Communication	Vital	Enthusiasm	Enthusiasm
Good speaker has a sense of _____ to his listeners	Responsibility	Public speaking	Good talking	Humour	Responsibility
_____ has a sense of leadership	Good speaker	Good living	Good talking	Humour	Good speaker
Good speaker keeps his sense of _____	Heart	Humour	Zealot	Smile	Humour
_____ can take myriad forms	Writing clearly	Communicé	Vital	Written communication	Written communication
No one expects to write _____ into a business letter	Subject	Rainbows	Sentence	Topic	Rainbows
_____ is purposeful Communication	Chatting	Gossip	Public address	Whispering	Public address
Style is not _____	Natural	Artificial	Unnatural	Realitive speaking	Artificial
The emphasis of a _____ lies not in its length but in its shortness	Sentence	Expression	Word	Line	Sentence
_____ is an important form of communication	Written	Oral	interpersonal	Formal	interpersonal

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Business mail is often _____	expressing	Judicious	Disgusting	Depressing	Depressing
Acceptance implies a _____ on the part of the receiver	Willingness	Judicious	Disgusting	Depressing	Willingness
_____ is a person's view of reality	Communication	Perception	Implementation	Organization	Perception
Communication is for _____	Humans	Animals	Plants	Humans and Animals	Humans and Animals
_____ is a social process	Communication	Playing	Eating	Movement	Communication
_____ transmits precise message	Phone	Television	Language	internet	Language
Language transmits precise _____.	Symbol	Sound	Image	Message	Message
_____ is a system of vocal sound used by human beings	Symbol	Sound	Image	Language	Language
_____ is the basis for civilization.	Symbolic behaviors	Agriculture	Situation	Internet	Symbolic behaviors
_____ has become the prime source of information about the world	Agriculture	Radio	Television	Internet	Television
_____ is an entertainer of the world	Agriculture	Radio	Television	Internet	Television
Human beings explain the world to themselves and to each other through _____	Radio	Mass media	Newspaper	Television	Mass media
_____ provide a convenient way to think about communication	Radio	Communication model	Writing	Television	Communication model

UNIT-III – ASSERTIVENESS

SYLLABUS

Assertiveness – Nature - Importance and relevance to organizational life – Assertion and Aggression - Assertive writing - Preparing for Assertive Business Writing, Effective letter writing and business mail – Tools, Tips, Pitfalls - Persuasion - When to say Yes/No - Being Assertive with Oneself – cutting , Rewriting, editing - Enhance individual assertiveness.

Introduction to Assertiveness

Assertiveness is one of the most important skills you can learn today. It can be used in almost any situation at work as well as in your home and social life. Assertiveness changes the way you communicate, changes the way you deal with conflict, and changes your own relationship with yourself. It is the gateway to confidence, respect, and self-esteem. As you will learn in this book, assertiveness is something you are born with and naturally good at. Only the intervention of others with your best interests at heart rob you of assertiveness and teach you unsatisfactory substitutes, such as submission and aggression. But assertiveness is always waiting for you to re-discover its magic. If you are someone who feels they have lost their way in their relations with others, this book will show you how to claim back your birthright.

What Is Assertiveness?

Although it is a staple of many training and self-development courses, it is not always easy to define Assertiveness. That's because it has many facets. It is a process, a skill, and a way of behaving. In communicating, it is more easily defined by its absence and its alternative ways of behaving, such as aggression and submission. But Assertiveness is a key quality in all positive and productive relationships and a skill that we should all learn to know better.

Here are some of the main ways to define it.

Dictionary Definitions

The dictionary definitions of “assertiveness” have a range of descriptions that don't quite capture the essence of Assertiveness. You'll read “dogmatic”, “forthright”, “positive”, “confident” and “insistent”. Don't be fooled. These are only starting points. Assertiveness is much more than any

of these.

Origins

One clue to the meaning of Assertiveness lies in its origins. Assertiveness came to most people's awareness in the late 20th century in connection with movements such as Civil Rights in America, the women's movement, and the self development movement. These were all non-forceful movements and they were all successful in changing the rights of under-privileged groups.

The Assertive Journey

Writer Beverley Hare describes Assertiveness in terms of a journey. Her own personal journey to assertiveness took her from low self-esteem to high self-esteem; from dependence to interdependence; from believing she was unattractive to knowing she was attractive. Her journey to assertiveness was a life-changing and life-enhancing experience. This was her journey...

- From low self-esteem to improved self-esteem • from little confidence to improved confidence
- From believing she was unintelligent to believing she was intelligent • from believing she was unattractive to believing she was attractive • from dependence to independence
- From feeling passive to feeling active
- From predominantly non-assertive to predominantly assertive behaviour • from obsessive dependent relationships to interdependent relationships • from being sensitive to criticism to handling criticism well

Your Self-Esteem

A high level of self-esteem has now become an essential requirement of modern business life. Unlike the past models of business life, where people at work were required to know their place and look up to those above and down on those below, today's businesses require co-operation, equality, and respect for diversity. One of the skills that takes you there is self-esteem, the appreciation of your own worth and importance. And Assertiveness is one of the daily habits that will produce self-esteem.

“High self-esteem workers making independent decisions, taking risks, vigorously pursuing new ideas and acting on their own initiative are exactly the employees needed for the 21st century.”
(BBC Health)

The Confidence Lane

Assertiveness, self-esteem and confidence are inextricably linked.

For example, when you know that you have a right to be in your place in the world, to occupy the space you are in, and the right to express what you want, you are both thinking and behaving assertively and confidently.

Imagine a 3-lane highway, labeled respectively “Weakness”, “Confidence”, and “Dominance”. When you drive along the inside lane of letting others walk all over you, you know you’re in the slow lane of Weakness and it’s time to step up into a better lane. When you find yourself driving along the outside lane of overtaking everyone else with your power, you know you’re in the high-speed lane of Dominance and it’s time to step down. Use your dashboard gauge of awareness and feedback to stay in the middle lane of Confidence and your journey will be successful for both you and others.

The Three Modes

The classic way to define Assertiveness is to contrast it with its two “side-kicks”, aggression and submissiveness. Aggression is easily defined as a way of behaving that denies other people’s rights. Submissiveness is equally easily defined as a way of behaving that denies us our own rights. That leaves Assertiveness as the “third way of behaving” that simultaneously acknowledges our own rights and those of others.

A.J.Lange and P.Jakubowski, in their book “Responsible Assertive Behaviour” provide a definition of Assertiveness in which it is compared to aggression and non-assertion.

Non-assertion is violating one’s own rights by failing to express honest feelings, thoughts and beliefs and consequently allowing others to violate oneself.

Aggression is directly standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in a way which is often dishonest, usually inappropriate and always violates the rights of the other person. 3. Assertiveness is standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways which do not violate another person’s rights.

Aggressive Behaviour

Aggressive behaviour means...

- getting your own way, no matter what
- winning at all costs

- being loud, abusive, controlling, manipulative, intimidating, violent, sarcastic
- using put-downs of others
- using any trick or game to show others are weaker than you.

While in many parts of our society the aggressive type is admired for their strength, the aggressive person is basically a coward at heart. Their behaviour towards others is likely to create a resentment-revenge cycle which will re-bound on them one day.

Non-Assertion

Non-assertive or passive behaviour means...

- keeping quiet for fear of upsetting others
- avoiding conflict at any cost
- putting others' needs ahead of your own
- being vague about your own needs
- Excessive apologizing
- pretending to be indecisive as a way of taking a different stand
- bottling things up.

The person who relies on passive behaviour does so in the hope that they will be safe and protected by others. There is every likelihood that others will despise their weakness and soon come to lose respect for them. The passive person may become bitter in later life for lost opportunities.

Assertive Behaviour

Assertive behaviour means...

- being open, honest and vulnerable
- Standing up for yourself
- refusing to be intimidated
- finding win-win solutions to conflict
- being equal with others while retaining your uniqueness
- listening to others
- showing understanding.

While on the surface an assertive lifestyle seems to carry with it many dangers - the

possibility that others will knock you down in flames for being so open and honest - it is the only route to personal respect and respect for others.

What Assertiveness is Not?

In learning to be more confident and assertive, many people overdo the effect and slip into aggressively-expressed assertions. Equally, many people who aim to be assertive, step back from conflict in case they infringe other people's rights.

Assertiveness is not about dominating, resisting, or feeling forced to yield to others. It is never about becoming emotional and angry. Nor is it about forcing your point of view onto other people.

What assertiveness does aim to do is to emphasize the value of clear, calm, frank and often minimal communication as a means of establishing relationships in which everyone knows where they stand and no-one feels ill-used.

Outcomes

One of the touchstones of Assertiveness is that it is a way of being that is without fear. When you operate from predominantly aggressive and submissive standpoints, you are really operating from standpoints of fear: the fear of others that makes you want to dominate them or submit to them. Assertiveness, on the other hand, is honest, calm, and trusting. It does not come from a place of fear, but of trust and respect.

Benefits

The reason why Assertiveness matters is that it is the key that unlocks success in so many areas of our lives. In the workplace, it underlies so many of the skills we use in relating to others, such as communication, negotiating, and leadership. In personal relationships, it is the best way to solve problems and manoeuvre our way out of conflict. In ourselves, it is the way to feel good about our lives.

One of the key benefits of Assertiveness is that it helps you eliminate the fear and stress which still today are present in many of our life and work relationships, be they demanding bosses, angry customers, or unhelpful colleagues. Fear and stress-based relationships create different forms of flight-fight reactions in us. These can take the form of avoiding people, giving in to them, battling them, bullying them, or manipulating them. All these routes lead to unease, disease, and ultimate exhaustion. With Assertiveness skills, you learn that fear doesn't have to exist in any relationship

you choose to have, whatever the other person wants. Assertiveness gives you back personal control that allows you to act rather than react and to see everyone else the way you see yourself with love and respect.

Assertiveness is a prime social skill. It may not be as quick at resolving issues as forceful dominance or quiet submission. But it is the route to the most healthy and satisfactory of human behaviours.

Key Points

1. There are more than 250 ways to define words such as assertion, aggression and non-assertion.
2. One of the results of assertiveness at work is that fear is eliminated and communication is more honest.
3. Assertiveness allows you to stand back from situations that you are involved in.
4. Assertiveness leads to an increase in respect: respect for yourself and respect for others.
5. Assertiveness is a way of looking at life that replaces dogmatic certainties with openness and possibilities.
6. Assertiveness can be applied across a range of life situations.

Applications of Assertiveness

Many of us don't handle interpersonal relationships well, particularly at work. Instead of feeling good about ourselves, our reactions and responses to others often make us feel tongue-tied and inadequate, on the one hand, and angry and critical on the other. Here are some of the ways to deal with everyday situations and come out feeling good.

Responding to Compliments

People who have low self-esteem tend to dismiss compliments. Deep down they feel unworthy and are likely to respond to praise with phrases such as, "Who me?" or "It was nothing". You can use three techniques to stop yourself using such self-denigrating replies. First, when someone says something nice about you, simply say "Thanks" in a way that is clear, grateful, and accepting. Secondly, ask people what they liked about what you did. Thirdly, find something in what they said that you can agree with.

Positive Enquiry

Positive enquiry and positive assertion are simple techniques for handling praise and compliments.

Positive enquiry asks the compliment-payer for more details about what they liked. Them: "I really like your hair today."

You: "Thanks. What is it about my hair that you like?"

Positive assertion takes all or part of the compliment and agrees with it. Them: "I really thought the presentation went well."

You: "Thanks. Yes, the presentation did go well, didn't it."

Responding to Criticism

Criticism is another difficult area for non-assertive people. If they tend to aggressive reactions, they might hit back. If they tend to submissive reactions, they might feel even more miserable than before. Criticism isn't easy to take. But there are some rules to follow. First, remember that it is only someone else's opinion. Second, learn not to take it personally. Third, practice the technique of asking for more information so that you can weigh up whether there's something in what they said that will help you to do better next time.

Negative Enquiry

Negative enquiry and negative assertion are simple techniques for responding to criticism and judgment.

Negative enquiry replies to the critic by asking for more details about what they didn't like. Them: "Well, I've seen better presentations by monkeys."

You: "Exactly what didn't you like about it?"

Negative assertion takes all or part of the criticism and agrees with it. Them: "The slide show was dreadful."

You: "Yes. That was the most difficult part of the presentation."

This way of dealing with criticism and judgment has an equivalent positive version when handling compliments and praise assertively.

Saying “No” to Others

Non-assertive people have a hard time saying “No”, particularly if the request comes from people they want to impress. But always saying “Yes”, regardless of what you want yourself, turns you into a doormat and makes the next request even harder to turn down. The best way to say “No” is to state your “No” up-front, firmly and without fear. Explain that you are unable to meet the request and use the word “won’t” rather than “can’t” as in: “No, I won’t be able to babysit tonight. I have other plans.”

The following is an e: mail sent by a manager who had been pressured to join a project which she didn’t want to do: “I’d like you to know that I’m honoured that you should have thought about asking me to do this job and under other circumstances I would have loved to be able to say “Yes”. It sounds like an interesting project. I’d like you to know that it was kind of you to have considered me. Please let me know how things progress. I’m sure it will be an outstanding success.”

Overcoming Shyness

Unassertiveness and shyness are twins. They both lead to feeling inadequate in social settings. As a result, unassertive people hold back and take no part. One trick you can use to make yourself feel more comfortable in unfamiliar settings is to imagine in your mind that you are somewhere safe where you can be yourself, like “Ma and Pa’s” or “down the pub”.

Admitting you’re wrong

We all make mistakes but not all of us have the courage to own up to them. However, mistakes are what make us human and not something to be ashamed of. Once you realize a mistake, own up to it simply and concisely without over-apologizing or hand-wringing. Then, get to work on putting it right.

Raising Your Self-Esteem

It is thought that up to 80% of us regularly suffer from low self-esteem. This often happens

when we compare ourselves to others who appear to be more confident, more assertive, and more successful than we are. Don't let yourself fall into this trap of your ego. You are no better and no worse than anyone else. You are you, perfect in yourself as you are, and with the same worth and value as anyone else.

Expressing Your Feelings

A further reason for low self-esteem is the tendency to believe that your views are not as important as other people's. This often happens when you feel you are not as articulate as others in expressing your thoughts and feelings. As a result, you sit and say nothing. This is another trick of your ego to make you feel bad and confirm some old image that you were given as a kid. Put a stop to this and learn to express yourself regardless of what other people think or feel.

Practicing assertiveness in everyday situations is the route that will make you more assertive. Have the courage to seize the opportunities as they arise, and your life will change for the better.

Key Points

1. One of the most valuable applications of assertiveness is in handling interpersonal communications.
2. The best way to respond to praise is to thank the person and accept the praise with humility.
3. When we are criticized, however much it may hurt, we need to remind ourselves it is only someone's opinion.
4. When we want to say "No" to something we are not obliged to do, we need to say "No" clearly and leave it at that.
5. To show social poise, get genuinely interested in others.
1. The most disarming way to handle mistakes is to admit them fully, apologize once and move on.

Assertive Communication

If asked to state where assertiveness can make the biggest difference, most experts would almost certainly say, "in the power of your communication". Assertive communication, whether in word, deed, or image, is assertiveness. So, here are some of the key techniques that you can use to

make all of your communication more assertive.

Own Your Communication

It is very easy to say things to others without fully realizing the effect they have. One of the most damaging is “You” messages where someone’s actions make us feel a certain way, for example, “You make me so angry”. These are known as “poison phrases” for the damage they do. Instead, when someone does something and it makes you feel a certain way, own your feelings: use “I” phrases, as in “When you come late, I feel cross”.

Describe, Don’t Judge

Judging others with labels is a trick that our ego teaches us when we are young. It is the ego’s way of keeping people at a distance and so destroying good communication. Instead of judging someone, for example, “she’s stupid”, use honest and accurate communication devoid of judgment, as in “she makes mistakes about once or twice a week”.

Be Specific, not Generalized

Sweeping statements are another category of communication that we often use but which are factually incorrect, as in “You’re always late”. Instead, think before you speak and use honest and accurate communication, as in “That’s the second time you’ve been late this month”.

Three Words to Eliminate from Your Communication

Here are three words that will improve your assertive communication if you leave them out.

“Just”, as in “I’m just a clerk” “only”, as in “She’s only a housewife” “try”, as in “I’ll try to have it to you by tonight”.

Practice saying these sentences without the unassertive words and in a positive clear tone. Notice the difference.

Making Requests

Unassertive people hesitate about asking for something from others because they worry about

how the request will be received, the possibility of rejection and how they will then be viewed.

Some of the fears might be...

- If they say “No”, how will I feel? • if they say “Yes”, will I then owe them?
- If they say “Yes”, might it be that they feel they have to?

This kind of self-talk is irrational and unnecessary if we make requests assertively. In the great majority of cases, people are pleased when others need their help and usually respond if the request is made in a way that does not make them feel they have no way to say “No”.

Here are five steps in making assertive requests...

1. Check any contractual obligations others may have towards you, such as an earlier agreement to supply you with help.
2. Frame your request in a simple, straightforward way so that others know exactly what you’re asking for.
3. Avoid manipulative and guilt-edged requests such as those from tin-carrying charity workers. eg “Would you like to help the poor?”
4. Instead make sure others have the right - and know they have the right - to say “Yes” or “No”.
5. Avoid leading questions that give others no option but to agree: “There’s not much on TV tonight. Do you want to go out?”

Asking for Time

Asking for time, as in “I’ll have to see about that”, is an assertive technique that can be useful in two ways. First, it avoids us turning others down with a flat “No”. Second, it avoids saying an automatic “Yes” to other people’s requests and conditions and so appearing to be an easy pushover. When we ask for time to think about a request, we let people know that we are taking the request seriously and need time to think. It also means we avoid saying “Yes” simply to please others and then becoming angry with them or ourselves because we didn’t mean it. Naturally, when we’ve asked for time to think about a request, we should give the matter the thought it deserves and let people know our decision.

Fogging

“Fogging” is an assertive response to criticism and sarcasm. You can use it when someone makes a comment about you that is indirectly aggressive and intended to antagonize you, for example, when you arrive late to work and someone sarcastically says, “Train late again?”. Simply take the words, find the truth in them and respond with an assertive tone, as in, “Yes, I’m going to have to re-think my journey from now on.” Imagine taking the sarcasm or criticism and deadening it in a fog between you and the speaker.

Broken Record

“Broken record” takes its name from a stuck gramophone record. It is also known as “instant replay”. Use it when someone wants you to do something that you don’t want to do. Simply repeat what you want over and over again without becoming cross or raising your voice.

John: Let’s eat out tonight. How about that new Mexican place? Sally: Mexican food is too fattening. I’m sticking to my diet. John: Yeah, but Mexican food is great.

Sally: I know it is but I’m sticking to my diet. We could go Japanese. John: Look, one day off won’t harm you.

Sally: Maybe not but I’m still going to stick to my diet. John: I think it would do you good to loosen up.

Sally: I know what you mean, John, I really do. But I’m sticking to my diet. John: Sally, nobody sticks to a diet!

Sally: I know a lot of people give in but I’m not.

John: OK, the truth is, I’ve got two free tickets to the Mexican place. So go on, come with me! Sally: That’s a real pity. If I hadn’t been sticking to my diet, I would love to have come with you. John: OK, Japanese it is, then!

Constructive Feedback

Constructive feedback is a way to tell someone what you liked or didn’t like about them. It does it in a way that avoids being flattering on the one hand or critical on the other. The key to constructive feedback is to focus your comments on people’s behaviour, not on them as individuals. This works because people can easily change what they do; they cannot change who they are. Here are five ways to give feedback that is sincere and well-meant.

1. Tell people why you like something about them.

“Jean, I like your haircut; it really sets off your eyes.”

2. Use their name. “John, your shoes really go with that new suit of yours.”

3. Use positive language.

Not: “Too bad you missed out on the job.”

But: “I think you did very well to get an interview. What do you think you can do to turn it into an offer?”

4. Use a relayed positive. “Ali, I hear you’re about the best person around on interview techniques. Can you help us...?”

5. Ask for someone’s help or advice. “Fred, can you help us...?”

Most of our communication is the result of habit which, by being lazy and habitual, can damage relationships. Practice the above techniques and your communication and relationships will be transformed.

Key Points

1. Instead of blaming others for how they feel, the assertive person takes responsibility for their own feelings no matter what triggered them.

2. Assertive people may condemn what people do but never condemn what people are.

3. Assertive people hesitate to use words like “never” and “always” about others.

4. An assertive request may tell others how much you want something but doesn’t force others to comply.

5. Asking for time is a useful way of not agreeing with what others want just to please them.

6. Fogging is a useful technique to respond to criticism because it agrees with any truth in the criticism.

Managing Assertively

The role of the workplace manager has undergone profound changes in the past few years. Gone is the old-style manager who viewed people as a resource on the balance sheet and in has come a new-style manager who works through, with, and for others. This change is seismic. It is a change from controlling people as a cost to the business to treating them as the number one profit-producing resource. At the heart of this change is the way of managing assertively. Here are some of the

features of this new style.

Co-operation not Confrontation

Tom Peters describes the old-style manager as a “Nay-sayer” and the new-style manager as a “Yea-sayer”. One kept people down, often through conflict and confrontation, and the other gets the best out of them, through understanding them first and co-operation.

Diversity not Sameness

If you look at any modern workplace, in comparison with the workplace of the past, you’ll see a huge change in the makeup of the workforce. No longer is the predominant worker male, white and middle-class. Nor will they fit into one kind of work pattern. Increasingly, workforces are as diverse as the communities they serve. In such environments, the assertive manager treats everyone with the same respect regardless of background, origin, or personality.

“A pre-requisite of a switched-on organization is perhaps the most difficult to achieve and that is openness of communication. It means a far greater tolerance of difference and a far greater respect for differences of view.” (Sir John Harvey-Jones)

Fairness not Favoritism

One of the features of the modern workplace is the shift towards equalizing opportunity. It is no longer about offering opportunities to those whose face fits but about treating everyone the same, even if they are different.

Power to Do, not Power to Impress

In the past, a manager’s authority rested on his positional power. His status was enough to ensure his authority. Today, position carries less power. What matters is his or her ability to get things done.

Openness not Secrecy

Much of the change in workplaces over the last 50 years has arisen because of the shift from Industrial-based businesses to Information-based ones. The typical modern worker is not a manual

worker working with their hands but a knowledge worker working with their brains. This has shifted power away from the hierarchy and to the workforce. Consequently, it is more important than ever to work with people not against them, to share not hide, and to be open and trusting, not secretive and suspicious.

Leaders not just Managers

The difference between leaders and managers is a difference in emphasis. While managers work with resources, leaders work with people. Resources are computable, but people need to be understood. Resources do what they're told, people respond to you as an individual and your ability to inspire and motivate.

Motivating the Team

Research shows that most team leaders use a variety of approaches when they want the team to do something. These include:

1. Being vague: e.g. "We ought to be turning out more production."
2. Using threats: e.g. "If you don't work more quickly, I'll have to report you."
3. Giving reasons without engaging the workers: e.g. "If we miss the dispatch date, the orders will be lost."
4. Pleading: e.g. "Please finish the work more quickly, or I'll be in trouble."
5. Bribing: e.g. "I'll see you have it easy tomorrow if you finish on time."
6. Nice requests: e.g. "Would you please increase production by 12 %?"
7. Being assertive: e.g. "The output has to increase by 12% in order to meet our plan. I'd like us to do it and I believe we can."

Integrity not Dictatorship

All of these shifts require managers to be of a different breed from the past. Their effectiveness relies on them having personal qualities such as integrity, honesty, and assertiveness. They are no longer characterized by being dictatorial, forceful, and controlling; but by being flexible, approachable, and open.

Outdated Models

In organizations whose management style is based on the models of the Industrial Revolution.

- Technology comes first, people come second
- The organization resembles a machine which is controlled by management and only occasionally needs maintained
- People have fixed needs that can be manipulated by offering or withdrawing money
- Managers are machine controllers
- Power is hierarchical and concentrated at the top
- Relationships are laid down by edict from the top and described on an organization chart
- People do what they're told because managers have the power to make them.

New Models

In organizations whose management style is based on the models of the Information Revolution,

- People come first; technology exists to serve people
- The organization resembles a community of people like a large village
- People cannot be controlled without a price to pay
- People's value lies in what they know and how this knowledge can be used for the benefit of the customer
- Everyone involved in the organization is an equal stakeholder
- Managers are leaders who create the conditions for growth
- Power is anarchic because everyone has knowledge and so everyone has power
- Relationships are determined by personal and interpersonal skills such as assertiveness.

Many of the skills needed of the modern manager rest on their ability to get the best out of others. They need to be excellent communicators and people workers. It is no wonder that the best modern managers are also assertive managers.

Key Points

1. Old organizational models based on the industrial revolution and the military are being replaced

by new models based on an assertive view of people .

2. A key difference in how people are managed today is the change from confrontation to co-operation.
3. The assertive manager sees the relationship with others as a win-win one, not a win-lose one.
4. One reason why management must change is the more diverse makeup of the workforce.
5. In today's business world, it matters far less who people are and far more what value they add.
6. In highly competitive environments, you cannot afford to treat your staff or customers badly.

Part A (ONE Mark)

Multiple Choice Questions

Online Examination

Part B (2 Marks)

1. What is assertiveness?
2. What do you mean by assertive communication?
3. Distinguish between aggressiveness and assertiveness.
4. How to enhance individual assertiveness?
5. What are the tools used in assertive training?

Part C (8 Marks)

1. Discuss the characteristics of an assertive person.
2. Write an Assertive Business Letter to your customer
3. How to be assertive by one self?
4. Don't say YES when you want to say NO. Explain.
5. What are the Assertive qualities that a manager should possess?
6. Discuss the nature and importance of assertive training and explain how it is relevant to organizational life.
7. Of what value is assertiveness training to the modern manager? Would it have any value for subordinates? Discuss.
8. Explain the pitfalls for effective writing?
9. Explain the tools for good writing and tips for writing efficiently?
10. Elucidate assertive training?

PART - A

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Non Assertive is -	Submissive	Assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Submissive
Assertive behaviour is ---	Open	selfish	closed	no trust	Open
Aggressive behaviour include bothering about ---	Sentiments	Concern	Attitude	Beliefs	Beliefs
Person not acknowledging his own right is	Assertive	non-assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Non Assertive
Denying the rights of Others is	Assertive	non-assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Aggressive
Negative assertions includes	Acceptance of errors and faults	Recognition of errors and faults	Defensive of errors and faults	Fogging	Acceptance of errors and faults
A skill that teaches clam repetition	Broken record	Fogging	Free information and self disclosure	Negatives assertion	Broken record
A skill that teaches the acceptance of manipulative criticism	Broken record	Fogging	Free information and self disclosure	Negatives assertion	Fogging
A skill that teaches the recognition of simple cues by a social partner	Broken record	Fogging	Free information and self disclosure	Negatives assertion	Free information and self disclosure
A skill that teaches acceptance of your errors and faults	Broken record	Fogging	Free information and self disclosure	Negatives assertion	Negatives assertion
A skill that teaches the active prompting of criticism to improve communication	Negative inquiry	Broken record	Fogging	Free information	Negative inquiry

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Recognition of non-verbal content is an area of learning which facilitates	Negative inquiry	Behavioural changes	Fogging	Broken Record	Behavioural changes
When being assertive, a person establishes	Good eye contact	wandering eyes	no steady voice	no self confidence	Good eye contact
A aggressive response is expressed by	Good eye contact	Pointing a finger	Steady voice	open talk	Pointing a finger
--- are called upon to use writing skills every day	Business executives	Children	House wife	Internet	Business executives
Your business letters are----	Notes	Sales letters	Internet	stories	Sales letters
--- are selling goodwill , yourself, your company or your product	Business letters	Shops	Salesman	Internet	Business letters
You learn to write by ----	Reading	Practising	Writing	Noticing	Writing
--- is easier than writing	Drawing	Speaking	Drafting	Reading	Speaking
---- is the first draft	Dictating	Writing	Printing	Editing	Dictating
Defining a word is just the	Beginning	Enoting	Success	Failure	Beginning
--- are expressions used so many times that they have lost their meaning	Clichés	Sentence	Perception	Working	Clichés
----- is an approach to training to improve interpersonal skills.	Human problems	Transactional analysis	Nurturing	Animal Problems	Transactional analysis

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
A Person acknowledging his rights as well as others rights is _____	Assertive	non-assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Assertive
_____ should be used to brighten the intelligibility of a subject which is obscure	style	Ambition	Mediator	perception	style
Writing should be _____	Simple & natural	Very short	Colourful	Dull	Simple & natural
Imitation of another writers style is _____	Good	Average	Dangerous	Bad	Dangerous
_____ is like wearing mask	Art	Irritation	Drawing	Drafting	Irritation
Writer of a business letter stand between the firm and the correspondent as an _____	Interpreter	Mediator	Writer	Thinker	Interpreter
A business letter should have _____	Personality	Variability	Differentiability	Originality	Personality
Some people think that style of writing is like a line, but in fact it is the _____ of a line	Straightness	Length	Breadth	Width	Straightness
The action of stating positively, declaring or claiming is _____	Assertive	non-assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Assertive
The ability to cope with manipulation and criticism is _____	Assertive	non-assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Assertive

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
_____ paradoxically is the outward sign of depth of thought	Simplicity	Creativity	Artificiality	Reality	Simplicity
You stand between your firm and your correspondent as _____	Writer	Interpreter	Mediator	Thinker	Interpreter
Letter formulas are like _____ around which we mould the flesh of thoughts	Bodies	Skeleton	Bones	Skin	Skeleton
A Slumped body posture or downcast eyes are responses of _____	Assertive	non-assertive	Aggressive	Non aggressive	Non Assertive
Writing a letter is not _____	Routine	Periodic	Common	Formal	Routine
Macbeth is about _____	Achievement	Ambition	Goal	Strategy	Ambition
_____ is an important communication medium as noted by adage	Value	Action	Expression	Picture	Action
_____ is submissive or denying one's own right	aggressive	non-assertive	assertive	counselling	non-assertive
The right to make mistakes to set one's own priorities is _____	aggressive	non-assertive	assertive	counselling	assertive
To maintain others need as important than our own need is _____	aggressive	non-assertive	assertive	counselling	non-assertive
Refuse requests without feeling guilty is _____	aggressive	non-assertive	assertive	counselling	assertive

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Taking responsibility for one's own behaviour is	aggressive	non-assertive	assertive	counselling	assertive
Which is not bossing or dominating	aggressive	non-assertive	assertive	counselling	assertive
Accepting the criticism calmly is known as	Broken record	Fogging	Self disclosure	assumptions	Fogging
Do not compromise if the end goal is affected by	Self worth	Self help	ourselves	our goal	self worth
Who has to use writing skills everyday	workers	Business people	supervisors	laymen	Business people
_____ is the important tool for a business writer	laptop	Dictionary	paper	board	Dictionary
Which is a useful guide for choosing appropriate words	Story book	others materials	Thesaurus	Our materials	Thesaurus
Eliminating unnecessary words is called	concise	clear	complete	Appropriate	concise
Checking all information for accuracy is known as	correct	concise	complete	Appropriate	correct
Using right tone and pleasant language is called as	correct	concise	complete	Appropriate	Appropriate
Supplying all relevant information to the reader is meant to be	harried	clear	complete	Appropriate	complete

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Presenting the information in an orderly way is known as	concise	clear	complete	Appropriate	clear
Redundant phrases say the same thing	once	twice	thrice	never say	twice
In a YES letter, say the Yes	Quickly	Lately	slowly	end of letter	Quickly
When answering a complaint, make the customer feel that you have taken the complaint	lovably	Seriously	disgustingly	unknowingly	seriously
In a NO letter, first write something that is	Negative	Positive	Unwanted	Unreal	Positive

UNIT-IV – TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

SYLLABUS

Transaction Analysis - Ego states – Exclusion – Contamination – Strokes - Life position - Type of transactions - Time Structure – Withdrawal, Rituals, Pastimes, Activities, Games-types, Stamps, Racket and Sweat shirts, Scripts - Advantage and Disadvantage of TA.

Transactional Analysis is a theory developed by Dr. Eric Berne in the 1950s. Originally trained in psychoanalysis, Berne wanted a theory which could be understood and available to everyone and began to develop what came to be called Transactional Analysis (TA). Transactional Analysis is a social psychology and a method to improve communication. The theory outlines how we have developed and treat ourselves, how we relate and communicate with others, and offers suggestions and interventions which will enable us to change and grow. Transactional Analysis is underpinned by the philosophy that:

- people can change
- we all have a right to be in the world and be accepted

Transactional Analysis was founded by Eric Berne, and the famous 'parent adult child' theory is still being developed today. Transactional Analysis has wide applications in clinical, therapeutic, organizational and personal development, encompassing communications, management, personality, relationships and behaviour.

Roots of transactional analysis

Throughout history, and from all standpoints: philosophy, medical science, religion; people have believed that each man and woman has a multiple nature. In the early 20th century, Sigmund Freud first established that the human psyche is multi-faceted, and that each of us has warring factions in our subconscious. Since then, new theories continue to be put forward, all concentrating on the essential conviction that each one of us has parts of our personality which surface and affect our behaviour according to different circumstances.

In 1951 Dr Wilder Penfield began a series of scientific experiments. Penfield proved, using conscious human subjects, by touching a part of the brain (the temporal cortex) with a weak electrical probe, that the brain could be caused to 'play back' certain past experiences, and the feelings associated with them. The patients 'replayed' these events and their feelings despite not normally being able to recall them using their conventional memories.

Penfield's experiments went on over several years, and resulted in wide acceptance of the following conclusions:

- The human brain acts like a tape recorder, and whilst we may 'forget' experiences, the brain still has them recorded.
- Along with events the brain also records the associated feelings, and both feelings and events stay locked together.
- It is possible for a person to exist in two states simultaneously (because patients replaying hidden events and feelings could talk about them objectively at the same time).
- Hidden experiences when replayed are vivid, and affect how we feel at the time of replaying.
- There is a certain connection between mind and body, i.e. the link between the biological and the psychological, e.g. a psychological fear of spiders and a biological feeling of nausea.

Early transactional analysis theory and model

In the 1950's Eric Berne began to develop his theories of Transactional Analysis. He said that verbal communication, particularly face to face, is at the centre of human social relationships and psychoanalysis.

His starting-point was that when two people encounter each other, one of them will speak to the other. This he called the Transaction Stimulus. The reaction from the other person he called the Transaction Response.

The person sending the Stimulus is called the Agent. The person who responds is called the Respondent.

Transactional Analysis became the method of examining the transaction wherein: 'I do something to you, and you do something back'.

Phases of TA Formulation

1st Phase (1955-1962)

- Berne developed the concept of ego states.
- Three ego states: parent, child, adult.

2nd Phase (1962-1966)

- Concentrated on ideas about transactions and games.
- International Transactional Analysis Association formed.

3rd Phase (1966-1970)

- Emphasized the reasons some individuals choose to play games in life.

4th Phase (1970 on)

- He and his followers emphasized action and energy distribution.

The Ego-State (or Parent-Adult-Child, PAC) model

At any given time, a person experiences and manifests their personality through a mixture of behaviours, thoughts and feelings. Typically, according to TA, there are three ego-states that people consistently use:

- **Parent ("exteropsych"):** a state in which people behave, feel, and think in response to an unconscious mimicking of how their parents (or other parental figures) acted, or how they interpreted their parent's actions. For example, a person may shout at someone out of frustration because they learned from an influential figure in childhood the lesson that this seemed to be a way of relating that worked.
- **Adult ("neopsych"):** a state of the ego which is most like a computer processing information and making predictions absent of major emotions that cloud its operation. Learning to strengthen the

Adult is a goal of TA. While a person is in the Adult ego state, he/she is directed towards an objective appraisal of reality.

- **Child ("archaeopsych"):** a state in which people behave, feel and think similarly to how they did in childhood. For example, a person who receives a poor evaluation at work may respond by looking at the floor, and crying or pouting, as they used to when scolded as a child. Conversely, a person who receives a good evaluation may respond with a broad smile and a joyful gesture of thanks. The Child is the source of emotions, creation, recreation, spontaneity and intimacy

Ego-states do not correspond directly to Sigmund Freud's Ego, Superego and Id, although there are obvious parallels. Ego states are consistent for each person and are argued by TA practitioners as more readily observable than the parts in Freud's hypothetical model. In other words, the particular ego state that a given person is communicating from is determinable by external observation and experience.

There is no "universal" ego-state; each state is individually and visibly manifested for each person. For example, each Child ego state is unique to the childhood experiences, mentality, intellect, and family of each individual; it is not a generalized childlike state.

Ego states can become contaminated, for example, when a person mistakes Parental rules and slogans, for here-and-now Adult reality, and when beliefs are taken as facts. Or when a person "knows" that everyone is laughing at them because "they always laughed". This would be an example of a childhood contamination, insofar as here-and-now reality is being overlaid with memories of previous historic incidents in childhood.

The Parent ego state:

- Thinking and responding influenced by our parent's way of interacting with us
- Filled with values, injunctions, shoulds & ought's, and behaviors internalized from childhood.

The Parent is subdivided into 2 parts:

1.The Nurturing Parent

- Internalized messages that were loving, supporting and accepting

- Results in adult nurturing responses

2. The Critical Parent

- Internalized messages that were rejecting, controlling, and judgmental
- Results in adult critical responses

The Adult ego state:

The objective part of personality

- It processes information
- Has no feeling
- Asks factual questions: what, when, why?
- Mediates between Parent and Child
- Focuses on decision-making
- Presents situations in an organized and intelligent way.

The Child ego state:

- Child-like; reflects the little boy/girl that never grows up
- Reflects child-like feelings
- Is fun-loving, affectionate, selfish, mean, playful, whiny, manipulative, spontaneous

It is divided into 2 parts:

1. The Natural/Free Child

- Impulsive, pleasure-seeking, uninhibited, aggressive, rebellious, creative, affectionate, etc.

2. The Adapted Child

- Ignores own instincts and tries to please parents
- Duplicates reactions individuals had toward parents in childhood including feelings, such as guilt, fear, and anger
- It complies, procrastinates, negotiates

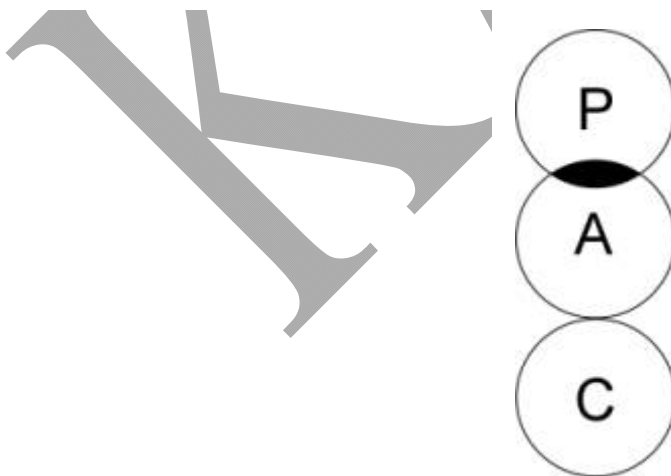
Ego State Boundary Problems

Contamination –

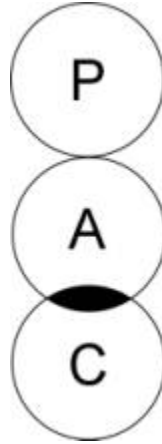
When Adult ego state is interfered with by the prejudicial or irrational ideas of the Parent.
(Parent contaminates Adult)

The word contamination for many conjures up the idea of disease. For instance, we tend to use the word for when bacteria has gone into milk. Well, this is similar to the case with the contaminated Integrating Adult ego state. This occurs when we talk as if something is a fact or a reality when really this is a belief. Racism is an example of this. The Integrating Adult ego state is contaminated in this case by the Parent ego state. If we are white we might have lived with parents or significant others who said such things as "Black people take our jobs". Growing up it is likely, that having no real experience to go by, we believed this. We might also have been told that Black people are aggressive. In our Child ego state may well lodge some scared feelings about Black people and in this ego state we may start to believe "All Black people are scary". This would mean that there would be a double contamination of the Integrating Adult ego state. However, we would think that such statements were facts rather than beliefs and when this happens we say that this is Integrating Adult ego syntonic. That is, they fit with the Integrating Adult ego state and only those people outside of our situation and sometimes outside of our peer group or culture can see that, objectively, such beliefs are just that and therefore they can be changed.

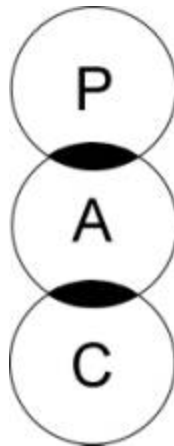
Parent contamination



Child contamination



Double contamination (Parent and Child)



Analysis of Transactions – Functional analysis

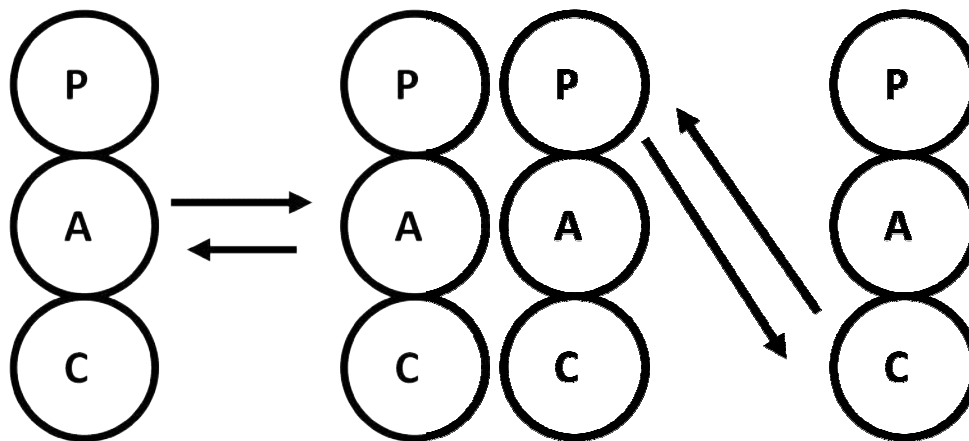
Diagnosing the ego states that emerge in a social interchange

Three kinds of transactions:

1. Complimentary transactions
2. Crossed transactions
3. Ulterior transactions.

Complimentary Transactions

- Lines of communication are parallel
- Communication can proceed smoothly and indefinitely.



A simple, reciprocal transaction occurs when both partners are addressing the ego state the other is in. These are also called complementary transactions.

Example 1

A: "Have you been able to write the report?"

B: "Yes - I'm about to email it to you." ----(This exchange was Adult to Adult)

Example 2

A: "Would you like to skip this meeting and go watch a film with me instead?"

B: "I'd love to - I don't want to work anymore, what should we go and see?" (Child to Child)

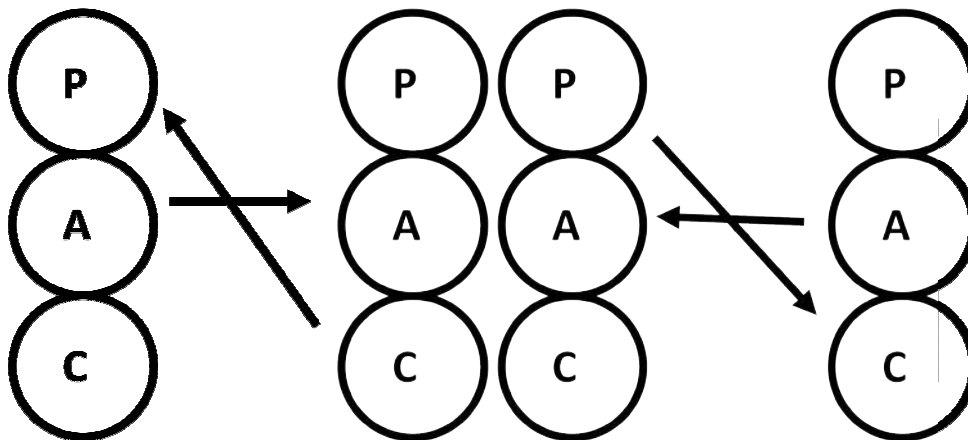
Example 3

A: "You should have your room tidy by now!" (Parent to Child)

B: "Will you stop hassling me? I'll do it eventually!" (Child to Parent)

Crossed Transactions

- Lines of communication are crossed
- Communication is broken off
- Relationship breaks down.



Communication failures are typically caused by a 'crossed transaction' where partners address ego states other than that their partner is in. Consider the above examples jumbled up a bit.

Example 1a:

A: "Have you been able to write that report?" (Adult to Adult)

B: "Will you stop hassling me? I'll do it eventually!" (Child to Parent)

In this crossed transaction likely to produce problems in the workplace. "A" may respond with a Parent to Child transaction. For instance:

A: "If you don't change your attitude, you'll get fired."

Example 2a:

A: "Is your room tidy yet?" (Parent to Child)

B: "I'm just going to do it, actually." (Adult to Adult)

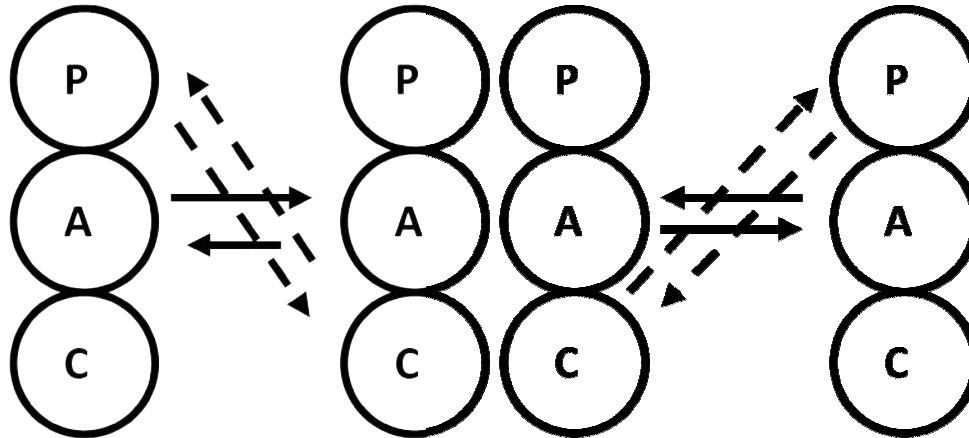
In this a more positive crossed transaction. However there is the risk that "A" will feel aggrieved that "B" is acting responsibly and not playing their role, and the conversation will develop into:

A: "I can never trust you to do things!" (Parent to Child)

B: "Why don't you believe anything I say?" (Adult to Adult)

Ulterior Transactions

- Two messages are sent, one overt, the other implied and unspoken
- Can lead to repetitive game playing.



STROKES

In Transactional Analysis we call compliments and general ways of giving recognition strokes. This name came from research which indicated that babies require touching in order to survive and grow. It apparently makes no difference whether the touching induces pain or pleasure - it is still important. On the whole we prefer to receive negative strokes than no strokes at all, at least that way we know we exist and others know we exist.

We all have particular strokes we will accept and those we will reject. For example, if we have always been told we are clever, and our brother is creative, then we are likely to accept strokes for being clever, but not for being creative. From this frame of reference only one person in the family can be the creative one and so on.

Stroking can be physical, verbal or nonverbal. It is likely that the great variety of stroke needs and styles present in the world results from differences in wealth, cultural mores, and methods of parenting.

The stroke economy

Claude Steiner suggests that, as children, we are all indoctrinated by our parents with five restrictive rules about stroking.

- don't give strokes when we have them to give
- don't ask for strokes when we need them
- don't accept strokes if we want them
- don't reject strokes when we don't want them
- don't give ourselves strokes

Together these five rules are the basis of what Steiner calls the stroke economy. By training children to obey these rules, says Steiner, parents ensure that "... a situation in which strokes could be available in a limitless supply is transformed into a situation in which the supply is low and the price parents can extract for them is high."

We therefore need to change the restrictive rules to unrestrictive ones:

- give strokes when we have them to give
- ask for strokes when we want them
- accept strokes if we want them
- reject manipulative strokes
- give ourselves positive strokes

Strokes can be positive or negative:

- A) "I like you"
- B) "I don't like you"

Strokes can be unconditional or conditional. An unconditional stroke is a stroke for being whereas a conditional stroke is a stroke for doing. For instance:

"I like you" - unconditional

"I like you when you smile" - conditional

As negative strokes these might be:

"I don't like you" - negative unconditional

"I don't like you when you're sarcastic" - negative conditional

People often have a stroke filter. They only let in strokes which they think they are allowed to let in. For instance they allow themselves to receive strokes for being clever and keep out strokes for being good looking. When people move job to job changes in stroking pattern become obvious.

The basic concept in TA is that people want and need care, attention, love and recognition. Children show off a new dress, or get naughty to get attention. The grownups get recognition by working hard, deliberately making mistakes, coming late etc

LIFE POSITIONS

1. Early in life, individuals take a position regarding their intrinsic worth and that of others
2. Environmental experiences influence these positions
3. Four life positions:
 1. "I'm okay - you're okay."
 2. "I'm okay - you're not okay."
 3. "I'm not okay - you're okay."
 4. "I'm not okay - you're not okay."

Life positions are basic beliefs about self and others, which are used to justify decisions and behaviour.

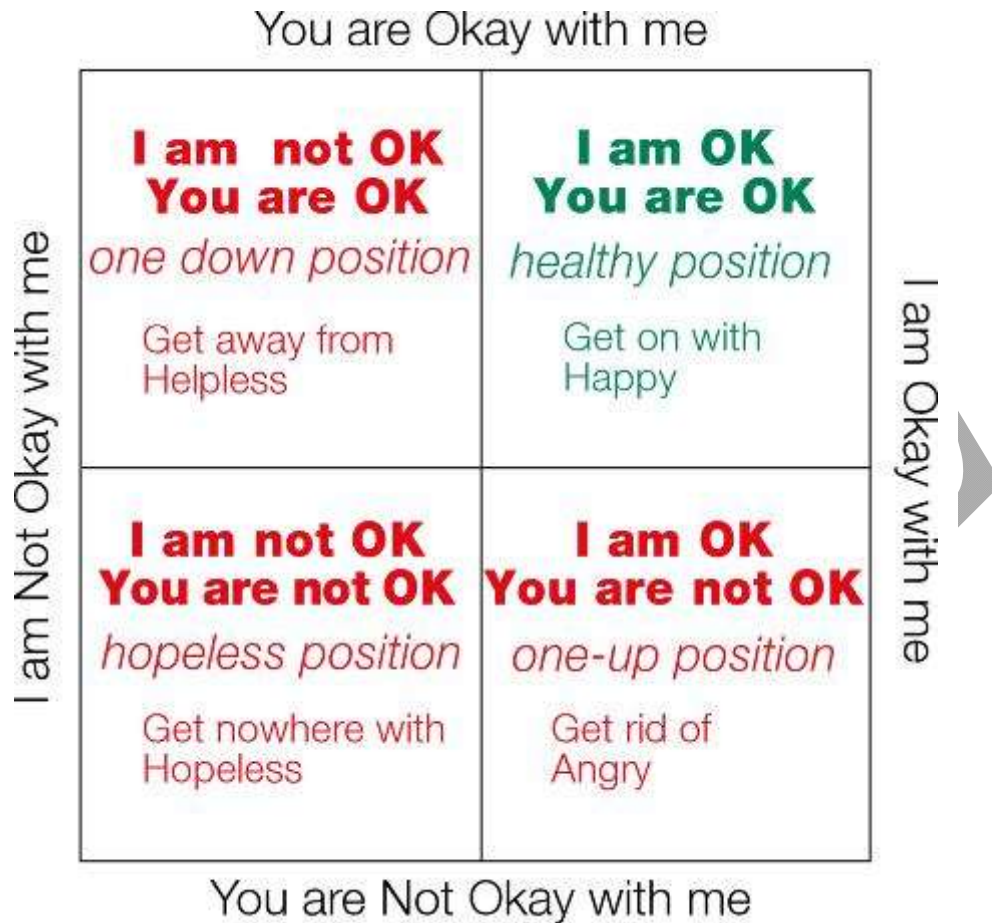
Let's take a situation. Perhaps we were picked on and bullied as a child. We learnt that the way to get by was to bully others and that way we felt stronger and in control. Our behaviour then comes into the I am OK and You are not OK quadrant. Of course this may cover up our belief that we are really not OK, but nobody sees that. They just see our behaviour, and in fact we may have forgotten all about our negative feelings about ourselves as we have tried so hard to deny the pain of believing we are not OK.

These life positions are perceptions of the world. The reality is I just am and you just are, therefore how I view myself and others are just that "views" not fact. However, we tend to act as if they are a fact. Just like when somebody says "I can't do this, I'm useless". Rather than "I don't know how to do this. Will you show me?" The latter is staying with the fact that they do not yet know how to do it, whilst the former links being useless with not being able to do something.

There are a number of ways of diagramming the life positions. Franklin Ernst drew the life positions in quadrants, which he called the OK Corral (1971). Ernst used the term 'Corralogram' for this method of self-assessment using the OK Corral matrix.

Berne talked about the life positions as existential positions, one of which we are more likely to go to under stress. This is significantly different to the concept Ernst uses, i.e. that we move around them all during the day. Whilst there is some truth in this we could agree with Berne that there will be one major position we go into under stress, with perhaps another position underneath this one. These positions can change as we develop and grow. The difference between Berne and Ernst is important.

THE OK CORRAL (FRANKLIN ERNST, 1971)



There is also the way in which we view life itself. If we consider that there is something wrong with us, and that others are not to be trusted and are not OK either, then the world would be a scary place and we are likely to experience life as tough and believe we will only be all right if we keep alert and on the lookout for danger and difficulties.

THE SCRIPT

The script is a life plan, made when we are growing up. It is like having the script of a play in front of us - we read the lines and decide what will happen in each act and how the play will end.

The script is developed from our early decisions based upon our life experience. We may not realize that we have set ourselves a plan

Life Script

- Script is a life plan, directed to a reward.
- Script is decisional and responsive; i.e., decided upon in childhood in response to perceptions of the world and as a means of living with and making sense of the world. It is not just thrust upon a person by external forces.
- Script is reinforced by parents (or other influential figures and experiences).
- Script is for the most part outside awareness.
- Script is how we navigate and what we look for; the rest of reality is redefined (distorted) to match our filters.

Each culture, country and people in the world has a Mythos, that is, a legend explaining its origins, core beliefs and purpose. According to TA, so do individual people. A person begins writing his/her own life story (script) at a young age, as he/she tries to make sense of the world and his place within it. Although it is revised throughout life, the core story is selected and decided upon typically by age 7. As adults it passes out of awareness. A life script might be "to be hurt many times, and suffer and make others feel bad when I die", and could result in a person indeed setting himself up for this, by adopting behaviours in childhood that produce exactly this effect. Though Berne identified several dozen common scripts, there are a practically infinite number of them. Though often largely destructive, scripts could as easily be mostly positive or beneficial.

Redefining and Discounting

- ***Redefining*** means the distortion of reality when we deliberately (but unconsciously) distort things to match our preferred way of seeing the world. Thus a person whose script involves "struggling alone against a cold hard world" may redefine others' kindness, concluding that others are trying to get something by manipulation.

▪ **Discounting** means to take something as worth less than it is. Thus to give a substitute reaction which does not originate as a here-and-now Adult attempt to solve the actual problem, or to choose not to see evidence that would contradict one's script. Types of discount can also include: passivity (doing nothing), over-adaptation, agitation, incapacitation, anger and violence.

Injunctions and Drivers

TA identifies twelve key injunctions which people commonly build into their scripts. These are injunctions in the sense of being powerful "I can't/mustn't ..." messages that embed into a child's belief and life-script:

- Don't be (don't exist)
- Don't be who you are
- Don't be a child
- Don't grow up
- Don't make it in your life
- Don't do anything!
- Don't be important
- Don't belong
- Don't be close
- Don't be well (don't be sane!)
- Don't think
- Don't feel.

In addition there is the so called epi-script:

"You should (or deserve to) have this happen in your life, so it doesn't have to happen to me." (Magical thinking on the part of the parent(s))

Against these, a child is often told other things he or she must do. There is debate as to whether there are five or six of these 'drivers':

- Please (me/others)!

- Be perfect!
- Be Strong!
- Try Hard!
- Hurry Up!
- Be Careful! (is in dispute)

Thus in creating his script, a child will often attempt to juggle these, example: "It's okay for me to go on living (ignore *don't exist*) so long as I *try hard*".

This explains why some change is in ordinate difficult. To continue the above example: When a person stops *trying hard* and relaxes to be with his family, the injunction *You don't have the right to exist* which was being suppressed by their script now becomes exposed and a vivid threat. Such an individual may feel a massive psychological pressure which he himself doesn't understand, to return to *trying hard*, in order to feel safe and justified (in a childlike way) in *existing*.

Driver behaviour is also detectable at a very small scale, for instance in instinctive responses to certain situations where driver behaviour is played out over five to twenty seconds.

Broadly speaking, scripts can fall into Tragic, Heroic or Banal (or Non-Winner) varieties, depending on their rules.

Ways of Time Structuring

There are six ways of structuring time by giving and receiving strokes:

1. Withdrawal
2. Ritual
3. Pastimes
4. Activity
5. Games
6. Intimacy

This is sorted in accordance to stroke strength, Intimacy and Games to in general allow for the most intensive strokes.

Withdrawal

This means no strokes are being exchanged. When people are physically present but emotionally absent, they have **withdrawn**.

People withdraw when they fear negative strokes which they cannot accept.

Withdrawal is not abnormal unless people resort to it with great frequency

Rituals

A ritual is a series of transactions that are complementary (reciprocal), stereotyped and based on social programming. Rituals usually comprise a series of strokes exchanged between two parties.

For instance, two people may have a daily two stroke ritual, where, the first time they meet each day, each one greets the other with a "Hi". Others may have a four stroke ritual, such as:

A: Hi!

B: Hi! How do you do?

A: Getting along. What about you?

B: Fine. See you around.

The next time they meet in the day, they may not exchange any strokes at all, or may just acknowledge each other's presence with a curt nod.

Some phenomena associated with daily rituals:

- If a person exchanges fewer strokes than expected, the other person may feel that he is either preoccupied or acting high and mighty.
- If a person exchanges more strokes than expected, the other person might wonder whether he is trying to butter him up or get on good terms for some vested interests.
- If two people do not meet for a long time, a backlog of strokes gets built up, so that the next time they meet, they may exchange a large number of strokes to *catch up*.

Pastimes

A pastime is a series of transactions that is complementary (reciprocal), semi-ritualistic, and is mainly intended as a time-structuring activity. Pastimes have no covert purpose and can usually be carried out only between people on the same wavelength. They are usually shallow and harmless. Pastimes are a type of small talk.

Individuals often partake in similar pastimes throughout their entire life, as pastimes are generally very much linked to one's life script and the games that one often plays. Some pastimes can even be understood as a reward for playing a certain game. For example, Eric Berne in *Games People Play* discusses how those who play the "Alcoholic" game (which Berne differentiated from alcoholism and alcoholics) often enjoy the "Morning After" pastime in which participants share their most amusing or harrowing hangover stories.

Activities (Work)

Activities in this context mean the individuals work together for a common goal. This may be work, sports or something similar. In contrast to Pastimes, there is a meaningful purpose guiding the interactions, while Pastimes are just about exchanging strokes. Strokes can then be given in the context of the cooperation. Thus the strokes are generally not personal, but related to the activity.

Intimacy

Intimacy as a way of structuring time allows one to exchange the strongest strokes without playing a Game. Intimacy differs from Games as there is no covert purpose, and differs from Activities as there is no other process going on which defines a context of cooperation. Strokes are personal, relating to the other person, and often unconditional.

Games

His definition of 'game' was '*sets of ulterior transactions, repetitive in nature, with a well defined psychological 'pay off'*'. In other words, an interaction with a hidden motive where one of the participants is gaining something underhand from the encounter. Games are played by people in order to avoid intimacy. Games leave both players with Not-O.K. feelings

Everyone must have been in the situation where we have said, "Why does this always keep happening to me" or "I always keep meeting people who hurt me and then go off and leave me". Sometimes it may be that we like to help people and then it goes wrong as the person we were trying to help says that we didn't do it well enough and that we got it wrong. We might think "Well, I was only trying to help" and feel got at.

When similar situations keep happening over and over again then the term Transactional Analysis uses for this is a game. A game is a familiar pattern of behaviour with a predictable outcome. Games are played outside Adult awareness and they are our best attempt to get our needs met - although of course we don't.

Games are learned patterns of behaviour, and most people play a small number of favorite games with a range of different people and in varying intensities.

- **First Degree games** are played in social circles generally lead to mild upsets not major traumas.
- **Second Degree games** occur when the stakes may be higher. This usually occurs in more intimate circles, and ends up with an even greater negative payoff.
- **Third Degree games** involve tissue damage and may end up in the jail, hospital or morgue.

Chris Davidson (2002) has argued that world politics can involve fourth degree games - where the outcomes involve whole communities, countries or even the world.

Games vary in the length of time that passes while they are being played. Some can take seconds or minutes while others take weeks months or even years. People play games for these reasons:

- to structure time
- to acquire strokes
- to maintain the substitute feeling and the system of thinking, beliefs and actions that go with it
- to confirm parental injunctions and further the life script
- to maintain the person's life position by "proving" that self/others are not OK

- to provide a high level of stroke exchange while blocking intimacy and maintaining distance
- To make people predictable.

Ways to deal with games

There are various ways to stop a game, including the use of different options than the one automatically used. We can:

- Cross the transaction by responding from a different ego state than the one the stimulus is designed to hook.
- Pick up the ulterior rather than the social message e.g. when a person says "I can't do this, I'm useless". Rather than saying, "Let me do this for you," instead say, "It sounds like you have a problem. What do you want me to do about it?" (said from the Adult ego state)
- The opening message to the game always entails a discount. There are further discounts at each stage of the game. By detecting discounts we can identify game invitations and defuse them with options. (A discount is when we minimize, maximize or ignore some aspect of a problem which would assist us in resolving it. Such as saying in a whiny voice "This is too difficult for me to do", so we automatically help them).
- Replace the game strokes. Loss of strokes to the Child ego state means a threat to survival. We get a great many strokes from games, even if they are negative. However, if we don't obtain sufficient positive strokes, or give ourselves positive strokes, we will go for quantity rather than quality of strokes and play games to get them. This loss of strokes is also a loss of excitement that the game has generated.

Another way to think about this is to consider the game role we or the other person is likely to take.

One way to discover this is to ask the following questions:

1. What keeps happening over and over again?
2. How does it start?
3. What happens next?
4. And then what happens?
5. How does it end?

6. How do feel after it ends?

We can then consider the reason we might have taken up a particular role, where we might switch to, and then consider how to do things differently. We need to consider what our own responsibility is in this - if the situation is too violent for us to get involved what options to we have? We could call for help; get others to come with us to intervene and so on. We need to choose the appropriate assistance and take the action required.

RACKETS

- Habitual ways of feeling
- Originating in the experiences we had in growing up
- Often are unpleasant feelings that we hold on to after playing games
- Become a basic part of life's script
- The Guilt Racket, the Depression Racket, the Worry Racket
- Convinces one of his/her not OK position.

STAMP COLLECTING

Brown Stamps - stamps are negative strokes. Collecting too many result in "Not OK" feelings.

Green Stamp - stamps are positive strokes. Collecting these stamps result in "OK" feelings.

- ✓ You should...Cancel or immediately redeem Brown Stamps.
(Some "Not OK" people store brown stamps and redeem them in quantity via heated arguments, fights, take advantage of others, even murder).
- ✓ You Should...Collect Green Stamps!

Roles of the Counselor

- Must act as a teacher and explain to the client the language and concepts of TA.
- Contracts with the client for specific changes and helps the person achieve them.
- Does not rely heavily on formal psychological tests, although a counselor does assess client functioning.

- Assessment is done to determine how a client is spending time and from which ego states the client is operating.
- Goals
- Identify and restore distorted and damaged ego states.
- Develop the capacity to use all ego states.
- Use the adult ego state with its reasoning powers.
- Alter inappropriate life scripts.
- Adopt a position of “I’m OK, You’re OK.”

TA Techniques

- Treatment contract
- Interrogation
- Specification
- Confrontation
- Illustration
- Confirmation
- Interpretation
- Crystallization

Almost all techniques in TA involve some combination of questioning, confrontation, and dialogue.

Multicultural and Gender Sensitive Issues

- TA has an appeal in many cultures, especially with diverse populations.
- TA also seems to be an appropriate theory in working on gender sensitive issues.
- TA emphasis on empowerment and contracts strengthens the position of women in TA therapy.
- Strengths and Contributions
- Uses terms that are easily understood and clearly defined.
- Can be used in a number of diverse settings.
- Easily and effectively combined with other more action-oriented counseling.

- Puts the responsibility of change on the clients.
- Goal-directed.
- Has a worldwide association that sponsors certifications, conferences, and publications related to the theory?

Limitations and Criticisms

- Limited in its effectiveness when used alone.
- Criticized for its simplicity, structure, and popularity.
- Does not emphasize the authenticity of the counselor.
- The research behind the approach is relatively weak.
- The approach has not developed much since Berne's death in 1970.

Part A (ONE Mark)

Multiple Choice Questions

Online Examination

Part B (2 Marks)

1. What are the various types of strokes?
2. How do we structure our time?
3. What are stamps?
4. Define Rackets?
5. What are the advantages of Transactional Analysis?
6. What is Ego-state?
7. What are the different types of Ego states?
8. List the various transactions?
9. Give an example of three ego states?
10. How does a complementary transaction differ from a crossed transaction?
11. What is Games in TA?
12. Write short notes on i) Withdrawals
 ii) Sweatshirts
13. List out the rules suggested by Eric Berne towards strokes.
14. Give the application of TA in managing interpersonal effectiveness.

Part C (8 Marks)

1. Explain the theory of Transactional Analysis?
2. Trace the historical significance of Transactional Analysis?
3. Explain in detail the various types of Ego states?
4. Bring out the significance of Games?
5. How and why Life positions are considered as crucial and significant?
6. What are the sources of interpersonal conflict? Discuss how TA will help resolve interpersonal conflict?

7. Write short notes on
 - a. Stamps
 - b. Rackets
 - c. Scripts
 - d. Games
8. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of TA.
9. Explain the different types of transactions in Transactional analysis.

PART - A

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
TA is not a Solution for all the ----- in industry.	Human problems	Transactional analysis	Rebellious	happiness	Human problems
Parent is the ----- process of life.	Behaviour	Language	Taught	Good	Taught
----- is the rotating principle of life.	Parent	Child	Adult	Little professor	Adult
The adult gathers data from the ----- world.	Outside	Inside	Behind	Around	Outside
The parent and the --- ego states are commonly subdivided into facets	Adult	Child	Outside	Inside	Child
A distinction is made between the critical parent and the --- parent.	Nurturing	Rebellious	Creative	adaptive	Nurturing
The ----- state has two major facets	Adult ego	Parent ego	Child ego	Little professor	Child ego
The child ego state have a third aspect known as ----	Adult ego	Little professor	Child ego	parent ego	Little professor
The ego states which absorb a great deal of energy much happiness is referred as ----	Internal dialogue	Critical parent	Rebellious	Creative	Internal dialogue
The is something impeded by ----	Contamination	Internal dialogue	Critical parent	Adult	Contamination
A ---- is defined as a unit of recognition	No strokes	Strokes	Hierarch	Positive stroke	Strokes
The psychological -----is derived from strokes	Nitrogen	Carbon dioxide	Hydrogen	Oxygen	Nitrogen
---- contact remains a very powerful strokes throughout the human life	Body	Hand	Skin	nose	Skin
---- strokes are those that help most people to feel good	Positive strokes	Negative stroke	Both	Unconditional	Positive strokes
Never give ---- strokes	Frequent	Physical	Mental	Positive	Physical
---- strokes can quickly multiply and be used to score points	Positive	Conditional	Negative	Both positive and negative	Negative
TA is not only a theory of personality but a theory of ---	Transactions	Confident	Oral	Communication	Communication

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
One ego state explicit to get a response from a particular ego state of other person is ----- transaction	Angular	Crossed	Complementary	Duplex	Complementary
An unexpected response is returned to the initiator is ----	Crossed	Duplex	Angular	Complementary	Crossed
The three ego states are involved an ulterior or psychological message is ----	Duplex	Angular	Complementary	Crossed	Angular
---- involves a psychological message as well as a social	Crossed	Complementary	Angular	Duplex	Duplex
----- transaction involves the breaking up of smooth interaction between people.	Angular	Duplex	Crossed	Complementary	Crossed
----- transaction can add the richness of human contact	Duplex	Angular	Crossed	Complementary	Duplex
--- may be either physical or psychological	Angular	Rituals	Withdrawals	Pastimes	Withdrawals
---- withdrawals occur when an individual find little ongoing events.	Physical	Psychological	Crossed	Duplex	Psychological
Withdrawal may be --- if it happening all times	Physical	Psychological	Dysfunctional	Angular	Dysfunctional
A ---- is a social programme use of time where everybody to do same thing.	Past times	Withdrawals	Rituals	Games	Rituals
---- are transaction where people pass time with one another by talking about non threatening subjects	Games	Past times	Activities	Rituals	Past times
Activities may be rich source of ---- strokes	Positive	Negative	Both	Alternative	Negative
---- are a series of transactions involving two or more people out of 'bad' feeling	Activities	Rituals	Games	Past times	Games
The people involved end up with ---- feelings	Good	Bad	Both a & b	No	Bad
The person who always finds something wrong	Corner	NIGYR	Blemish	Victim	Blemish

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
The person who is always in a hurry & feeling harassed	Harried	Kick me	Rescuer	Corner	Harried
---- collecting is a serious hindrance to effective working relationship	Rockets	Games	Activities	Stamps	Stamps
---- arise from adapter child	Real feelings	Racket feeling	Strokes	Victim	Racket feeling
Mangers are familiar with ---	Sweat shirt	Kick me	Rescuer	Corner	Sweat shirt
---- are defined as non relevant transactions	Games	Victim	Discounts	activities	Discounts
The most powerful idea in transactional analysis is the concept of -----	Discounts	Life scripts	Activities	Rackets	Life scripts
---- gives a new way of looking management and leadership styles	Transactional analysis	Stamps	Scripts	Rackets	Transactional analysis
--- develops alternate plans for accomplishing results	Manager	Subordinates	TA	Performance interviews	Subordinates
----- requires measures not cost record and report the results worth	Subordinates	Adults	Manger	Supervisor	Manger
--- tells how the individual likes to structure time	Manger	Sweat shirt	Racket	Strokes	Sweat shirt
--- operates from a basic 'I am not ok' in position	Discounts	Discounting others	Self discounts	Discounting everyone	Self discounts
The person who saves positive strokes will save--- stamps	Gold	Brown	Silver	Copper	Gold
A little script is a personal plan decided at an --- age	Child	Better	Early	Old	Early
Permit yourself to get into resentful vengeful ---- ego status	Adults	Parents	Facets of parents	child	child
---- probes are possibility of better methods being developed by subordinates	adult	Parent	Manager	child	Manager
----- describe steps required to accomplish objectives	Manager	Subordinates	Parents	Rackets	Subordinates

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
TA gives new ways of looking at--- style	Training	Transaction	Management	Scientific	Management
A ---- is defined as a unit of recognition	No strokes	Strokes	Hierarch	Positive stroke	Strokes
One of the most powerful ideas in transactional analysis is the concept of	stamps	scripts	rackets	activities	scripts
I m OK-You 're OK is referred to people who are	Broken	Unhappy	Fighting	confident	Confident
There are _____ basic life positions	2	3	4	5	4
The person who feels that life is always unfair to him is	Kick me	Poor me	Stupid	Rescuer	Poor Me
The person who contrives to put himself down is	Kick me	Poor me	Stupid	Rescuer	Kick Me
The person who pretends that he cannot understand anything is	Kick me	Poor me	Stupid	Rescuer	Stupid
The position that 'I am Helpless, you are better than me' is	Victim	Persecutor	Blemish	Rescuer	Victim
The position that 'I am better than you, you are inferior' is	Victim	Persecutor	Blemish	Rescuer	Persecutor
Injunctions are	Permissions	Discouragements	encouragement	Discounts	Discouragement
I m not OK Position is expressed in	Discounts	self discounts	Discounting others	encouraging	Self Discounts

UNIT-V – COUNSELING

SYLLABUS

Counseling - Steps - Elements of counseling – Counseling as a helping strategy - Significant Predicating People's Problem - Journey in a Life Space – Anxiety – Causes of anxiety - Counseling to develop organizations - Check list for counselors - Training for counseling

Introduction

Counselling within the workplace can seem a 'soft option' and managers may not accept that they have any need of counselling skills. The skills required for counseling are also crucial for influencing, persuading, resolving conflict, negotiating and enabling development. Whether supporting a member of staff in dealing with a personal difficulty or helping to set targets during an appraisal interview, counseling skills underpin the process of enabling others to improve their performance and sustain their motivation.

What is Counselling?

Counselling is a problem-solving technique which uses a one-on-one process to help employees solve their problems. Job related counseling concentrates on the employee's attitude towards the job and the environment. Counselling not related to job involves personal problems which may not have any direct connection with work

Types of Counselling

Directive counseling: This is complete counseling. The process involves listening to an employee's problem and deciding along with the employee, about what should be done and telling and motivating him to do it.

Non-directive Counselling: this type of counseling is at the opposite end of the continuum. It is process of skillfully listening and encouraging an employee to explain the trouble, understand it and find an appropriate solution

Participative Counselling: this method establishes a cooperative exchange of ideas to help solve the employee's problems. Here, both sides apply their knowledge, perception, skills, perceptive and values to evaluate the problem and find a solution.

Counselling and other interventions:

Traditional forms of training:

- Wholesale transfer of new skills, e.g. change in procedures, new systems, new job functions.
- Programmes are mostly generic and not tailed to individual needs.
- Not always similar to the live working environment to ensure effective skills transfer.
- Best suited to transfer of knowledge and certain skills than the development of personal qualities.

Coaching/Mentoring

- Actively untaps potential.
- Fine tunes and develops skills
- Development activities are designed to suit client's personal needs and learning styles.
- Eliminates specific performance problems.
- Can focus on the interpersonal skills, which cannot be readily or effectively transferred in a traditional training environment.
- Provides client with contacts and networks to assist with futhering their career or life aspirations
- Performed in the live environment
- Highly effective when used as a means of supporting training initiatives to ensure that key skills are transferred to the live environment

- Coaches and mentors transfer the skills to the client rather than doing the job for them.

Counselling

- Explore personal issues and problems through discussion in order to increase understanding greater self awareness.
- The aim of counseling is to lead the client toward self-directed actions to achieve their goals.

Consultancy

- Focus is on developing organizational practices, processes and structure.
- Role generally more strategic and often used to instigate and design broad ranging change programmes.
- It frequently involves expert advice about specific issues and organizational processes.
- Consultants are often brought in to provide specific 'solutions' to business problems and needs.
- Consultant does the job for the organization, rather than the employee/client becoming up-skilled to do the job themselves.

Steps to effective Counselling:

Step 1:

Prepare for the counseling sessions by:

- Thinking through what you want to discuss
- Giving the employees time to prepare
- Ensuring privacy and blocking interruption.

Step 2:

Define the purpose of problem by

- Trying to ascertain and understand the reason behind employees action
- Making it clear that your objective is to help him rather than criticize.

Step 3:

Get the employees views by

- Letting the employee describe the situation
- Being patient while listening to the employee
- Allowing him to vent all the anger and frustration
- Not jumping o conclusions

Step 4:

Clarify the problem by

- Letting the employee state what he believes the problem really is
- Making the employee understand his problem

Step5:

Help the employee develop a solution by

- Asking him to find one
- Suggesting a specific course of action

Step6:

Follow up by

- Agreeing on the action to be taken
- Checking to ensure that the action is not causing further problems

Critical Dimensions of Counselling

Counseling is the process of helping a person who has come to you with a problem to sort out what's happening and how they feel about it, to look at their options, to choose a course of action that fits their values, resources and lifestyles (not yours), to implement their decisions, and to evaluate the practical and emotional results. Counseling is not about mental illness, except rare cases of emergency "first aid" and referral. It is about helping normal, functional people handle the usual problems, opportunities and choices that come up in any life. We do this primarily by providing

them with a safe time and place in which to figure out their own situation, and secondarily by sharing our specialized knowledge and resources with them when asked.

There are several "critical dimensions" of counseling, developed by researchers in the field, and also described in other words by workshop members. They may be mapped as the points of the Counselor's Pentacle. Here are some short definitions of the critical dimensions

Empathy is our ability to perceive the client's feelings, and to demonstrate accurate perception to the client. When the client feels understood, a sense of trust ("rapport") and safety develop. As rapport develops, we may begin to perceive feelings of which the client is not yet conscious. By cautiously and tentatively communicating that perception, we may enable the client to understand and accept ("to own") more of his or her complexity of feelings ("additive empathy"). Additive empathy is not adding feelings the counselor might feel; it is adding conscious understanding of feelings the client is already feeling. The counselor's open acceptance of all feelings permits the client to own feelings that are not conventionally respectable. Knowing how one feels as fully as possible is essential for making proper decisions. (Note: feelings here mean emotional states, not opinions, judgements or physical sensations, although the word is commonly used to mean all of these.)

Warmth is also called "unconditional positive regard." It involves accepting and caring about the client as a person, regardless any evaluation of his behaviors or thoughts. It is most often communicated through our non-verbal behavior.

Respect is our belief in the client's ability to make appropriate decisions and deal appropriately with his or her life situation, when given a safe and supportive environment in which to do so. Often, we show respect best by what we do not do, as when we avoid facile advice giving or cheap comfort. Our ability to sit in silence during a session while the client works out a solution is a manifestation of respect, and so is our willingness to provide information and resources for which the client has asked. A more familiar term might be "empowerment." By respectful behavior, the counselor demonstrates that s/he values the integrity of the client.

Congruence (or genuineness) is being honest and authentic in our dealings with our clients. The minimum it requires is that we only work with clients for whom we can have real empathy, warmth and respect, rather than role-playing or "techniquing" those qualities. It also involves knowing our limits in terms of skills, time and energy and not committing ourselves beyond those limits. Another important component of genuineness is to be aware of how engaging in counseling (or even leadership) fills our own old and unmet needs and how our own emotional agendas from other times and places can color our reactions to our present relationships with clients and group members.

Confidentiality normally means that anything discussed during a counseling session is held as absolutely private and not discussed elsewhere.

Elements of Counselling

The key elements of Counselling are:

- Listening
- The problem at hand
- Bull's eye of the problem
- Recognizing and admitting the problem
- Problem solving process

Listening:

Active listening may be showing the active on-verbal clues as a form of accepting the view points and allowing the person to complete the idea, or even establishing the right and effective eye contact. Active listening has two benefits in counseling they are,

1. Information for further discussion and action
2. A therapeutic effect

The problem at hand

The practical response required from the counselor in this situation is to listen intently and be prepared to help the subordinate open up and go towards the heart of the matter. This would result in

addressing a problem that too a wrong problem. In such case the counselor may continue in wrong problem than to solve it

Bull's eye of the problem

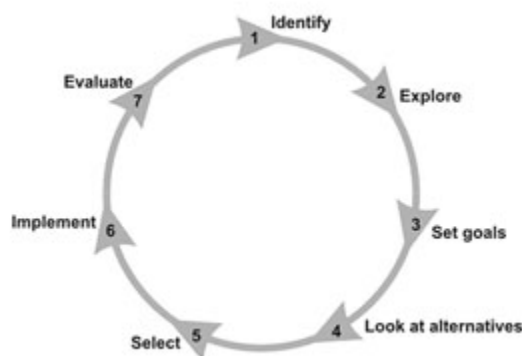
An effective counselor will understand the reason for the general statement which the person speaks at initial. Thus asking questions may make him come to core problem. The core problem is the heart of the matter and is concern about present situation and relationship with other people.

Recognizing and admitting the problem

The client must be given not only the opportunity to express the feelings, which he may be in the habit of concealing, but also the help to explore and clarify what these are.

Problem solving process

The problem solving process can be divided in different ways and the stages have been given various labels. To be a successful problem solver you need to understand what the stages involve and follow them methodically whenever you encounter a problem.



To be a successful problem solver you must go through these stages:

- recognizing and defining the problem
- finding possible solutions
- choosing the best solution
- Implementing the solution.

These stages are examined in detail in later articles, but here is a summary of what is involved at each stage

1. Recognizing and defining the problem

Obviously, before any action can be taken to solve a problem, you need to recognize that a problem exists. A surprising number of problems go unnoticed or are only recognized when the situation becomes serious. Opportunities are also missed. There are specific techniques you can use to help you recognize problems and opportunities.

Once you have recognized a problem you need to give it a label..... a tentative definition. This serves to focus your search for relevant information, from which you can write an accurate description or definition of the problem.

2. Finding possible solutions

Analyzing the problem involves identifying and collecting the relevant information and representing it in a meaningful way. Analyzing closed problems helps you to identify all the possible causes and confirm the real cause, or obstacle, before looking for a solution. With open-ended problems you are looking for information which will help to suggest a range of possible ways to solve the problem. Analysis also helps you to decide what the ideal solution would be, which helps to guide your search for solutions.

Constructing courses of action to solve the problem involves discovering what actions will deal with any obstacles and achieve your objective. Workable solutions are developed by combining and modifying ideas and a range of creative techniques are available to help in this process.

3. Choosing the best solution

This is the stage at which you evaluate the possible solutions and select that which will be most effective in solving the problem. It's a process of decision making based on a comparison of the potential outcome of alternative solutions. This involves

- identifying all the features of an ideal solution, including the constraints it has to meet
- eliminating solutions which do not meet the constraints
- evaluating the remaining solutions against the outcome required

- assessing the risks associated with the 'best' solution
- making the decision to implement this solution

A problem is only solved when a solution has been implemented. In some situations, before this can take place, you need to gain acceptance of the solution by other people, or get their authority to implement it. This may involve various strategies of persuasion.

4. Implementing the solution

This involves three separate stages:

- planning and preparing to implement the solution
- taking the appropriate action and monitoring its effects
- reviewing the ultimate success of the action

Implementing your solution is the culmination of all your efforts and requires very careful planning. The plan describes the sequence of actions required to achieve the objective, the timescale and the resources required at each stage. Ways of minimising the risks involved and preventing mistakes have to be devised and built into the plan. Details of what must be done if things go wrong are also included.

Counselling – as a Helping Strategy

Helping Styles include:

- Telling
- Advising
- Manipulating
- Counselling

Style 1: Telling

Telling is directive and therefore is not usually appropriate within the context of a mentoring session as it does not take a learner centred approach

- ✓ What do you do when you tell?
- ✓ you are more concerned with the problem than the learner
- ✓ Exclude learner; no ownership

- ✓ by telling you try and solve the problem for the learner

Style 2: Advising

Advisors are 'experienced experts'. You don't necessarily have to be an expert to be a skilled helper. In fact it is often easier if you are not an 'expert' in the learner's subject area. Advising is directive; however the learner will learn something and it may be appropriate with very junior members of staff e.g. preregistration pharmacy trainees at the start of the year. For example you could take more of an advisory role at the start and gradually moving towards a less directive approach as the learner gains competence and confidence in their role and develops the ability to become more self-directed in their learning.

What do advisers do?

- ✓ Advisers are more concerned with the problem than the learner
- ✓ Advisers collect all the facts about the problem and then use their knowledge and experience to solve the problem for the learner
- ✓ Advisers come up with a number of options and explain advantages and disadvantages of each; they then get the learner to select the most appropriate option

Advisers say

- ✓ "Why don't you....."
- ✓ "My advice to you is...."
- ✓ "You have chosen the right answer...."

Style 3: Manipulating

Manipulation is directive. Whilst advising is sometimes appropriate, manipulating is never appropriate!

What do manipulators do?

- ✓ Appear to be more concerned with the learner than the problem
- ✓ Manipulators often see themselves as natural born helpers
- ✓ Manipulators think they know what is best for the learner

Manipulators say

- ✓ "I know just the thing for you....."

- ✓ “If I were you.....”
- ✓ “I told you so....”

Style 4: Counselling

The counselor’s primary role is to support self directed learning and facilitate reflection and learning in relation to the outcomes identified by the learner rather than acting as an expert or teacher. By being involved in problem solving the learner learns more about themselves, develops their own resources and abilities and becomes better equipped to manage a future problem.

- ✓ this style helps the learner to explore and make up their own mind
- ✓ encourages the learner to think for themselves; The learner finds their own solutions rather than you finding solutions for them

They say

- ✓ “What do you think?”
- ✓ “How did that make you feel?”
- ✓ “If you do that, what do you think will happen?”

Counsellors should consider

- There may be good reasons for the apparent poor performance.
- The poor performer should be the first to know about, not the last.
- Counselling should focus on the specific action or inaction which is not acceptable.
- Counsellors should not take on the task of counselling volunteers with whom they have had a difficult or close relationship.
- If argument and antagonism arise, counselling has failed.
- Outcomes should be clear and agreed, specific points for improvement identified, new targets set and a review time be made.

Counselling Checklist

1. Reason:

Ensure that there is a substantive reason before you take action.

2. Investigate:

Conduct a thorough investigation of the incident.

3. Notify

Notify the volunteer that you intend to conduct an interview with them, at a certain time and place.

4. Witness:

Have a witness present when interviewing the volunteer. Notify the volunteer that they may have their own witness present at the interview.

5. Notes:

Must take detailed notes of what is said at the interview.

6. Allegation:

Put your allegations to the volunteer and provide your supporting evidence.

7. Opportunity to respond:

Provide the volunteer with an opportunity to respond to the allegations.

8. Mitigating circumstances:

Consider any mitigating circumstances; such as the period of time since any previous misconduct, the volunteers service record etc.

9. Decision:

Make a decision on what action to take. Is it consistent with action taken against other volunteers in similar matters? If any further investigation is needed repeat points 3 and 8.

10. Process of implementation:

If the action to be taken is not one of termination, outline the next disciplinary action to be taken if the behaviour continues, or if performance does not improve.

Basic Counselling Skills

- Learning
- Accepting
- Listening
- Confirming
- Optimism

- Objectivity
- Confidence
- Promoting decision making
- Offering support

Journey into Life Space

Lewin, a social psychologist, believed the "field" to be a Gestalt psychological environment existing in an individual's (or in the collective group) mind at a certain point in time that can be mathematically described in a topological constellation of constructs. The "field" is very dynamic, changing with time and experience. When fully constructed, an individual's "field" (Lewin used the term "life space") describes that person's motives, values, needs, moods, goals, anxieties, and ideals.

Lewin believed that changes of an individual's "life space" depend upon that individual's internalization of external stimuli (from the physical and social world) into the "life space." Although Lewin did not use the word "experiential," nonetheless believed that interaction (experience) of the "life space" with "external stimuli" (at what he calls the "boundary zone") were important for development (or regression). For Lewin, development (or regression) of an individual occurs when their "life space" has a "boundary zone" experience with external stimuli. Note, it is not merely the experience that causes change in the "life space," but the acceptance (internalization) of external stimuli.

Lewin took these same principles and applied them to the analysis of group conflict, learning, adolescence, hatred, morale, German society, etc. This approach allowed him to break down common misconceptions of these social phenomena, and to determine their basic elemental constructs. He used theory, mathematics, and common sense to define a force field, and hence to determine the causes of human and group behavior.

According to Lewin, the **first step** in the process of changing behavior is to unfreeze the existing situation or status quo. The status quo is considered the equilibrium state. Unfreezing is necessary to overcome the strains of individual resistance and group conformity. Unfreezing can be achieved by the use of three methods. First, increase the driving forces that direct behavior away from the existing situation or status quo. Second, decrease the restraining forces that negatively

affect the movement from the existing equilibrium. Third, find a combination of the two methods listed above. Some activities that can assist in the unfreezing step include: motivate participants by preparing them for change, build trust and recognition for the need to change, and actively participate in recognizing problems and brainstorming solutions within a group

Lewin's **second step** in the process of changing behavior is movement. In this step, it is necessary to move the target system to a new level of equilibrium. Three actions that can assist in the movement step include: persuading employees to agree that the status quo is not beneficial to them and encouraging them to view the problem from a fresh perspective, work together on a quest for new, relevant information, and connect the views of the group to well-respected, powerful leaders that also support the change

The **third step** of Lewin's three-step change model is refreezing. This step needs to take place after the change has been implemented in order for it to be sustained or "stick" over time. It is high likely that the change will be short lived and the employees will revert to their old equilibrium (behaviors) if this step is not taken. It is the actual integration of the new values into the community values and traditions. The purpose of refreezing is to stabilize the new equilibrium resulting from the change by balancing both the driving and restraining forces. One action that can be used to implement Lewin's third step is to reinforce new patterns and institutionalize them through formal and informal mechanisms including policies and procedures

Therefore, Lewin's model illustrates the effects of forces that either promote or inhibit change. Specifically, driving forces promote change while restraining forces oppose change. Hence, change will occur when the combined strength of one force is greater than the combined strength of the opposing set of forces

Anxiety

Anxiety is a normal human feeling. We all experience it when faced with situations find threatening or difficult. People often call this feeling stress but the word 'stress' can be used to mean two different things – on the one hand, the things that make us anxious and on the other, our reaction to them. This makes it a confusing word and so it will not be used in this leaflet.

When our anxiety is a result of a continuing problem, such as money difficulties, we call it worry, if it is a sudden response to an immediate threat, like looking over a cliff or being confronted with an angry dog, we call it fear.

Normally both fear and anxiety can be helpful, helping us to avoid dangerous situations, making us alert and giving us the motivation to deal with problems. However if the feelings become too strong or go for too long, they can stop us from doing the things we want to and can make our lives miserable.

A phobia is a fear of particular situations or things that are not dangerous and which most people do not find troublesome.

Symptoms

Anxiety	
In the mind	In the body
Feeling worried all the time	Irregular Heartbeats
Feeling tired	Sweating
Unable to concentrate	Muscle Tension
Feeling irritable	Breathing heavily
Sleeping badly	Dizziness
	Faintness
	Indigestion
	Diarrhoea

These symptoms are easily mistaken by anxious people for evidence of serious physical illness; their worry about this can make the symptoms even worse. Sudden unexpected surges of anxiety are called panic, and usually lead to the person having to quickly get out of whatever situation they

happen to be in. Anxiety and panic are often accompanied by feelings of depression, when we feel glum, lose our appetite and see the future as bleak and hopeless.

Overcoming Organizational Anxiety

"I'm working sixty hours a week and don't see an end in sight." "If we don't meet this quarter's profit projections, heads will roll!" "I wonder when we'll hear about the next round of downsizing." If you or your colleagues have recently made or heard similar statements, your organization may be experiencing the symptoms of anxiety.

Most of us have felt anxious at some point in our lives, especially when faced with immediate physical danger. But many people also know what it is like to live with feelings of fear or apprehension in their day-to-day work lives. With all the recent downsizing and rapid change in the business world, anxiety has become one of the more pressing problems plaguing us today. What Is Organizational Anxiety? Anxiety can be an insidious force: Not only does it sap energy levels and damage our health; it also eats away at job performance and stifles innovation and creativity. Like individuals, organizations can also suffer from symptoms of anxiety. Over the long run, anxiety can reduce an enterprise's strategic adaptability and effectiveness.

In recent years, researchers have looked at anxiety from an intriguing new perspective. As they see it, the origin of anxiety is the struggle between life and death. This struggle that rages within individuals also takes place in work groups and organizations. Of course, organizations do not experience death in the same way that individuals do; however, they do face the very real possibility of financial or operational demise. Organizations can cease to exist through bankruptcy, takeover, mergers, and so forth. As a result, they experience their own brand of anxiety.

Defenses against Anxiety

Literature abounds on how work groups and organizations try to cope with the destructive feelings of anxiety. According to one theory, some companies resort to a form of defense that combines three tactics—called *splitting*, *projection*, and *introjection*—that individuals often use to fend off anxiety. Splitting happens when we separate the "good" aspects of our lives from the "bad."

We then *project* "bad" qualities onto others and *introject* "good" qualities into ourselves. This tactic helps us to feel more in control of our panic, because we turn our attention to judging and trying to control others.

For example, an anxious manager might split good and bad by considering himself all-powerful (he introjects good into himself) while at the same time dismissing subordinates as unworthy (he projects bad onto others). Even worse, a manager in this frame of mind might be compelled to act on these projected feelings by punishing workers with extra work, impossible schedules, unreachable goals, and so forth. Companies tend to "institutionalize" this kind of behavior. Employees may quit and new ones may be hired, but the tough schedules and unattainable goals persist regardless of the individuals employed at any given time.

Groups or organizations that are leaderless can suffer more anxiety than most. For example, self-directed work teams may have difficulty making decisions if no leader steps forward. The team may become ineffective as it struggles to search for a leader, thus creating what can be paralyzing anxiety.

In these cases, the people involved often defend themselves against fearful emotions in three ways:

- **Dependency.** The group stops trying to solve its problems and instead waits for a "messiah" to save it.
- **Pairing.** Two individuals related to the group (for example, two group members, or one member and an outside consultant) combine to try to oust someone they consider a "bad" member.
- **Flight/Fight.** Group members blame all problems on an outside cause, or they pretend that no problem exists.

Defense mechanisms are neither good nor bad, and indeed can help protect us from emotional overload. But, the way these mechanisms are stitched together in an organization's mental model can create the exact opposite of what the group wants and needs: Instead of reducing the anxiety, the behavior only worsens it. And mental models are notorious for leading to self-fulfilling prophecies: We see only what we expect to see, and then we act in ways that bring about results that confirm our assumptions.

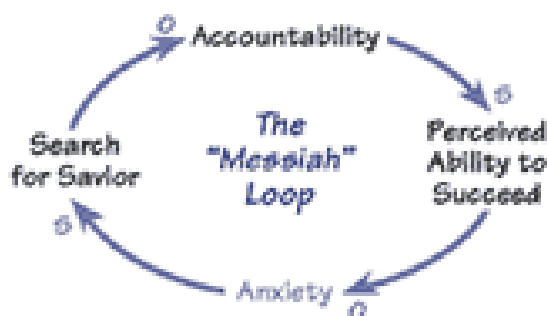
When anxiety lodges itself in a company's collective mental model of how things work, it will continue to perpetuate itself until the organization's behavior changes to balance or reduce the increasing anxiety. For example, many organizations pride themselves on their "heroic" acts. When crises strike, creating high levels of anxiety, a few heroes step forward to "save the day." The organization rewards the heroes. At the same time, by giving rewards, the organization inadvertently encourages the creation of future crises, which will lead to more anxiety and then to additional rewards for heroic action. This behavior is a perfect example of self-perpetuating anxiety.

Anxiety Amplified

Defensive actions can trigger reinforcing processes that serve to amplify and perpetuate anxiety. Here are examples of three reinforcing loops that can sustain or even worsen anxiety in organizations. Although these loops were created by a work group at a large company, they reflect dynamics experienced by many organizations.

The "Messiah" Loop.

In this dynamic, if Anxiety about the organization's performance intensifies, employees look for a "messiah" (Search for Savior). This search diminishes workers' Accountability, in turn reducing their Perceived Ability to Succeed. The diminishing of workers' self-esteem then leads to an increase in Anxiety.



The loop contains a bitter irony: The group searches for a savior to ease its anxiety, but waiting for a "messiah" only leads to more anxiety. The team could design a more fundamental, enduring solution to their anxiety by focusing instead on learning and performing. Sadly, however,

the "quick fix" of seeking a savior diminishes the organization's need for—and thus its ability to apply—a more fundamental solution.

The "Manic Defense" Loop.

In this reinforcing process, anxious managers project the organization's problems onto their subordinates and then try to punish them. To justify this punishment, the managers focus obsessively on quantitative measurements, slavishly using them to control the action around them. Through this emphasis on metrics, the managers deplete the organization of the physical, financial, and—perhaps most important—psychological resources the team members need to succeed. All of this ultimately leads to even more intense anxiety.



In the "Manic Defense" loop, increased Anxiety leads to more Focus on Metrics, which in turn causes Resources Used for Measuring to go up. As Resources Used for Measuring rises, Resources Available for Projects diminishes, which in turn increases Resources Requested. The diminished resource base for projects puts added pressure on those trying to complete projects. The project manager then requests more resources in order to complete the projects. As Resources Requested increases, Percentage of Resources Received is reduced because of the multiple demands on the system created by the additional resources requested for measurement. This development further cuts into Perceived Ability to Succeed and ultimately heightens Anxiety.

The "Fight" Loop.

We call the third reinforcing process the "Fight" loop because it captures the way anxiety sparks conflict within the team and encourages an aggressive desire to have one's own viewpoints and decisions prevail. Increased Anxiety leads to increased Internal Competition, which leads to a greater Need to Be Right. Intensifying the Need to Be Right reduces the level of inquiry (Questions), which also lowers Understanding and increases the Resources Used for Making Decisions. More employee time and energy is needed to make decisions when there is little understanding of the issues facing the organization. The rest of the loop follows the "Manic Defense" loop, ultimately creating even more Anxiety.

**Understanding Our Own Role**

As we look at the three reinforcing loops, we can begin to see how team members themselves might create and intensify their own anxiety. Often, factors viewed as external causes for anxiety, such as perceptions of failure or layoffs, could really be internally driven. To surface these factors, we might ask, "Who is perceiving this failure-our own organization, stockholders, or customers?" If it is our own organization, we can begin to search for ways to change that perception. If we have suffered layoffs, could it be that our business is cyclical? If so, how is our organization perpetuating industry cycles? Many organizations aren't aware of the role they play in perpetuating not just their own business cycles, but those of the entire industry.

Thus, often what an organization views as "not our problem" is just that. The organization tries to behave in a way that will produce positive results, but inadvertently creates undesired outcomes. This is an example of what Jay Forrester called "the counterintuitive behavior of social systems." Realizing that we often cause our own problems may be embarrassing, but it is also good news, for whatever we create in a system, we may be able to change if we gain insight into it.

In Search of Balancing Loops

The dynamics shown in the three loops present a grim image of the system of organizational anxiety. The picture is particularly discouraging because all the loops are reinforcing, creating a vicious cycle. But the picture does not have to remain grim: Reinforcing processes are not all necessarily bad. Just as the reinforcing loops in the diagrams can heighten anxiety exponentially, they can also reduce anxiety, if they are turned around to become virtuous cycles.

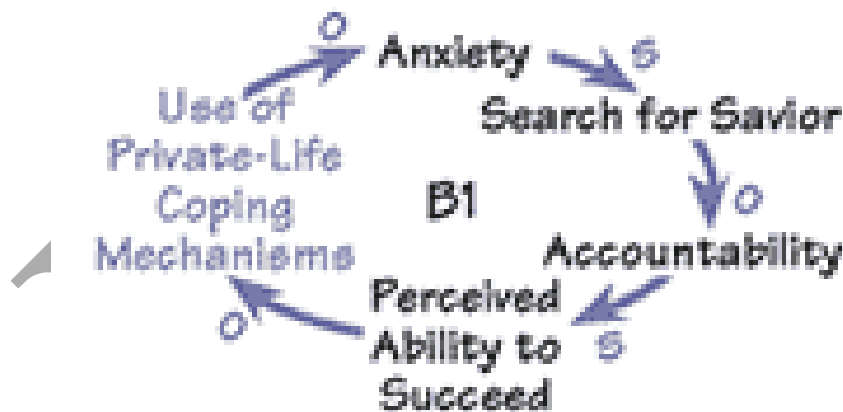
The lack of balancing loops is another important piece of information about the systems the diagrams depict. Without balancing loops, there are no processes in place for returning the system to equilibrium after a disturbance caused by the reinforcing loops. All three loops amplify the central variable—Anxiety—and no loops have been identified that keep it under control.

When drawing their system of anxiety, teams often neglect to build balancing loops into their models, perhaps because people tend to notice things that create rapid change (R loops) more than forces that keep things stable (B loops). Also, when addressing a specific problem, team members may focus on how their anxiety is worsening, not on how it might be alleviated.

Clearly, though, balancing loops have to exist in every organization; otherwise, the place would unravel toward anxiety-induced paralysis, anarchy, or some other extreme endpoint of a reinforcing process. Some sort of balancing dynamic often subtly works to keep the situation relatively under control. In fact, these hidden loops can create the sense of oscillating, persistent anxiety experienced by the staff.

Balancing loops that might control anxiety could include coping mechanisms such as open communication, flexible work hours, and personal leave time. Unfortunately, if the reinforcing loop around anxiety dominates the system, these coping mechanisms may never be able to balance out the increasing anxiety. Communication may open up and temporarily reduce anxiety, but then a sudden crisis may shut down communication and thereby increase anxiety again. This pattern causes the organization to ride the waves of anxiety time and again.

A team can also balance their anxiety by linking a new, outside force to Anxiety in a way that will ease feelings of fear rather than heighten them. If, for instance, the members of a group develop coping mechanisms in their private lives (loving families, close-knit communities, and so forth), they might be able to calm their collective anxiety, as shown in "Reversing Anxiety." As the Use of Private-Life Coping Mechanisms increases, Anxiety and the Search for a Savior decrease. Accountability and the group's Perceived Ability to Succeed are then enhanced, leading to less of a need for reliance on the coping mechanisms.



A Systemic Makeover

According to the field of System Dynamics, there are two main ways of actually changing a system: shifting loop dominance or direction, and changing loop structure so as to alter the flow of feedback through the system. Here are some additional strategies for breaking the cycle of anxiety.

Shifting Loop Dominance or Direction

Often, the main loops in a system all lead to greater anxiety. For this reason, teams may want to explore how they can weaken those loops and reshape the system. For example, the "Messiah" loop could be reversed if team members gave up the search for a savior and instead enhanced their own empowerment and accountability. A team could weaken the "Manic Defense" loop by consciously reducing the focus on metrics. To do this, management could cut back on the number of metrics used, employ other ways of measuring the company's performance, emphasize customer service over internal metrics, streamline bureaucracy, free up resources used for measuring, and so forth. Finally, a team could disarm the "Fight" loop by finding ways to reduce internal competition and the need to be right, by promoting inquiry skills (Questions), and by lessening resources used for making decisions.

Changing Loop Structure

We can actually reshape a systemic structure by incorporating new variables and links and removing others. By making these changes, we can alter the pathway by which feedback flows throughout the system. There are many possibilities for creating new links. In dealing with a system of organizational anxiety, one valuable addition might be the use of inquiry skills. Inquiry skills include methods of conversing that can overcome barriers to understanding and learning, whether the barriers are organizational or interpersonal. Thinkers such as Chris Argyris, David Bohm, and William Isaacs have written extensively about this set of skills. In the case of an anxious team, as the group gets more and more practice in using inquiry—and begins to achieve some success—it will learn to use these tools more readily in response to a surge in anxiety.

Looking Ahead

Of course, a causal loop diagram is only an early step in the process of solving a systemic problem. Actually changing a systemic structure takes a lot more than just redrawing links. To reshape the way they do things, a group will need to think about what the links in its drawings mean.

For example, the more managers understand the anxiety-intensifying system that they've helped to create, the more motivated they may feel to restructure that especially irksome "Manic

Defense" loop. Instead of projecting their anxiety onto "bad" subordinates, they could learn to recognize both the good and the bad in the way their organization operates. In a difficult but profoundly healthier process, the team members would examine things in a far more systemic way than the traditional short-term perspective on metrics allows, and would join together to do the hard work essential for improving their performance.

Making attitude changes isn't simple or easy, and the team will need to dig even deeper to find the best leverage points for change. However, altering some key mental pictures of how things work is an organization's best hope for pulling itself out of the anxiety-ridden system it has created. Talking about their anxiety system and drawing causal depictions of it can give a team vital insight into how they are creating their own problems.

The team might learn more at this stage if they also used a computer simulation model of their anxiety system. Modeling their system would require them to identify the things they think most strongly drive the loops, and it would give them a way to test the insights that they found while drawing the loops. In addition, modeling would make it easier for them to redesign the problematic structures in their system.

The group could then design interventions that apply pressure to any leverage points it identifies in the earlier steps. In many cases, the most powerful interventions would involve using new tools—particularly inquiry skills—for deepening the organization's collective knowledge about itself. If all goes well, the team will grow less dependent on self-defeating defense mechanisms and rely increasingly on its own strengths, knowledge, skills, and resources.

An Example: ABC, Inc.

A computer manufacturer, ABC, Inc., had suffered some significant business failures that generated a tremendous level of anxiety in the organization. Arguments over how to price products became the focus of people's anxiety. The "old-timers" thought that the company should maintain its high prices to reflect its image as a pioneer in the industry and as a producer of high-quality products. On the other hand, the "newcomers" thought that customers were becoming more price sensitive because of the lower prices offered by ABC's competitors.

The first step to resolving the impasse was to have both sides share their mental models of what was creating the anxiety over pricing. Using tools such as the ladder of inference, the groups

discussed their own interpretations of the data they used to make pricing decisions. One manager reported, "Our data show that our best customers are more concerned about quality and are willing to pay the higher price." Another stated, "All our customers care about is a low price. We are being destroyed by our competition." Each side held tightly to its position and blamed the other group for undermining ABC's success.

The groups then developed causal loops that captured the two perspectives. Through this process, they found that price was not the key issue; the real issue was defining what type of organization ABC would be in the future. Would ABC be an innovative producer of high-quality products, or would it be a mass producer of relatively high quality, but less innovative goods?

At this point, the company created a computer simulation to test the financial impact of the two scenarios. The simulation revealed that the innovative strategy would result in a loss of customers. However, by charging more per unit, the company could make up much of the lost revenue. Further investigation showed that customers who buy lower-priced products tend to demand more technical services, cutting further into revenues. This finding made the mass-production scenario less appealing in the long run.

By using causal loops and simulation in this way, ABC diffused the anxiety within the organization and took the focus away from blaming individuals for the company's troubles. ABC was also able to make more informed decisions regarding its pricing and long-term business strategy.

Eradicating Anxiety

It is easy to view organizational anxiety as something that is out of a group's—or anyone's—control. But the discussion above shows how we can play a role in creating our own anxiety. Managers and employees often become trapped in mental models that only worsen their anxiety. Yet the team is far from helpless to control its behavior. We all possess the power to change our attitudes and behaviors in order to reshape dynamics that we ourselves have created. With this enhanced understanding, we can then take intelligent steps to manage or even eradicate anxiety and thereby enhance our effectiveness.

BENEFITS OF COUNSELING

The main benefits of counselling in general include the following:

1. **A listening ear.** We all know that a problem shared is a problem halved. And being listened to by a professional counsellor can help you to clarify for yourself exactly what is bothering you, and what your goals are in relation to that clarified problem.
2. **Reassurance:** When you consult a reputable counsellor and talk about your problems, you can feel very reassured that your situation is probably not as hopeless as you had thought.
3. **Appropriate advice:** If you go to a cognitive counsellor, you will get advice on how to improve your situation by changing some specific aspect of your thinking, or your behaviour. When you change your thinking and behaviour, your emotions tend to fall in line.

The other benefits are:

1. Insight into how emotional disturbances are caused, and how to think your way out of emotional difficulties.
2. Developing the ability to relate better to significant others - to develop relationship skills.
3. Becoming more aware of your own thoughts and feelings, so you can manage them better.
4. Learning to accept yourself with all your faults and frailties as being okay and acceptable.
5. Developing solutions to specific problems, and becoming a more effective problem solver.
6. Learning psychological models to understand and control your behaviour.
7. Learning how to identify and change irrational beliefs, or faulty lenses through which you view your world.
8. Learning how to identify and change maladaptive or self-defeating behaviours.

Part A (ONE Mark)

Multiple Choice Questions

Online Examination

Part B (2 Marks)

1. What is Counselling?
2. What is Anxiety?
3. What is Life space?
4. How to deal with emotions and feelings?
5. How to predict the problems of people?
6. What are the symptoms of Anxiety?
7. List the styles of helping?
8. List the various steps for evaluating Counselling?
9. Explain Coaching?
10. What is consultancy?
11. List the benefits of Counselling?.

Part C (8 Marks)

1. Discuss the Elements of Counselling?
2. How to explore the ways to Life Space?
3. Evaluate the checklist for Counsellors?
4. What are the ways to defense Anxiety?
5. What are the critical dimensions of Counselling?

PART - A

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Counselling has become an effective tool for -----	Managing Conflicts	creating problem	conflict	argues	Managing Conflicts
What is counselling?	A Problem solving technique	A software application	Training Programme	Writing	A Problem solving technique
----- concentrates on the employees attitude towards the job and the environment	Training programme	A software application	Job-related counselling	problem related counselling	Job-related counselling
-----is complete counselling	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	Directive counselling
The process of listening to an employee's problems and deciding along with the employee is -----	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	Directive counselling
----- counselling is at the opposite end of the continuous	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	non-directive counselling
The process of skillfully listening and encouraging an employee to explain their trouble and find an appropriate solutions is	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	non-directive counselling
The process of establishing a cooperative exchange of ideas to help solve the employee's problems	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	participative counselling
The process of focus on developing organizational practices, processes and structure is-----	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	consultancy

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
-----is our ability to perceive the client's feelings	Empathy	additive empathy	warmth	respect	Empathy
Adding conscious understanding of feelings the client is already feeling-----	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	non-directive counselling
-----is also called unconditional positive regard	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	participative counselling
-----is most communicated through our non-verbal behaviour	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	participative counselling
Our belief in the client's ability to make appropriate decisions and deal with his life situation is -----	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	consultancy
-----is being honest and authentic in our dealings with our clients	Congruence	Confidentiality	Counselling	Listening	Congruence
Anything discussed during a counselling session is held as absolutely private and not discussed elsewhere is-----	Congruence	Confidentiality	Counselling	Listening	Confidentiality
The prime aim of --- -----is to help the individual discover the solutions to his own problems	Congruence	Confidentiality	Counselling	Listening	Counselling
-----is coined as "active Listening"	Congruence	Confidentiality	Counselling	Listening	Listening
When people are in distress they are in need of some-----	help	food	water	cloth	help

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
Telling , advising , manipulating and counselling are the four basic styles of -- -----	Writing	Reading	helping	counselling	counselling
The style of technical experts whose skills and knowledge enable them give the right answer	Telling	Advising	manipulating	Counselling	Telling
The style which is client centered and involves the client in solving problems is-- -----	Telling	Advising	manipulating	Counselling	Counselling
-----provides effective help with personal problems	Counselling	Transactional Analysis	Self concept	self esteem	Counselling
Unresolved problems do cause---	Happiness	Unhappiness	Pride	patronage	Unhappiness
-----makes managers to solve bigger and bigger problems	Promotions	Happiness	salary	problems	Promotions
Organizational problems are also considered to be ----	Job dissatisfaction	People problems	Organizational loss	Delayed Productivity	People problems
-----denotes a variety of painful emotional status	Counselling	marriage	Bereavement	depression	depression
-----is an illness and require medicines	Endogenous depression	marriage	counselling	friends	Endogenous depression
Counselling is usually between ----- -----	4 persons	3 persons	5 persons	2 persons	2 persons
There are _____ basic styles of helping	5	3	5	2	4
-----is a techniques to view the client as an unique person	introverts	life space	team building	personal awareness	life space

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
The purpose of ----- -----is to help a person examine and solve his own problems	Counselling	Motivation	team building	team process	Counselling
_____ are often brought to provide specific solutions to Business problems	Leaders	Consultants	Managers	Business men	Consultants
Preparing for Counselling session is the _____ step in counselling process	First	Second	Third	Last	First
Defining the purpose of counselling is the _____ step.	First	Second	Third	Last	Second
Who coined listening as active listening	McGuire	Carl Rogers	Marcus	Gerzen	Carl Rogers
The thoughts and fears arising from within is known as	Anxiety	Neurotic Anxiety	Acute Anxiety	Dependenc y	Neurotic Anxiety
_____ means preying the memory or fear as deeply as possible	Anxiety	Repression	Projection	Simplificati on	Repression
The process in which a person is relieved from anxiety by making him believe that cause of anxiety is located with someone else	Anxiety	Repression	Projection	Simplificati on	Projection
_____ is an intensely personal and subjective feelings	Anxiety	Repression	Projection	Simplificati on	Anxiety
_____ anxiety can rise from the areas of interpersonal relations and self esteem.	Anxiety	Neurotic Anxiety	Acute Anxiety	Dependenc y	Acute Anxiety

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
_____ is a problem solving technique	racket	stamp	sweatshirt	counselling	counselling
_____ is called a complete counselling	direct counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	motivational counselling	direct counselling
counselling has _____ interventions	3	4	5	2	4
The process of focus on developing organizational practices, processes and structure is-----	Directive counselling	non-directive counselling	participative counselling	consultancy	consultancy
_____ is our ability to make appropriate decisions and deal appropriately	Empathy	additive empathy	warmth	Respect	Respect
There are _____ elements of counselling	5	4	3	6	5
The counsellor should treat the client as-----	unique person	common man	honest person	friend	unique person
The person who uses a manipulating style is _____	client oriented	counsellor oriented	problem oriented	advice oriented	client oriented
Counselling helps employees in _____	employee termination	reducing absenteeism	increasing conflict	reducing productivity	reducing absenteeism
Who helps in solving personal and organizational problems	Workers	Counsellors	Supervisors	Subordinates	Counsellors
Whose role is very challenging and complicated	Workers	Managers	Clients	Subordinates	Managers
Personal problems of employees are handled by _____	Professionals	Clients	Subordinates	Friends	Professionals
Counselling helps persons by solving their problems by _____	Others	Managers	their own	Friends	Their own

Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
The statements made by employees shall have	Clues	facts	data	lies	Clues
_____ is the heart of the matter which is worrying the employee	Data	Facts	Core	Lies	Core
Criticism makes the people feel	happy	threatened	hopeful	jealous	Threatened
Counselling is done using	Questionnaire	Schedule	exit interview	Interview	Interview
_____ helps in problem resolution, personal growth and self insight	Counselling	Chatting	Interviewing	Listening	Counselling
Under work, over work, uncertain future causes	Job security	Anxiety	Comfort	Guilty	Anxiety

Reg No.....

[17MBAPH303B]

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)

(Established under section 3 of UGC Act, 1956)

COIMBATORE-641021

(For the candidates admitted from 2017 onwards)

II MBA

I CIA – August 2018

MANAGING INTERPERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Time: 2hours

Maximum: 50marks

Date:

PART - A (15 x 1 = 15 Marks)

Answer ALL the Questions

1. William James distinguished “Self Known” into -----
----- types.

- a. 3 b. 2 c. 4 d. 5

2. The distinction of self as ‘me’ and ‘I’ was by -----.

- a. William Jones b. Gordon c. Turner d. Gerzen

3. Me is an object of -----.

- a. Inner feeling b. Value c. Experience d. Hereditary

4. Human being are personified as having not oneself but .

- a. Double selves b. Multiple selves
c. Only one self d. No one

5. The distinction between self image and self concept
was made by -----.

- a. William Jones b. Gordon c. Turner d. Gerzen

6. The life space of an adult and a child are -----.

- a. different b. same c. static d. dynamic

7. Unresolved problems do cause -----.

- a. Happiness b. Unhappiness c. Pride d. Revenge

8. The understanding of “what one” is -----

- a. Self monitoring b. Self esteem
c. self reality d. self concept

9. ----- takes place through all five organs.

- a. Stimuli b. action c. reaction d. reality

10. The self image may ----- in a short time.

- a. Change frequently b. be steady
c. face competition d. No reaction

11. Organised collection of belief and feelings about
oneself is called -----.

- a. Situation b. others judgement
c. self concept d. no judgement.

12. The Self one presents to the external world is -----.
a. Dynamic b. Static c. Reality d. Revenge
13. One can have ----- self images at the same time.
a. only one b. only two c. several d. only three
14. ----- is the reflection of how one believes and other people perceives the self.
a. situation b. others judgement
c. Self concept d. judgement.
15. There are ----- main elements of looking self.
a. 4 b. 3 c. 2 d. 5

PART – B (3 x 8 = 24 marks)

Answer All Questions

16. a) Discuss the factors influencing Self Effectiveness?
(OR)
b) Narrate the strategies of achieving Self Awareness?
17. a) Explain Self Monitoring. Differentiate between low self monitors and high self monitors.
(OR)
b) Elucidate the advantages and disadvantages of non-verbal communication
18. a) Draw and explain McGuire's Communication models for Individuals and Groups?
(OR)
b) Elaborate the profile of a good Speaker?

PART – C (1 x 11 = 11 Marks)

19. Case Study (Compulsory):

LOW SELF ESTEEM IN WORK

Mrs. Sally has being in the same company for the past 15 years and was recently promoted to a managerial position, following the completion of her first degree. Since assuming her new position, she has become very anxious about her ability to function in her new capacity. She has been feeling lethargic and struggles to get up in the morning to go to work. The position requires her using computers more than she was previously accustomed and despite the fact that she has undergone training, she feels incompetent especially in the preparation of reports. She feels unsure about what she wants to do with her life and feels that she is not good at anything. She fears losing her job because she feels, she will not be able to get another job and so would not be able to take care of the family.

Analyze the Case and provide appropriate solution for her problem.