HRD professionals must be conversant in a number of areas of applied behavioral science. It sometimes is difficult to keep up with the demands of one's job and to stay abreast of new theories and applications. One of the problems is that there are so many good ideas in human resource development and the related fields. There is a wealth of published material available about human behavior. Any trainer or consultant's library is probably well stocked with books and periodicals on psychology, human behavior, groups, communication, management, organizations, and many other subjects. Many of us spend a great deal of time sifting and sorting through volumes of material to find tools that we can use effectively in the learning environment.

Our purpose in developing *Theories and Models* is to make available the best of the cognitive-learning tools for human resource development professionals to use in training and consulting work. One particular purpose of this publication is to help you to educate yourself about what is available for you to use, to help you to clarify your understanding about some of these ideas, and to help you to find further information on any subject that you want to explore. To that end, the volumes are designed to make it easier for you to find the theoretical materials that you need to use in your training and consulting activities. Rather than wading through numerous books on personality types, motivation, leadership, or organizational change, for example, one can find material for a lecture or handout easily and quickly by looking in our topical sections and finding subjects listed alphabetically. It is, in effect, a "tool kit" of ideas about people and how they work. We hope that this will help to further an understanding of applied behavioral science on the part of both the HRD professionals who use it and the clients they serve.

**Linkages**

The user of this publication will note that many of the descriptions of theories and models have similar or related components. For example, many of the theories and models of human needs and motivation are based on the work of Henry Murray, and several of them contain similar terms or concepts. Several of the teaching models of personality types are based on the writings of Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung, but are adapted for educational rather than psychoanalytical purposes. There also are relationships across sections, both within this volume and between this volume and later ones. For example, one can make connections between locus of control, extraversion-introversion, social styles, and achievement motivation. There are clear relationships between the several models of human developmental phases. Furthermore, many of the theories about individuals (Volume 1) and groups (Volume 2) form the basis for more complex theories about leadership (Volume 3) and organizations (Volume 4).

This type of linkage serves two purposes. First, it provides a historical perspective on the development of knowledge in the applied behavioral sciences. Each generation of researchers has taken some existing knowledge and asked new questions or looked for answers in different directions. One person's research lends validity to someone else's work in a different arena. Differences in interpretation have generated appropriate questions and sparked new inquiry. This stimulation of new research and new applications reinforces the generative as well as the practical value of theories and models.
The Differences Between Theory and Models

A theory is an explanation of causal relationships. It generally starts from assumptions and proceeds to deductions or conclusions that conform to observations of the referent system. The term "model," on the other hand, refers primarily to graphic depictions of systems or processes and the relationships among their elements. These are the types of models most often used in training and development work. (We are not concerned here with the development of computerized models or those used for scientific research.) Thus, the difference between models and theory is that models represent while theories explain.

Models Represent; Theories Explain

Although formal definitions of the word "model" may vary, in most professions it generally is agreed that a model is a symbolic representation of the functions or aspects of a system or complex event and their interrelationships. Models are analogy of their referent systems, resembling them in form but not necessarily in content. A model usually shows the relationships among elements of the system. Because a model is by nature a simplification, it may not include all the variables, but its value is that it can be used for analytical purposes.

Theory, on the other hand, is a set of causal relationships developed to provide a logically acceptable chain of reasoning starting from well-defined assumptions and proceeding to deductions or conclusions that conform to observation of the referent system. The test of a theory is validity; the test of a model is utility.

Theory sometimes is implicit in models; a model may be created to represent a theory or part of a theory. However, some models are experimental. They can be used in developing theory or testing hypotheses. Also, some theories do not suggest structures; there may be a theory without a model. The possibilities are as follows:

Theory first > Model depicts theory
Theory first > Model depicts specific part(s) of theory
Theory > No model
Model first > Theory explains model
Model > No theory
Model first > Model used in developing theory

For a more thorough discussion of the use of hypotheses, theories, and models-especially in the form of lecturettes and handouts-the reader is referred to the University Associates Training Technologies Series, Book 3, Using Lecturettes, Theories, and Models in Human Resource Development.
In HRD, generally, a model clarifies a theory or a theory expands a model. Such models are concerned with human behavior and are intended for teaching and training, not for experimenting, testing, predicting, or planning.

**What Theory Is**

A "real" theory is a cluster of explicit, relevant assumptions systematically related to one another and to a set of empirical definitions. From these are derived hypotheses that are, in turn, subject to experimental tests. In this way, specific predictions can be made about what will occur under specified conditions. Predictions are tested, resulting in data that either corroborate the predictions-and underlying theory-or require modifications of the theoretical assumptions.

Theory serves a variety of functions. The most important are: (a) codifying accumulated knowledge within one, consistent, overall framework and, in this way, (b) clarifying and simplifying the complexity we find in the real world while (c) directing the further development of knowledge through (d) guided experimental applications.

Theory is capable of generating research and new learning; it incorporates known findings into a logically consistent framework; and it clarifies and simplifies the complexity of natural or concrete events. An additional function of theory is its utility for practical application and use in particular situations.

Theory generally is developed inductively, when it emerges from or is linked to those techniques and methods already in practice because of utility or necessity; practice generally is developed deductively, from tested and validated theory. In the applied behavioral sciences, a unified and systematic theory provides the basis for a model that can be applied in practice to human beings and human systems.

**‘Good’ Theory**

Good theory must be comprehensive—all information relevant to the theory is involved within it—because it should be applicable to all the situations related to the subject of the theory, not just some of them. Nor does it overcomplicate; rather, it clarifies. Good theory must be clear and simple because it should be understandable, in its essentials, by anyone of average intelligence. By describing the basic structure of relationships among data, good theory makes our world more comprehensible.

Good theory provides guidelines and directions for the development of more and deeper understanding of our world, including ourselves. It provides clear implications for where, and how, to look for more knowledge. It includes specific, practical, action implications. It enables problems to be linked to solutions.

**Theory and Hypothesis**

The first definition of theory in the *Random House College Dictionary* is "a coherent group of general propositions used as principles of explanation for a class of phenomena." The second definition is "a proposed explanation whose status is still conjectural, in contrast
to well-established propositions that are regarded as reporting matters of actual fact." Later, the text distinguishes between "theory" and "hypothesis":

A theory properly is a more or less verified or established explanation accounting for known facts or phenomena. A hypothesis is a conjecture put forth as a possible explanation of certain phenomena or relations, and serves as a basis of argument or experimentation by which to reach the truth.

This distinction frequently is not made in the applied behavioral sciences. Although the formal logic of science requires that practice be developed out of tested, validated theory, in the behavioral sciences, one typically sees this process reversed: techniques, methods, and "tools," developed out of need and for the sake of utility, are slowly integrated with concepts to produce theoretical explanations for human behavior. What often is called theory is, in fact, merely a working hypothesis. Such an hypothesis frequently is based on a specific set of conditions and "fails" when applied to a different set of conditions. Thus, a major problem with this process is that it often results in theories that are "exclusive," as opposed to "inclusive," and very narrow in terms of the phenomena described.

Hypotheses and theories can help us to make the world more predictable, but they also can distort our perceptions. One tends to confirm one's hypotheses in ensuing transactions. Aspects that do not fit the pre-established framework often are distorted, discounted, or not even perceived.

This is not to say that practice is irrelevant for theory development; practice actually is the best source for the observations and ideas that are the basis of theory. However, to generalize practice requires a sound theoretical base. Looking over a series of occurrences and generating some tentative hypotheses about the behavior of individuals may be helpful-if the theorizing does not become restrictive and force subsequent experiences to be seen in its framework. Sometimes, giving up trying to control or predict can allow space for new clarity to emerge.

**Theory in HRD**

HRD is an especially eclectic field. The activities are diverse, and the phenomena that HRD professionals confront are quite complicated. Hard facts are scarce; even the most clearly stated theoretical relationships must be qualified by "it depends." The practitioner is likely to be influenced by learning theory, personality theory, clinical psychology and psychiatry, social psychology, education, management theory, organizations, communications, political science, and perhaps a touch of Eastern mysticism. This diversity of sources is enriching and exciting, but it also makes comprehensiveness, integration, and synthesis difficult.

Furthermore, current theory is largely descriptive. It organizes and categorizes what is known and attempts to reduce complexity. In the effort to simplify and offer practical assistance, theorists may overlook the facts of individual differences and multiple motivations for human behavior.

**Types of Theory**

There are two general categories of theory: stimulus-response and cognitive. Pavlov's conditioning of his dog to salivate at the ringing of a bell is an extreme example of the stimulus-response, or conditioning, theories. This is also called behavior modification. The idea is that if the subject receives the proper stimulus, the response will be the desired one. Cognitive theories deal more with the acquisition of knowledge and are more humanistic in nature. They generally rely on the individual to learn through self-motivation. This is particularly pertinent in dealing with adult learners. Unlike children in school, most adults have control over whether they show up for training and whether they stay or walk out.
In HRD, cognitive theories are presented primarily by means of models, in order to make it easier to “digest” and apply the concepts.

**What Models Are**

Models are the road maps of applied behavioral science. Many of the models we have are like the crude and inaccurate geographical maps of the fifteenth century, describing accurately and in detail some well-explored areas and also containing large area of unexplored territory and some mythical regions. Sometimes, in our zeal to understand ourselves, we mistake the map for the reality and forget that the model is only a pattern, an analogy. When psychological models are used not only to describe but also to predict behavior, they begin to acquire the status of theory. As data are collected and the model is supported or confirmed, hypotheses are generated, and laws of interaction can be expressed in a systematic way.

Models in the applied behavioral sciences are developed to:

- explain various aspects of human behavior and interaction;
- integrate what is known through research and observation;
- simplify complex processes;
- guide observation in dynamic situations such as group interaction;
- teach relationships among concepts;
- predict behavior in some situations;
- control and evaluate in experimental designs;
- invent new ideas and processes; and
- plan interventions into human systems.

The purpose of a model is to communicate, in a simplified and effective way, complex information that generally includes statements about the causal relationships between and among specific variables or concepts.

**Types of Models**

Most models in HRD are non symbolic models. If the model involves the same properties as the thing or system being depicted but the scale is changed (for example, a ship model) it is an *iconic* model.

If whatever is being depicted is represented by properties other than its own, it is called an *analogy* model because it literally is analogy. This type of model has been used for teaching purposes throughout history and is used quite often in HRD. An example is the "switchboard" model of the human brain, to communicate certain neurological concepts and processes. Everyone knows that plugs are not connected and disconnected in the brain as they were in early telephone switchboards, although, in limited ways, the brain functions like those switchboards. Other examples of non symbolic models are verbal models, pictorial models, flow charts, analytic models (in the mathematical sense), and numerical models. An example of an analytic model is one representing an economic theory; an example of a numerical model is one of a particular organization's accounting system. These both are quantitative models, whereas pictorial models and flow charts are qualitative models.

Another, less common, type of model expresses, depicts, or simulates how something actually works. For example, scientists engaged in nuclear fusion research use mathematical models that describe precisely the operation of such devices. Such models are rarely used in the behavioral sciences.
# Table of Contents

**Introduction** .............................................................................................................................. 1

**Chapter 1: Characteristics, Orientations, and Traits** ................................................................. 3
   - Androgyny ................................................................................................................................. 5
   - Bilateral Brain Theory ............................................................................................................. 9
   - Creativity and Risk Taking ...................................................................................................... 13
   - FIRO: The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation .............................................. 17
   - Jungian Typologies .................................................................................................................. 23
   - UFO: Life Orientations Theory ............................................................................................. 31
   - Locus of Control ...................................................................................................................... 35
   - Myers-Briggs Typologies ......................................................................................................... 43
   - Neurolinguistic Programming ............................................................................................... 57
   - Social Styles ............................................................................................................................ 63
   - Value Programming ................................................................................................................ 71

**Chapter 2: Developmental Phases** ............................................................................................ 75
   - Erickson's Eight Ages of Man ............................................................................................... 77
   - Gender Differences in Human Development ........................................................................ 83
   - Levels of Moral Development ............................................................................................... 87
   - Moral Development in Children ............................................................................................ 93
   - Psychosocial Maturity ............................................................................................................ 99
   - Stages of Adult Lives .............................................................................................................103

**Chapter 3: Emotional and Social Behavior** .............................................................................109
   - Emotional ...............................................................................................................................111
      - Accommodation of Feelings ..............................................................................................111
      - Cognitive Dissonance ......................................................................................................113
      - Dealing with Anger: Kubler-Ross' Five Stages Thinking and Feeling ..........................119
      - Animalistic, Humanistic, and Rational: Views of Human Nature The Awareness Wheel 139
      - Bases of Power ..................................................................................................................131
      - Personal Power ..................................................................................................................141
      - Semantic Differential ......................................................................................................145
      - Structural Differential ....................................................................................................151
      - xiv

   - Social Behavior ......................................................................................................................155
      - Animalistic, Humanistic, and Rational: Views of Human Nature The Awareness Wheel 161
      - Bases of Power ..................................................................................................................161
      - Personal Power ..................................................................................................................165
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 4: Persona' Change and Therapy</th>
<th>171</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Co dependence ..... Conjoint</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Therapy Gestalt</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therapy , ...</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Pendulum Swing in the Growth Process</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Journal</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational-Emotive Therapy .................</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steps in Changing One's Own Behavior</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcendence Theory</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twelve-Step Programs ............</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 5: Motivation</th>
<th>225</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement Motivation</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach and Avoidance Dimensions of Typical Motives</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectancy Theory</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Needs and Personality Traits</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation-Hygiene Factors</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power Motivation, Gender, and Psychosocial Maturity</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary, Equity Theory, Merit Raises, and Motivation The</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Fulfilling Prophecy</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory X-Theory Y</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Processes of Social Influence</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 6: CareerJWork Roles</th>
<th>283</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Anchors</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Efficacy . .</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Stress . .</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Aspects of Life Vocational</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Vocational</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation Theory</td>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1

Characteristics, Orientations, and Traits

Androgyny 5
Bilateral Brain Theory 9
Creativity and Risk Taking 13
FIRO: The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation 17
Jungian Typologies 23
LIFO: Life Orientations Theory 31
Locus of Control ............ 35
Myers-Briggs Typologies . 43
Neuro linguistic Programing 57
Social Styles ...................... 63
Value Programing 71
Androgyny

In Western society, masculine and feminine characteristics traditionally have been thought to be polar opposites—=inherently separate from each other. This has resulted in people being locked into stereotypical roles.

**Socialized Male and Female Roles**

Men in our society are socialized primarily to value a task-oriented, achieving style in order to meet the needs of the organizations for which they will work. They are "supposed" to be competent, competitive, strong, powerful, and tough. They are geared toward an external rather than an intrinsic reward system. They are trained to rely on logic, to use a rational approach to problem solving—one that relies on ideas rather than wants or needs. They are afraid to express emotions or affection, to be tender or vulnerable. In fact, men often are regarded by women as insensitive, pushy, and brutal. Men also may pay a physical price for stifling their emotional natures: heart, disease, ulcers, and so on.

Women in our society are trained to meet the needs of the family. They are "supposed" to be sensitive, gentle, and caring—to nurture and take care of others. They have been taught to be expressive and oriented toward the development of others as an extension of themselves, to value the family setting as a means of fulfilling their own needs. Because this role has subordinated their individuality to the needs of the family or community, women may be regarded by men as dependent, incompetent, and weak. They, too, may pay a price: lack of self-confidence and poor psychological well-being. Many females are afraid to display competence or strength for fear of being seen as "competing" with men.

**Overcoming Cultural Stereotypes**

Studies of various cultures show that many of the "differences between men and women are learned rather than genetic or hormonal. Furthermore, there is wide variation among individuals, regardless of sex. Cultural prescriptions about sex roles ignore individual preferences and needs and create more problems than they solve. More and more, we are beginning to realize the importance and potential freedom of the quality of androgyny, in which men and women are not exclusively masculine or feminine but are able to demonstrate traits attributed to both sexes.

The word "androgyny" stems from the Greek andro (male) and gyné (female) and refers to a blending of both masculine and feminine characteristics. Thus, an androgynous person is someone who can be both independent and sensitive to the needs of others, aggressive and yielding, tough and tender, depending on the situational appropriateness of these various behaviors. A woman can be both a loving mother and an ambitious executive; conversely, a man is not a "sissy" if he enjoys the theater or cooking.
More and more of the roles in our society require a mixture of "male" and "female" traits: helping skills, collaboration, appreciation for others, and the ability to express oneself, as well as presence, authority, clear goals, and the ability to deal with power and influence. Effective problem solving has been shown to be a combination of the rational and the intuitive. Effective management has been shown to be a combination of the ability to personalize as well as the ability to generalize and the ability to enjoy the achievements of others as well as one's own. The most effective people are those who combine independence and competence with playfulness and nurturance.

Implications for Training and Development

One of the primary purposes of training and development in the area of androgyny is to expand individuals' range of roles and strengths and to allow people to choose from a variety of characteristics and behaviors the ones that suit their needs. The objective is to allow people to expand and develop their emotional, psychological, behavioral, and physical strengths regardless of gender. This does not mean that all people should be alike or "unisex"; rather, it suggests that people have the choice to be the kind of people they want to be for the situations they are in, not restricted to a limited set of "male" or "female" behaviors.

For women, this often requires training in leadership rather than in "hostessing." Many women need to learn to deal with conflict and power, to be appropriately assertive, to negotiate effectively, and to present themselves in a less self-effacing manner. They need to learn to ask for what they need, rather than "making do." For men, development may mean training in openness and emotional risk taking. They may need to develop support systems in which they can explore new behaviors. Many men need to learn to be less competitive, less controlling, less persuasive, less inscrutable, and more collaborative in their interactions with others. They need to learn to become more comfortable with self-disclosure and with the expression of their own feelings and those of others.

The Hem Sex-Role Inventory
The Bern Sex-Role Inventory is an instrument by which individuals rank themselves on sixty characteristics that often are thought of as masculine, feminine, or neuter. The respondents indicate how much they think each characteristic describes them. There are twenty items for feminine characteristics, twenty items for masculine characteristics, and twenty neutral items. The inventory takes about ten minutes to complete. When scored, the instrument places respondents in one of four categories:

- **Sex-typed**: traditional "masculine" males and "feminine" females,
- **Androgynous**: having characteristics attributed to both sexes,
- **Undifferentiated**: ranking themselves low on most traits, thus not indicating a tendency toward a particular pattern, and
- **Sex-reversed**: e.g., a male perceiving himself as having primarily "feminine" characteristics, or vice versa.
with problems such as sexual harassment in the workplace, gender-biased hiring/firing policies, pay discrepancies between men and women, arguments about the effect of working women on families, and also in more general sessions such as management development and team building. Managers of both sexes can learn to act authentically and interdependently, rather than limit themselves to the traditionally male roles of power, authority, and coercion. Men can learn to share their thoughts and feelings more with others. Women can learn to be comfortable with assertion and their own autonomy. All individuals, especially those who must manage or work with others, can benefit from increased freedom to select appropriate behaviors. In this aim, androgyny training is aligned with the overall goals of human resource development.

Reference


Sources


Bilateral Brain Theory

The study of the differences between the hemispheres (halves) of the brain began with an obscure French country doctor, Marc Dax, who noticed that patients who lost their powers of speech following brain injuries sustained damage to only the left sides of their brains. Dax proposed at a medical society meeting in 1836 that speech is controlled by the left side of the brain and, therefore, that the two hemispheres must control different functions. Although Dax's theory did not receive much attention at the time, it has since been the basis for a great deal of research and interest.

Brain Hemispheres

The human brain consists of two hemispheres that are mirror images of each other. The hemispheres are connected by the corpus callosum, a series of transverse nerve-fiber bundles that transmits information from one 'brain hemisphere to the other. Each hemisphere controls the movements and sensations of the opposite side of the body; that is, the left hemisphere controls the right side of the body, and the right hemisphere controls the left side of the body.

Human beings are asymmetrical; they are not equally adept at using their right and left sides. Unlike animals, who tend to be right- or left-sided but are equally divided in their preferences, the overwhelming majority of humans favor their right sides. Ninety percent of us are right-handed. Furthermore, researchers have discovered that the human brain itself is not symmetrical in its abilities. Although sensory and motor functions are equally divided, many of the higher mental capabilities (such as speech) seem to be controlled primarily by either one hemisphere or the other.

Much of the research that has been conducted on the hemispheres has occurred as a result of studying brain-injured persons or persons who have had their corpora callosa surgically cut for medical reasons (the latter are commonly known as split-brain patients). Mental functions that are hemispherically individualized have been identified in such persons by identifying the functions that have been impaired or eliminated and the side of the brain that was injured. It is then supposed that the injured hemisphere controls those functions.

Such study appears to indicate that the left brain controls a significant portion of the analytical mental functions such as language (both speech and comprehension) and logical and rational capabilities, whereas the right brain controls much of the intuitive capabilities—the ability to produce and appreciate music and art, as well as spatial skills. The hemispheres also seem to differ in their methods of processing information. The left brain tends to process information in a sequential manner, dealing with details and features, whereas the right brain tends to deal with simultaneous relationships and global patterns.

However, the above categorization does not explain our asymmetrical brains. If the above were foolproof, right-handed people all would be logical, organized, and reasonable people, and left-handed people all would be artistic, intuitive, and disorganized.
**LEFT HEMISPHERE**

- Analytical Functions (speech, language comprehension)
- Logical & Rational Functions
- Sequential Functions (details, features)

**RIGHT HEMISPHERE**

- Corpus Callosum
- Intuitive Functions (produce & appreciate music & art)
- Spatial Skills
- Simultaneous Functions (global, patterns)
Creativity and Risk Taking

Richard E. Byrd developed the Creatrix Inventory (*C&R7*) to allow people to identify their levels of *creativity* (the degree to which they can produce unconventional ideas) and their orientations toward *risk taking* (high, moderate, or low). In the *C&RT*, Byrd (1986) explains that different jobs require different amounts of creativity and risk taking; a proper match between employee and position will result in a happier, more productive employee.

**Creativity**

Our society tends to stifle creativity in early childhood, reinforcing thoughts and behaviors that are predictable, "realistic," "worthwhile," and "normal." Throughout our lives, we are encouraged to be conventional, to follow the norms of the groups in which we live and work. Creativity-unconventional thinking or originality-tends to be expected only in "artists."

**Risk Taking**

True creativity involves risk taking. In most organizations, managers and others are not willing to jeopardize their jobs, projects, or prestige enough to "stick their necks out." Successfully creative people often have to work hard to push their ideas through the system.

Personal orientations toward risk taking are formed from one's experiences in life, successes and failures, and one's perceptions about what one has to gain or lose. As one becomes more or less secure, one's risk-taking orientation may change. The degree to which one's associates support risk-taking behavior also influences this orientation.

**The Creatrix Matrix**

Byrd plots creativity and risk-taking orientations on a matrix; the vertical scale indicates degree of risk taking, and the horizontal scale designates the degree of creativity. The matrix is divided into eight sections (see figure), each representing a different combination of creativity and risk taking, representing eight personal styles. The eight styles are:

1. [c]
Reproducer, Modifier, Challenger, Practicalizer, Innovator, Synthesizer, Dreamer, and Planner.

Each style makes contributions to an organization and hinders it in some ways.

- **Reproducers** are low in risk taking and low in creativity. They tend to be guided by what they think others think and are rarely unconventional. They favor regulations and standardization and they resist new ways of doing things. They thrive in jobs requiring repetition (such as data entry or bookkeeping). Their predictability can be an asset to the organization. On the other hand, they can be a problem when the organization is attempting to initiate change.

- **Modifiers** are moderately creative and somewhat more risk taking than reproducers. They specialize in adding their ideas to something that already exists. Modifiers are not entrepreneurs, but they frequently find small ways to do things better. Their safe suggestions for improvement usually are accepted and valued by organizations. Because they wish to please, modifiers do not fight for their own ideas, nor do they come up with breakthroughs.

- **Challengers**, although high on the risk-taking scale, are not very creative. Although they espouse change, they are quick to criticize the ideas of others and are slow to come up with their own. Challengers serve the organization when they question ineffective or improper ways of doing things. Because they are so outspoken, they tend to be seen as muckrakers.

- **Practicalizers** are high on risk taking and moderately creative. They recognize the creativity of others and excel at taking a new idea and convincing top management of its workability by emphasizing its practical benefits. However, practicalizers are politically and bottom-line oriented and usually will not fight for implementation of a radical idea. The drawback of this characteristic is that a practicalizer may not be willing to gamble on the breakthrough idea of tomorrow.

- **Innovators** are the true entrepreneurs on the Creatrix scale. They are very high on risk taking and creativity. In fact, innovators always are creating and will fight hard to have their (often brilliant, often unconventional) ideas accepted and implemented by their organizations. Because many people are reluctant to support a radical idea or something that requires new technology, many innovators are forced to leave their organizations and start their own companies in order to implement their ideas. Although organizations need breakthrough ideas in order to compete, innovators tend to ignore the inevitable implementation problems that accompany these ideas and to become impatient to implement them.

- **Synthesizers** are high in creativity and moderately in risk taking. They excel in taking others' ideas, adding their own, and implementing them into existing situations. Synthesizers go beyond the practicalizers and are just short of innovators in their ability to produce change. Synthesizers will not risk all for their ideas, choosing to meet the needs of the organization over creativity for its own sake. Organizations value their synthesizers because they are more tractable. They are creative and assertive, but not radical. In fact, one of their strengths is their ability to combine various needs, ideas, or procedures. They may limit themselves by their unwillingness to take greater risks.

- **Dreamers** are also high in creativity, but very low on the risk-taking scale. They often think of a better mousetrap but are afraid to share their ideas unless asked for them. They tend to do much of their inventing at home. Dreamers can best serve their organizations if they are supervised by practicalizers, whose assertiveness and trust in their employees' ideas will help to get them through the system. Dreamers are underachievers and usually act as conformists within their organizations. Their capacity for creativity can be wasted, and they may set non-risk-taking norms.

- **Planners**, although low to moderate in terms of creativity and moderate in terms of risk taking, are very effective at thinking of ways to use the ideas of others. However, although they can devise the methods of implementation, they do not take the risks involved in pushing them through the organizational system. Planners are valued by organizations for their planning, coordinating, and managing abilities. They are the
people who coordinate but not the people who make things happen.

People can change their styles in that they can decide whether or not to take more risks and to try out new ideas and behaviors. This is easiest to do if one also can place oneself in a supportive environment—one in which creativity and risk taking are encouraged rather than frowned on or feared. Individual growth experiences such as therapy and human relations training also can encourage people to take more risks.

Source

The Creatrix Matrix


Theories and Models
The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO)

In 1958, Will Schutz published *The Interpersonal Underworld (FIRO)* (Schutz, 1966), containing his new theory of interpersonal behavior. FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) theory continues to be an important tool for human resource development specialists, consultants, and therapists. Although the theory concerns individual orientations, it has application to all interpersonal and group work.

**FIRO Theory and Behavior**

Schutz theorized that people's behavior in interpersonal relationships is based on three dimensions. These are:

- **Inclusion**: Being allowed contact with others; the issue of acceptance or rejection by others.
- **Control**: Having control or influence over other people; the question of power and authority.
- **Affection/Openness**: The original term, "affection," meant giving and receiving love, affection, friendship, etc. Shutz later decided (Schutz, 1982, 1989) that affection was a feeling dimension, not a behavioral one, and changed the term to "openness" to reflect its behavioral aspect. Openness is the degree to which one is comfortable sharing one's thoughts and feelings with others.

Next, Schutz stated that each of these three dimensions of behavior has two manifestations: *expressed* (how we say that we behave toward others) and *wanted* (how we say that we want others to behave toward us). Based on his research with his FIRO-B instrument, he later expanded these concepts so that each was a continuum:

- **Expressed-Received**: How we act toward others and how they act toward us.
- **Perceived-Wanted**: What we think is happening and what we say we want to happen.

Differences in these two areas indicate that what we *say we want* and what we *really want* from others often are two different things.
Schutz’s original instrument, the *FIRO-B (behavior)*, measures both an individual’s behavior and the behavior of others with whom the individual interacts. The instrument is an effective tool for showing people the differences between what they say they want from others and what they actually express as wants or needs.

To broaden FIRO theory to the organizational level, Schutz developed *The Schutz Measures: An Integrated System for Assessing Elements of Awareness* (University Associates, 1982). He extended the FIRO-B’s interpersonal-relationship components to five areas or “elements” of life: Behavior, Feelings, Self-Concept, Relationships, and Job. Each instrument measures different aspects, as shown in the tables that follow.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of FIRO Theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Instruments</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Schutz’s original instrument, the *FIRO-B (behavior)*, measures both an individual’s behavior and the behavior of others with whom the individual interacts. The instrument is an effective tool for showing people the differences between what they say they want from others and what they actually express as wants or needs.

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1. For the purposes of this discussion, “perceived” refers to what someone else expresses or does, and “wanted” refers to what someone wants. The table below illustrates this relationship for each of the five elements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expressed (Do)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Received (Get)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Openness</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Openness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I include people.</td>
<td>I control people.</td>
<td>I am open with people.</td>
<td>I want people to include me.</td>
<td>I want people to control me.</td>
<td>I want people to be open with me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People include me.</td>
<td>People control me.</td>
<td>People are open with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

² For a more detailed explanation of the dimensions and their implications, refer to the source material.
Elements: Behavior (Scale Names)

1 Tables reprinted by permission of Will Schutz, WSA, 61 Camino Alto, Suite 100-C, Mill Valley, CA 94941.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressed (Do)</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>I feel people are significant.</td>
<td>I want to feel people are significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>I feel people are competent</td>
<td>I want to feel people are competent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeability</td>
<td>I like people.</td>
<td>I want to like people.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Received (Get)</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>People feel I am significant.</td>
<td>I want people to feel I am significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>People feel I am competent.</td>
<td>I want people to feel I am competent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeability</td>
<td>People like me.</td>
<td>I want people to like me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELEMENT F: Feelings (Scale Names)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>I feel fully alive.</th>
<th>I want to feel fully alive.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>I control my own life.</td>
<td>I want to control my own life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>I am aware of myself.</td>
<td>I want to be aware of myself.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>I feel significant.</th>
<th>I want to feel significant.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>I feel competent.</td>
<td>I want to feel competent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeability</td>
<td>I like myself.</td>
<td>I want to like myself.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELEMENT 5: Self-Concept (Scale Names)**
### ELEMENT W: Work Relations (Scale Names)

#### Expressed (Do) Toward Co-Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inclusion</strong></td>
<td>I include you (partner).</td>
<td>I want to include you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control</strong></td>
<td>I control you.</td>
<td>I want to control you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness</strong></td>
<td>I am open with you.</td>
<td>I want to be open with you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feelings</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Significance</strong></td>
<td>I feel you are significant.</td>
<td>I want to feel you are significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competence</strong></td>
<td>I feel you are competent.</td>
<td>I want to feel you are competent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Likeability</strong></td>
<td>I like you.</td>
<td>I want to like you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Received (Get) From Co-Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inclusion</strong></td>
<td>You include me.</td>
<td>I want to feel you are significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control</strong></td>
<td>You control me.</td>
<td>I want you to control me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness</strong></td>
<td>You are open with me.</td>
<td>I want you to be open with me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feelings</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Significance</strong></td>
<td>You feel I am significant.</td>
<td>I want you to feel I am significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competence</strong></td>
<td>You feel I am competent.</td>
<td>I want you to feel I am competent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Likeability</strong></td>
<td>You like me.</td>
<td>I want you to like me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ELEMENT J: Job (Rating-Scale Names)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inclusion</strong></td>
<td>I include my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers include me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control</strong></td>
<td>I control my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers control me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness</strong></td>
<td>I am open with my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers are open with me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feelings</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Significance</strong></td>
<td>I feel my co-workers are significant.</td>
<td>My co-workers feel I am significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competence</strong></td>
<td>I feel my co-workers are competent.</td>
<td>My co-workers feel I am competent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Likeability</strong></td>
<td>I like my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers like me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inclusion</strong></td>
<td>I want to include my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers want to include me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control</strong></td>
<td>I want to control my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers want to control me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness</strong></td>
<td>I want to be open with my co-workers.</td>
<td>My co-workers want to be open with me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feelings</th>
<th>Perceived (See)</th>
<th>Wanted (Want)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Significance</strong></td>
<td>I want to feel my co-workers are significant.</td>
<td>My co-workers want to feel I am significant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Use of the Instruments
Schutz's work is valuable not only on an interpersonal level (as used by trainers, psychologists, counselors, etc.), but also in organizations (in team-building sessions and to facilitate change, for example), because it has been found that people who have a greater understanding of themselves and of others are more likely to get along, to work together harmoniously, and to experience fewer misunderstandings. Designed to be administered by a trainer or consultant, The Schutz Measures can be used for personal growth (employee and leadership training) to provide insight about the respondents' self-concepts, their behavior and feelings toward others, their relationships, and their interpersonal fit on the job. As part of training aimed at change, the instruments can help to "unfreeze" individuals by providing information they can use to set goals. The instruments also are valuable as pre- and post-training measurements to track changes in behavior and feelings as a result of training programs. Combining elements allows in-depth exploration of issues such as motivation, communication, job selection and placement, team building, and self concepts.

References


Source

Swiss psychiatrist Carl Jung is one of the most famous and most influential psychological thinkers of the twentieth century. Although his theory of analytical psychology contains many complex elements, some of them can be used in contexts other than psychoanalysis. Jung's notion of psychological types (Jung, 1971-first German edition, 1921) is a useful tool in helping people to recognize basic differences in human personalities. Primarily, it explains that all of us do not have the same basic orientations or ways of perceiving, interpreting, and responding to the world around us. This awareness can help us to better understand our own motivations and behaviors and can expand our tolerance and respect for those who are different from us.

Jung identified two basic” attitude types,” which describe the direction of the person's interest: the extraverted and the introverted.

**Extraverts**

The extravert is focused away from the self, on the "object" of his or her interest. The self or "subject" is subordinated to the object, which acts like a magnet to draw the person's interest away from the self. The extravert sees everything in terms of the objective event, thing, or person. Because they are "other" oriented, extraverts tend to be open and sociable. Even the negative ones who quarrel with others are interrelated with and affected by the others. In extreme cases, an extravert may abandon the self wholly to the purpose, goal, or ideal that is the object. The actions of extraverts tend to be guided by the demands of society and prevailing moral standards.

Because the consciousness of the extravert is focused outwardly, the unconscious thoughts, wishes, feelings, and needs of the extravert are essentially egocentric-they try to meet the needs of the self in order to maintain a psychiC equilibrium. The more the person becomes subjugated to the external, the more childish and selfish the unconscious becomes in an attempt to balance needs. In cases of dysfunctional imbalance, it bursts out in the form of verbal or physical abuse, substance abuse, nervous breakdown, and so on.

**Introverts**

The introvert is focused inward, on his or her own inner self and psychological processes what Jung calls the "subject" and "subjective processes." If the outside phenomenon generates or embodies a feeling or idea, it is the feeling or idea that matters to or interests the introvert, not the external thing that engenders it. The introvert sees everything in terms of his or her own situation. Because they are self-oriented, introverts tend to be reserved, shy, or inscrutable.
Jung illustrates the subjective factor by citing the various ways in which different artists will depict the same scene. Subjective perception is more concerned with the meaning of things than with their form. Likewise, the introverted consciousness is aware of external conditions but filters them through subjective reactions before deciding on action. Because the introvert "sets the ego and the subjective psychological process" above external phenomena and values his or her subjective judgment above objective data, he or she can appear to be egotistic. Because introverts speak more in generalities, they may be at a disadvantage in arguing with extraverts, but their judgments are often based on valid assumptions of which even they are unaware.

Jung states that the psychic" self," which includes the unconscious, is far more complex than the ego, which is the focal point of consciousness. However, in defending the self against the object, the introvert can lose the distinction between the self and ego and become subjugated to his or her ego, producing at the one extreme dysfunctional egocentricity or a power complex and at the other a mistrust or terror of objects, withdrawal, and chronic fatigue.

Every person has some of each orientation, a sort of rhythmic gravitational pull toward and away from the self, but one's basic disposition and life circumstances generally encourage one orientation and subordinate the other. Thus, one develops a more favored and more habitual orientation or "type:" Furthermore, the types seem to be randomly distributed irrespective of sex, class, level of education, etc.

**Secondary Types**

Jung also identified secondary types, which describe the predominance of different psychological functions. These "function types" are thinking, feeling, sensation, and intuitive. Each of these function types may be either extraverted or introverted.

**The Extraverted Thinking Type**

Extraverted thinking focuses on objective data, which can be in the form of perceptible facts or objective ideas-those that come from the outside-rather than subjective ones. Objective ideas are based on tradition and education. Judgment is based on criteria supplied by external conditions. Such thinking also is directed outward; it leads to external facts or generally accepted ideas. In its best forms, this type of thinking leads to the discovery of new data or new combinations of ideas.
In objective data, this type finds a formula by which to assess everything. This formula takes on the function of "truth," "right," "morality," or universal law, to which all must bend. It dictates "shoulds" and "musts." Exceptions are imperfections. The person can range from being a prig to being a "purist" such as Adolf Hitler. However, if humane considerations (e.g., special education, access for the disabled, equal rights, etc.) are part of this person's formula, he or she can be highly effective as a social reformer.

Repression of feelings in this type can lead to twists of motives, "the-end-justifies-the-means" thinking, neglect of the person's own well-being or family, overt defensiveness, and suspicion and aggressive condemnation of anything outside the person's increasingly dogmatic formula. The person is subordinated to the dogma, which is defended virulently.
The Extraverted Feeling Type

An extraverted person's feelings also are oriented by the influence of the object or external reality. This type of person may assume that he or she "feels" what it is good or polite to feel without questioning the qualities of the object, person, or reality that is assumed to be generating the feelings. Such feeling is guided by traditionally accepted standards. It is the reason why so many people go to see popular shows, adopt new styles, go to church, and support worthy causes. This is one of the benefits of extraverted feeling; it is a harmonious influence in society.

Jung believed that extraverted thinkers tended to be men and that extraverted feeling types predominantly were women. Their feelings were adjusted to harmonize with situations and accepted values; for example, the tendency of women to look for a "suitable" man to marry. This finding may well have been a reflection of the sex-role stereotyping of the time (1913-1918).

The ability to feel "correctly" is disturbed when one begins to think about the objective reality. Thus, any thoughts that might conflict with the person's feelings are rejected. In its most extreme form, extraverted feeling loses its personal quality, and the person becomes subordinated to feeling for its own sake. Protestations of feeling may have a hollow ring. Such a person may become involved in numerous relationships irrespective of the persons involved, may become an hysteric, and so on.

Jung refers to both extraverted thinking types and extraverted feeling types as "rational" or "judging" types. This is a description of how the persons themselves approach life, not of how they appear to function or behave. Inherent in their functioning is "a deliberate exclusion of everything irrational and accidental" (p.360). There is a deliberate attempt to categorize life in terms of predictable patterns, to allow only that which is objective. Of course, since much of an individual's reality (whether conscious or unconscious) is subjective, the attempted repression of all subjective functions is actually irrational. The unconscious sensations and impulses can surface in very primitive and unpleasant forms.

The Extraverted Sensation Type

In the extraverted type, sensation is dependent on the object; the subjective aspect of sensation is inhibited or repressed. Sensation can be obtained only from the outside. Thinking and feeling are entertained only when they enhance sensation. Objects (including persons and events) are valued insofar as they excite concrete sensations. As a result, this type tends to focus on sensations that are "sensuous."

The extraverted sensation type may appear to be the most complete realist because such a person accumulates objective facts and experiences of concrete objects. However, he or she may not fully utilize these experiences, focusing instead on collecting them. Such a person may be driven by the need for new sensations, in the guise of "living life to the full." Jung believed that the majority of this type were men. Because their goal is concrete enjoyment, their "morality is oriented accordingly" (p.363). Such a person is not necessarily merely sensual or lascivious; indeed the desire for sensation may be highly aesthetic. An example is the connoisseur who buys a painting that is known to be stolen because he or she desires to possess it.

Extraverted sensation types may be gourmands or gluttons. The repression of cognition may make them easy-going and gullible or amoral and ruthless. They may be refined gentlepersons (perhaps those who are known to keep a good table or to be attracted to others because of their physical attributes). However, as the subject is subordinated to the
Introverted thinking tends either to force the facts to fit the image or to ignore the facts and focus on fantasy. The introverted thinker's judgment and stance may appear to be inflexible and arbitrary because of his or her conviction of the superiority of the subjective. There also may be a tone of superiority in the way in which subjective ideas are announced, but because they are not based on mutually shareable data, defending them will be difficult and, thus, strongly avoided.

It is difficult for introverted thinkers to be understood by others. Their interpersonal orientation tends to range from shy to antisocial. The former tend to be gauche or naive and susceptible to flattery. Since this type of person avoids objective thinking, he or she is subject to exploitation by others. The latter tends to be aloof and uncommunicative, arrogant and rigid.

Subjective thinking may range from creating theories for their own sake, to creating visions of numerous possibilities without realizing any of them, to creating images that have no link to reality and which are merely symbols of the unknowable.

In defending itself against outside influences, this type can become extremely touchy, isolated, and even paranoid. The more the conscious excludes objective data and focuses on the purely subjective, the more the unconscious will come up with irrational, a-chaic fantasies in the form of the function that will supersede thinking. If the function is intuition, the focus may be mythological; if it is feeling, strange relationships based on irrational values may be formed. If it is sensation, the senses will invent bizarre perceptions. Since these are based in the subjective unconscious rather than in objective reality, all are manifestations of primitive, symbolic psychology. Because the ego will not allow itself to be taken over completely by the unconscious, the most advanced stage is a state of dissociation and debility.

The Introverted Feeling Type

Introverted feeling is difficult to describe objectively. It devalues the object, searching for inner intensity. Not easily "read" from the outside, and even more difficult to communicate than introverted thinking, it shuts the introverted feeler off from others. The individual tends to become indifferent to others or negatively judgmental.

Jung found this type primarily among women, who outwardly appeared to be inconspicuous, placid, childish, or melancholy. Only when the influence of the object asserts itself do such individuals reveal their indifference to others. In defense against the influence of the object, the emotions of others are treated coolly or rebuffed. Although capable of living harmoniously with others so long as no great interaction is required, this type can be extremely cold, critical, and "superior."

Being internal, introverted feeling can be quite intense without being apparent. As long as the ego is subordinated to the subject, this type functions normally. If, however, it becomes related to or subordinated to the ego, with its lack of regard for the object, it can turn into bossiness, tyranny, unbridled ambition, and cruelty. As it intensifies, it ranges from egocentricity to the seeking of mystical ecstasy, feeling for its own sake. Because it is not attached to the objective, it may believe itself to be above traditional morals and conscience. At this point the unconscious attempts to balance the functions; it unleashes primitive thinking. Feeling that other people are plotting, deceiving, and thinking mean, evil thoughts, this type goes on the offensive and becomes a neurotic, suspicious, unscrupulous rival.

Jung calls introverted thinking and introverted feeling the "introverted rational types" because they engage in rational judgment based on subjective data. Because they tend to
be misunderstood in a society that bases judgment on objective data, they may become defensive and egotistical. If they can learn to trust their own subjective processes, they will not be as apt to fall prey to these tendencies.

**The Introverted Sensation Type**

Although sensation is stimulated by the object; in the introverted sensor, the focus is on the subjective aspect of perception. Thus, the sensation does not translate directly but is altered by the subjective factor. The person responds simply to what happens inside. This can make his or her behavior unpredictable and arbitrary. If this type were not introverted, the expression of his or her irrational experience could be startling. Indeed, in the case of artists of this type, it often is.

Usually, however, the individual appears to be calm and controlled because of his or her detachment from objects. This type does not devalue objects as the two preceding ones do; its response is merely dissociated from the object. In order to protect against, the influence of the object—at the least to remain neutral to it—the person may reduce all perceptible reactions. This can lead to his or her being perceived as insipid and amenable to the aggressiveness of others—an interpretation that is incorrect.

If not artistic, this person—who suppresses thinking, feeling, and intuition—cannot express his or her impressions, which tend to take on archaic or mythological form. As it becomes more intense, this person's defense against the reality of the object may make him or her unable to relate to either persons or objects or, worse, to distinguish between reality and perception. This intense subjective influence can lead to irrational thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. The unconscious repression of intuition causes it to emerge in the form of unclear, dangerous possibilities. In balance, this awareness can compensate for the innocuousness of the consciousness. If the archaic intuitions of the unconscious prevail, however, the individual becomes neurotically compulsive.

**The Introverted Intuitive Type**

Introverted intuition perceives not external objects but the nature of the objects in a timeless form that combines past consciousness with the future. The subjective factor focuses attention not on external possibilities but on what is released within the individual. This is different from what occurs in the introverted sensing type; introverted intuition gives form to the subjective perception. It creates an internal image (not analogous to the external object or event that triggered the perception) and then attempts to explore it. If an introverted sensor is ill, he will focus on the sensations that are described as “feeling sick.” If an introverted intuitor is ill, she may focus on an image of a decaying person and the symbolism of the manifestations of decay. Such a person is oriented toward perception of images that reflect the contents of the unconscious. Jung views the images of the unconscious as archetypes, an inheritance of “the psychic functioning of the whole ancestral line” (p.400). The prophets, he says, were of this type.

Because the intuition suppresses feeling and sensation, the images and processes perceived by this type exist in isolation even from the subject. They evoke no feeling or sensation to remind the person that they are part of him or her. Such types move from exploring one image to the next, unaware that they are exploring their own unconscious selves. They also tend to be unaware of their own physical selves. These individuals may
become aloof from reality. This type includes artists, misunderstood geniuses, cranks, and mystical seers.

Judgment tends to be suspended in this type, so the "meaning" of the vision-in a moral sense-is not questioned; the focus is on the aesthetic possibilities of the vision. However, if judgment comes into play, a moral problem is created when the person attempts to relate to the vision and asks: "What does this mean or imply; what should I do about it?" Unfortunately, this person will attempt to act on the subjective vision, not in terms of external reality, and is likely to be misunderstood and ineffective.

The introverted intuitive type represses sensation of the object. This causes the unconscious to compensate with an archaic, extraverted-sensation function. This can lead to compulsive sensations, hypochondria, sensory hypersensitivity, and compulsive attachments to people or objects.

Jung calls the introverted sensation type and the introverted intuition type the "introverted irrational types" because they repress judgment. Being inwardly focused, they display little to the outside world but aloofness and uncertainty. Only manifestations of the unconscious functions are apt to break through, and these are of a primitive or negative quality. Their lack of communication, their inability to express their inner visions., and their coldness to others can shut them off from much human interaction. On the other hand, they may be our only representation of the richness of life that exists not externally but within us.

Commentary on Types

In general, the Western world favors extraverted functions over introverted ones and trusts objective facts more than subjective knowledge. Thus, although introverts are not necessarily in the minority numerically, they are at a disadvantage in society, because they cannot communicate their experience as effectively.

Fortunately, few individuals are pure types. We all tend to have some external and some subjective focuses, and we all tend to use thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuition to some degree. A function is conscious when it is "under the control of the will" (p. 405) and determines the orientation of consciousness. Thus, only one function can dominate. There is, however, a secondary or complementary function-one that is not opposed to the dominant function. For example, because thinking represses feeling, feeling cannot be the secondary function to thinking. Thinking is complemented by intuition or sensation so long as they are subordinated and their orientation toward perceiving clarifies but does not interfere with the thinking function of judgment.

Reference

LIFO: Life Orientations Theory

Although there are many different ways of classifying human behavior, Stuart Atkins's Life Orientations theory (UFO) provides a different perspective of human functioning by focusing on people's life orientations. Based on their personal life experiences and what has worked or not worked for them in the past, people develop preferences for one or more life orientations. These preferences predispose them to particular attitudinal and behavioral patterns. Life Orientations theory describes four different ways in which people view the world and, thus, communicate with others and accomplish what needs to be done. An individual may have more than one life orientation; in general, people have one, two, or three dominant orientations and may have one, two, or three supplementary ones. Atkins (1981) suggests that life orientations are relatively stable and determine the ways in which people relate to the world. Life orientations are, in effect, people's game plans for life, the bases for their choices and actions. The four life orientations identified by Atkins are supporting-giving, controlling-taking, conserving-holding, and adapting-dealing.

One orientation is no better or worse than another. Each orientation represents an unique and positive aspect of human existence and, as such, each contributes to success in its own characteristic way.

**Strengths**

UFO theory stresses the strengths of each life orientation. Atkins believes that too much negative energy is expended when one begins to focus on weaknesses. It is healthier and much more productive to focus on strengthening the things that are right.

**Supporting-Giving.** People with this orientation demonstrate their worth by hard work and the pursuit of excellence. They are idealistic, work hard, and set high standards for themselves and others. They also try hard to be fair, trust others, and believe that doing right and being helpful will bring rewards. Atkins says that the strengths of people with the supporting-giving orientation are in being thoughtful, idealistic, modest, cooperative, trusting, helpful, and loyal.

**Controlling-Taking.** Those who approach life with a controlling-taking orientation stress action, competence, and seizing available opportunities. They emphasize doing, results, and bottom-line performance. They recognize opportunity, act quickly, and believe that the good things in life are there for the taking. Atkins identifies the strengths of this orientation as self-confidence, forcefulness, quickness, an action orientation, competitiveness, enterprise, and a willingness to take charge and provide direction.

**Conserving-Holding.** This orientation stresses reason, thought before action, and making the most out of what one has. People with this orientation are methodical, precise, and tenacious; they want to analyze all aspects of an issue before deciding or acting. They
tend to be reserved and want to know that something is foolproof before proceeding. Atkins labels the strengths of the conserving-holding orientation as follows: methodical, thrifty, reserved, tenacious, practical, systematic, and factual.

**Adapting-Dealing.** People who have this orientation stress pleasing and attending to the needs of others. They believe that getting along with and meeting the needs of others is more important than attending to their own personal needs. They are enthusiastic, charming, and empathize with others. Atkins says that the strengths of those with the adapting-dealing orientation are their tact, enthusiasm, willingness to negotiate, willingness to try new things, humor, flexibility, and eagerness.

For example, those who favor supporting-giving are successful because of their principles, cooperation, dedication, and loyalty; those who favor controlling-taking are successful because of their persistence, urgency, initiative, and directing strengths; those who favor conserving-holding are successful because of their systematic, analytical, maintaining, and tenacious strengths; and those who favor adapting-dealing are successful because of their tact, awareness, flexibility, and social strengths.

**Excesses**

Strengths make the game plans work and help people to become successful. Yet the same characteristics that aid success become dysfunctional and promote failure when used to excess. In other words, they become too much of a good thing. Atkins lists the most common excesses of each life orientation as follows:

- **Supporting-Giving:** trying too hard and giving too much.
- **Controlling-Taking:** moving too fast and coming on too strong.
- **Conserving-Holding:** moving too slow and holding on too long.
- **Adapting-Dealing:** staying too loose and going along too far.

As shown in the figure, each life orientation or game plan has an unique set of related strengths and excesses. For example, the controlling-taking orientation characteristically is strong in the area of initiating action and taking charge. Yet these same strengths in excess leads to acting too quickly (impulsivity) and too much control (domination).

For Atkins, prevention of excess is accomplished by moderating strengths in accordance with the following process:

- **Confirming:** Knowing one's orientation, its strengths, and its value;
- **Capitalizing:** Finding situations that allow use of strengths;
- **Moderating:** Avoiding using strengths to excess;
- **Supplementing:** Seeking help from others with different orientations;
- **Extending:** Learning to use strengths of other orientations;
- **Bridging:** Improving communications with those who are oriented differently.
Dealing with Others

There can be problems when people with different life orientations attempt to relate or work together. Atkins argues that the golden rule—"Do unto others as you would have others do unto you"—is not accurate. People do not necessarily want to be treated the same way we do, and to be effective, the secret is to treat others the way they want to be treated, i.e., in accordance with their life orientations. For example, the supporting-giving orientation wants to know how something will benefit all concerned; the controlling-taking type wants to know what the opportunities for progress are; the conserving-holding type wants data on how well it works; and the adapting-dealing type wants to be sure that everybody will like it.

To create productive, harmonious, and meaningful relationships, the differences in people must be dealt with. For Atkins these differences are best dealt with by:

- **Identifying** what the differences are;
- **Understanding** how the differences work for others;
- **Appreciating** the value and worth of other orientations;
- **Utilizing** the differences to plan, solve problems, and make decisions from a different perspective; and
- **Organizing** activities to utilize the strengths of all the different life orientations involved.

In his UFO Training courses, Atkins teaches how to identify one's life orientations, what typical game plans are, how to make the most of one's strengths, how to minimize one's excesses, how to develop strategies for success, and how to deal with people who have different life orientations.

Reference

Supporting-Giving Orientation

General Excesses:
Too Much - Too Hard

Strengths:
- Thoughtful
- Idealistic
- Modest
- Cooperative
- Trusting
- Helpful
- Loyal

Excesses:
- Self-Denying
- Utopian Self-Effacing
- Passive
- Gullible
- Overprotective,
- Blindly Allegiant

Controlling-Taking Orientation

General Excesses:
Too Strong - Too Fast

Strengths:
- Confident
- Forceful
- Quick
- Competitive
- Active
- Directing
- Enterprising

Excesses:
- Arrogant Coercive
- Impulsive
- Combative
- Impatient
- Domineering
- Opportunistic

Adapting-Dealing Orientation

General Excesses:
Too Loose - Too Far

Strengths:
- Tactful
- Enthusiastic
- Negotiating
- Experimental
- Humorous
- Flexible
- Eager

Excesses:
- Placating
- Impassioned
- Yielding
- Aimless
- Foolish
- Acquiescent
- Childish

Conserving-Holding Orientation

General Excesses:
Too Slow - Too Long

Strengths:
- Methodical
- Thrifty
- Reserved
- Practical
- Systematic
- Factual
- Tenacious

Excesses:
- Plodding Stingy
- Withdrawn
- Unimaginative
- Complicated
- Data-Bound
- Stubborn
Locus of Control

Social Learning Theory

The concept of locus of control was developed by Julian Rotter (1954, 1982) as an extension of his "social learning theory." Rotter stated (a) that a person was more likely to behave in a certain way if he or she expected that the behavior would result in a desired or positive outcome (reinforcement) and (b) if the reward or reinforcement had a high value to the person. In this, Rotter's theory can be related to expectancy theory.

Rotter's theory and the concept of reinforcement led him to study the development of notions of internal and external control. His theory asserts that reinforcement is contingent on whether a person learns to expect a reward for performing a specific action. For example, if a child notices that she receives dessert every time she eats all her vegetables, she will learn (to expect) that in order to receive dessert all she needs to do is finish her vegetables. This is an example of internal control: the child realizes that her actions have a direct bearing on whether or not she receives dessert.

This way of looking at what happens is different from operant conditioning, which focuses on the fact that the child may learn to eat her vegetables because she is rewarded whenever she does it correctly. Operant conditioning and similar learning theories focus on how outcomes (particularly reinforcement) affect learning (replicated behavior). Rotter's theory also should not be confused with the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) that focuses on observation and imitation of social models or with instrumental conditioning (Miller & Dollard, 1950). Rotter focuses on the individual's learned expectations about how (or whether) his or her behavior affects outcomes. Thus, Rotter is not so concerned with how one learns as he is with whether one grows to believe that one's actions directly affect outcomes.

In another example, if a struggling writer submits article after article to magazines and receives rejection slip after rejection slip, not only is it possible that this writer will take a dim view of his or her abilities ("Nobody likes my writing; I must be a terrible writer"), he or she may attribute an eventual sale to outside factors or discredit it altogether ("That magazine sure must be hard up"; "It was sheer luck that my work was accepted"). This person does not believe that his behavior affected the outcome.

Locus of Control

Rotter uses the term "locus of control" to describe the ways in which individuals attribute responsibility for events to factors within themselves and within their control or to factors outside their control. He proposes that the degree to which we regard an incident as a reward (or reinforcement) is influenced by whether we perceive the reinforcement as resulting directly from our own actions or whether we perceive the reinforcement as resulting from exterior forces or "fate." When a course of action produces an event that does not seem to be the direct result of that action, it is likely to be attributed to "luck" or "God's will" rather than to the person who pursued that course of action.
Attribution Theory

Attribution theory deals with how people ascribe causes to behaviors they perceive. These perceptions about cause and effect lead to assumptions about how things will happen in the future. One branch of attribution theory classifies the way in which people perceive contingency relationships between their actions and outcomes.

Individuals attribute responsibility for events that occur in their lives to factors within themselves and their control or to factors outside their control. Factors within one's control include one's attributes, abilities, efforts, and the like. People who believe that control resides within themselves are referred to as internal locus-of-control oriented or "internals." Such people believe that they are in control of their own lives and have some control over their destinies.

Other people believe that their outcomes are determined or controlled by factors external to themselves, that much of what happens to them in life is controlled by circumstances outside their control such as fate, luck, the influence of other powerful people, and so on. People who perceive an external locus of control are called "externals."

How Locus of Control Is Developed

A person's locus of control has several antecedents, which may be accumulative or episodic.

Accumulative antecedents are events that occur over a long period of time and involve continual exposure. Although relatively little research has been done concerning accumulative events, three important factors have been identified: (a) social discrimination; (b) prolonged, incapacitating disability; and (c) parental child-rearing practices. Lefcourt (1966) states that in all the reported ethnic studies, groups whose social position is one of minimal power by class or race tend to score higher in the direction of external control (p. 212). Studies with the deaf have established a relationship between long-term physical disability and externalism. Evidence pertaining to the effects of parental child-rearing practices is more substantial, although it primarily is self-reported data regarding the subject's childhood experiences. Externals tend to describe their parents as higher in the use of physical punishment, affective punishment, denial of privileges, and overprotection. Internals, on the other hand, describe their parents as setting predictable standards, using more principled discipline, and being more warm and democratic. In general, internals have been exposed to parental behaviors that foster independence and a belief in being able to manage oneself in order to predictably achieve desired outcomes. There also is some evidence that sex-role stereotyping and social discrimination lead women, as a group, to be more external than men (Rotter, 1966; Feather, 1968).

Episodic antecedents are events of great importance to a person that occur over a relatively short period of time (MacDonald, 1973). Examples of such events are earthquakes or tornadoes, serious automobile accidents, the deaths of loved ones, serious economic changes, and national or international affairs.

2 The studies summarized here are reviewed in Reichard (1975), and several conclusions are quoted from that source. Additional studies are reported in Lefcourt (1976).
Research on Locus of Control

Research on the behavioral patterns of externals and internals suggests that an internal locus of control contributes to effectiveness in organizational roles. Studies indicate that employees who believe in an internal locus of control generally are more mature, self-reliant, and responsible. They have higher levels of job satisfaction and are more attuned to a participative management style. The research suggests the following:

1. Externally oriented individuals are more apt to express unrealistic occupational aspirations (DuCette & Wolk, 1972).
2. Externals are less able to cope with demands of reality (Phares, 1968).
3. Locus of control affects behavior on the job. Internals take better care of equipment, indicate more satisfaction with job training, rate higher in work tolerance, and are more cooperative, self-reliant, and knowledgeable about their work (Tseng, 1970).
4. In studies of job-seeking behaviors of unemployed individuals, internals were found to exhibit more self-direction and to accept more responsibility for their career development (Tiffany, Cowan, & Tiffany, 1970).
5. When appointed as supervisors, internals rely more on personal persuasion, whereas externals are more likely to use coercive power and threats, thus indicating the difference in their perceived expectancy of successful influence (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973).
6. Internals tend to pick people with superior or equal ability as partners to complete a task. Externals are more likely to pick partners of inferior ability and are less confident of the outcomes when relinquishing their personal control, since their fate is perceived as largely influenced by powerful others (Ryckmann & Sherman, 1973).
7. Internals are quicker than externals to adopt innovations and new practices. In agricultural groups, farmers who used new agricultural practices were found to be more internal than others. People with small-family-size norms also tend to be internals (see Pareek & Rao, 1974).

Most of the research indicates that people are handicapped by an external orientation, by failing to exercise control over their environments. Such people do not experience the psychological success that enables them to feel satisfied or successful in their work.

Individual Characteristics of Internals and Externals

Characteristics of internals and externals have been identified through both clinical reports and research. Internals are likely to describe themselves as active, striving, achiev-
ing, powerful, independent, and effective. Externals are more likely to describe themselves in opposite terms (Hersch & Scheibe, 1967).

Internality has been found to be positively associated with indices of social adjustment and personal adjustment (Hersch & Scheibe, 1967). There also is evidence that internals are more achievement oriented, less anxious, less dogmatic, more trusting, less suspicious of others, less apt to use sensitizing modes of defenses, and more self-confident and insightful. Internals, however, tend to resort to more self-blaming behavior than do externals. Because externals do not perceive outcomes as being the result of their actions, they assume less responsibility or blame. In betting situations, internals are more cautious and conservative than externals; they are "percentage players" in risk situations.

Locus of control also indicates an individual's perception of authority figures. Internals perceive authority as more encouraging of constructive environmental manipulation, as more supportive when difficulty is encountered, as more positively reinforcing, as having more predictable standards, and as acting on and from issue-oriented reason (Ferguson & Kennelly, 1974). The fact that internals perceive authority figures more positively tends to affect their behavior as managers (as authority figures to their subordinates and as subordinates of others in the organizational hierarchy).

Rotter (1966) states that "theoretically, one would expect some relationship between internality and good adjustment in our culture but such a relationship might not hold for extreme internal scores." The extremely internalized person may be self-flagellating. Conversely, the extremely externalized person may blame outside factors as a defense against admitting personal inadequacies. Extreme externals may be passive in the face of environmental difficulties, which could result in maladjustment to society.

Locus of Control and Entrepreneurship

David McClelland of Harvard University, through a series of research studies (McClelland, 1961; McClelland & Winter, 1969), identified characteristics of entrepreneurs and actually trained people to be entrepreneurs, using experiential methods. Subsequent research studies and training experiences have revealed that an internal locus of control is an important characteristic of entrepreneurs. In fact, internalization appears to be a primary characteristic of those who act as change agents to improve themselves or their group, community, or organization (Pareek, 1981; Reichard, 1975).

Changing the Locus of Control: Training Implications

Any behavior that is learned can be changed. Locus of control is socially learned behavior. The conditions for change include: (a) a desire to change, (b) clarity about the direction of desired change, (c) a clear idea of the present condition, and (d) knowledge of the process or mechanisms of change. Professionally led training programs can help people to change by pointing out the implications of external and internal orientations; by facilitating self-awareness, feedback, and assessment; and by providing mechanisms for change.

It may be hypothesized that change from an external locus of control to an internal one is more time consuming and difficult than change from an internal locus to an external
one. Episodic events and frustrating experiences can lead a person to become more external, and such events occur continually in life. However, it is possible to design organizational processes that reinforce and encourage internalism. Internalism can be fostered through training, through specific reward systems, and through experiences of personal success (Pareek, 1982).

References

Internal Versus External Locus of Control

**INTERNAL**

I affect/control what happens to me

**EXTERNAL**

Others affect/control what happens to me
Myers-Briggs Typologies

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator™ (Briggs & Briggs Myers, 1977) is a well-known instrument that measures personality types and preferences, based on Carl Jung's descriptions of psychological types. The instrument helps to identify differences in the ways in which individuals perceive and judge the world around them. Perceiving means obtaining an awareness of a situation and the factors involved in it. Judging means deciding what to do about it. The instrument does not measure intelligence or abilities.

Ways of Perceiving: Sensing and Intuition.

Some people form perceptions of what is going on around them primarily by using their senses (sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch). They read, they listen, they test, and so on. Their perceptions are based on perceived realities or facts. These “sensors” tend to notice all the observable facts—and they can remember and use them. They tend to be realistic and practical. On the other hand, they may not perceive creative solutions. They prefer standardized approaches to dealing with things and do not like change. They are precise; they work methodically and steadily, checking their facts.

Other people are more skillful at using intuition (feelings, possibilities, hunches) as their primary means of forming opinions about what exists and what might be done about it. These “intuitors” value imagination and inspiration. They generate new problem-solving approaches and solutions and they envision new possibilities, new ideas and ways of doing things. They may, however, become enamored of an idea without determining whether it is practical. They dislike routine and are more concerned with the possibilities in a situation than with the details of practical application. They do not mind if something is complicated as long as it is new and different.

We all use both ways of perceiving, but we tend to favor one or the other in most situations.

Ways of Deciding: Thinking and Feeling

Some people decide what to do by thinking about it, predicting the logical effect or outcome of any particular action, and deciding on that basis. Such people have confidence in the thinking process. They tend to be objective and analytical, weighing both the positive and negative facts. They are skilful in using logic and function best in logical situations (e.g., with machinery), without unpredictable or irrational elements.

The drawback to this is that they may base decisions on logic but ignore the human considerations. They are not comfortable in sharing their own feelings or in eliciting or dealing with the feelings of others. However, they do have a sense of justice and fairness. They are able to censure or punish others when necessary.

43
with personal values than with logic. Because they also tend to pay attention to the feelings and values of others, they are sympathetic and good at working with other people. They place a high value on harmonious relationships. This type may, however, fail to consider other types of consequences. They may be too influenced by their own preferences or those of others.

Most of us employ both thinking and feeling, but not at the same time or with the same amount of confidence.

### Combinations of Perceiving and Deciding

There are four possible combinations of perceiving and judging. Each combination results in a different "type" of individual. These differences affect the ways in which people interact with others, what types of work they are most suited for, and how well they function in different situations. For example, one goal of using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator™ is to find out what types of work are best suited to one's preferred ways of perceiving and deciding.

- **Sensing and Thinking.** The ST type trusts facts—whatever can be perceived by the senses and verified. STs make impersonal, thinking decisions based on analysis of the facts, logically reasoning in terms of cause and effect.

- **Sensing and Feeling.** SF individuals also are interested in facts but base their final judgments on their feelings and on how much something matters to them or to others.

- **Intuition and Feeling.** NF people also make decisions based on personal feelings. However, they are not interested in facts but in possibilities, new concepts and new plans. This type also is interested in the potential of people.

- **Intuition and Thinking.** NT people are interested in new possibilities but because they decide by thinking, they make judgments based on logical analysis. They tend to be interested in exploring theoretical or technical ideas and are not as interested in the feelings of others.

People tend to use two of the four functions, favoring one and using the second as a complementary process. For example, if a person favors sensing or intuition, which are ways of perceiving, his or her complementary or auxiliary style will be thinking or feeling, which are decision-making or judging functions. In this way, there is greater balance in how the person perceives and decides.

However, to be fully functional, a person needs to use both ways of perceiving and both ways of judging. This is a skill that each individual can develop. Once people know what their preferred styles are, they can consciously practice using others in order to expand their capabilities and possibilities. Also, some ways of perceiving and judging are more useful in certain situations. For example, *sensing* is best for obtaining an impartial, accurate impression of the situation or reality. *Intuition*, on the other hand, is the best way to unearth the possibilities in a situation. It is a creative way of perceiving. For making judgments, *thinking* is preferred when an impersonal, objective, logical analysis is required. *Thinking* includes assessing probabilities and possible outcomes. As an alternative, *feeling* is useful in deciding what something really means to oneself or others or what the
s strengths and to respect the need for differences.

Other Jungian Characteristics Measured by the Instrument

Extraversion and Introversion

Jung (1971) described two types of personal orientation: extraverted (directed outward toward external people and things) or introverted (focused inward on one's personal phenomena).

Extraverts tend to like work that involves them in interactions with people and things. They tend to be results oriented, preferring to achieve things quickly. They are impatient with things that slow them down. They enjoy communicating with and dealing with other people.

Introverts tend to prefer work that calls for individualized thinking. They like to concentrate on ideas and details. In fact, ideas often are more important to them than results. They dislike generalities. They are not people-oriented and tend to find it difficult to communicate with others.

Judging and Perceiving

People also differ in what they do with the information they perceive about what is going on in the world. Some merely perceive; they tend to have a spontaneous, adaptable attitude about dealing with life. They are not committed to one way of doing something. This characteristic of not committing also makes it difficult for them to make decisions and to prioritize things that need to be done. They may, therefore, postpone some things and not finish others. They like to learn new things about people and situations and they particularly want to know all the facts before deciding on something.

Other people evaluate and judge the information they receive about life. They are the planners, organizers, and regulators. They like to make decisions and plan ahead. They like to see results without much delay. When they are working on a project, they forge ahead single-mindedly and do not like to be interrupted to attend to other things or to change direction. Because their tendency is to decide quickly, they may neglect to collect all the data.

The J/P preference is oriented toward the external reality, as is the focus of the extravert.

Therefore, an extravert's preferred mode (E or P) is the way in which he approaches what is going on around him. In contrast, introverts use their preferred modes (I or P) in approaching the internal world, because that is where their focus is. Their secondary process is the one that they use in dealing with external reality. So if an introvert prefers to judge,
Combinations of preferences for any individual are described by letter abbreviations, for example, ISFP or ENTJ. All combinations are depicted below, followed by descriptions of the combinations as personality "types."

Extraverts

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Introverts

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Myers-Briggs Typologies

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The Extraverted Thinking Types: ESTJ and ENTJ

Extraverted thinkers trust and become adept in using thinking (objective reasoning, logic, analysis, critique) and do not trust or rely on data based on feelings (emotions). Their behavior also is guided by reason and logic; the irrational and accidental are to be avoided. They prefer things to occur in predictable patterns, according to governing laws or moral truths. They organize data, formulate goals and plans, and attempt to influence what is happening by following those plans, often in a specified time frame. They can be persevering and tough in pursuit of their objectives. They are impatient with and frustrated by lack of comprehension, lack of direction, inefficiency, ineffectiveness, or lack of follow-through.

Su\ such people do well in positions in which they are called on to plan, direct, or control, i.e., as executives, administrators, directors, or officers. They can become caught up in the idea or plan; they need to remember to suspend judgment periodically in order to perceive, to check their assumptions, and to listen to the other people who are involved. They are more effective if they attempt to develop their feeling functions, especially in becoming aware of the feelings of others and remembering to acknowledge them, e.g., complimenting others when something is done well.

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ESTJ

ENTJ

types
perceive through their senses rather than their intuition. They tend to be pragmatic, practical, no-nonsense, and factual. They base their concepts on observable facts and verifiable data. They trust things that they can touch and manipulate rather than elusive concepts. They utilize historic and traditional ways of doing things and adapt them as necessary to create new methods. They like to achieve visible, measurable results. For this reason, they are suited to businesses in which they can organize and direct the production of some type of product.

ENTJ

This extraverted thinking type uses intuition rather than sensing to determine what is going on, especially the relationships between things. They are primarily interested in exploring possibilities. They look more at what is not seen in something: the evolving, the undiscovered. Their intellectual curiosity is exploratory, and they enjoy delving into new concepts and theories and generating a range of possible outcomes. Their specialty is insight into external things, and they are able to see the overall picture, rather than getting hung up on details or pieces.

Such people are happiest when they are called on to use their intuition, to explore problems and generate new possibilities and solutions. They like to be with people who will explore concepts, but they also benefit from association with sensors who can remind them of facts and details.
The Introverted Thinking Types: ISTP and INTP

Introverted thinkers are more concerned with new points of view and new theories than with new facts. They prefer to analyze rather than to direct or do and they prefer to deal with ideas and to avoid dealing with people or things. Their focus is on principles and symbolism, rather than things themselves. They tend to be impersonal and objectively critical.

Because their thinking is focused inward, in their dealings with the outside world (their secondary lives), they use their perceptive process, sensin or intuiting. Thus, they are quiet and reserved because of their detachment from external phenomena. However, they believe in the superiority of the subjective thinking process and are apt to be inflexible, arbitrary, and arrogant in defense of their own ideas, theories, or visions. This is, in part, because their ideas are so difficult to defend in other people's terms. Their ideas are often symbolic images that are difficult to communicate; thus, they are rarely used. With their inward focus and the difficulty of sharing it with others, this type tends to be isolated and can be either shy and naive or aloof and antisocial. They may be inexperienced in dealing with the outside world.

Introverted thinkers are not often aware of the feelings of others. They need to develop this awareness and perception and to behave in a way that acknowledges the feelings and realities of others.

ISTP

This type uses thinking and sensing to observe the innate properties and details of things. Such individuals excel in technical, scientific, or statistical work, especially in analyzing and organizing knowledge and data and eliciting principles and meanings. They are patient and good company in valued pursuits, but they do not like to waste time or effort. When they are accurate in their assessment of the effort required, they are efficient. If not, they can become lazy or ineffective.

INTP

This type uses intuition to explore possibilities. New ideas and theories are more important than mere facts. Such people are attracted to jobs involving research and conceptual searching. They may be research scientists, theoretical mathematicians, philosophers, scholars, and the like. They use their thinking and intuition to generate ingenious ideas and solutions, but are not interested in making practical use of them.

Like extroverted thinkers who use intuition, they need to obtain input about the practical aspects of their ideas before going off on tangents.
The Extraverted Feeling Types: **ESFJ** and **ENFJ**

Extraverted feeling types are guided by traditional standards about what is good or polite to feel. They look for the good in others. They value harmonious relationships with others and often serve as peacemakers. They are friendly, warm, and sympathetic, and are skilled in saying the right thing to make someone else feel good. They are sensitive to the feelings of others; they feel happy in friendly and approving relationships and they are disturbed when people seem to be indifferent to them. They do well in work situations in which cooperating and interacting well with people is required. It is difficult for them to be in impersonal situations. They are loyal to the people and institutions with which they are associated.

What this type often fails to do is question the true goodness of others or their true feelings about those whom they are with or what they are doing. They tend to follow established rules and values about what is correct and expect others to do so as well. They are decorous, principled, scrupulous, methodical, and persevering. However, they may behave according to values or feelings that they have introjected but which are not true for them or for those with whom they are interacting. Because such questioning is disharmonious and disturbing, they would rather not engage in it, and any thoughts that conflict with the "correct" feelings are rejected. Thus, they may fail to face their true feelings or the problems in which they are involved.

**ESFJ**

This type uses sensing as a backup, which helps them to remain up-to-date and in touch with reality. ESFJs enjoy the material things in life. They relish new experiences. However, their plans and decisions are based on data and reasoning, and they can adapt to routine. Their feeling helps them to be aware of the feelings of others, and their sensing helps them to be aware of the discomfort of others. They are attracted to the health-care and helping professions.

**ENFJ**

Intuition is the auxiliary function of these extraverted feelers. They specialize in empathy, insight, theory, new knowledge, and visions of the future. The appeal of possibilities helps them to see the possibilities of people. They engage in personal development. Their skill in verbal communication also enables them to inspire others, and they may become counselors, therapists, or teachers.

The Introverted Feeling Types: **JSFP** and **JNFP**

People of this type do not show their feelings easily to others. Although their feelings may be intense, they are introverted and not associated with the feelings of others. Thus, this type may appear to be inconspicuous, placid, reserved, or cold and unfeeling. Their personal focus and lack of connection with others leads them to disregard conventional values and to select their own morals and conscience, which guide their own standards of behavior.

Because their feeling function is focused inward, such people use either sensing or intuition in their outward lives. They are not bothered by what happens around them unless it conflicts with or threatens their personal feelings or values. In general, therefore, they are calm and adaptable. They are not concerned with impressing or controlling others. They limit their friendships to those who can understand their investment in their inner lives.
will devote themselves to it. In fact, they may work in the service of their feelings and values to the extent that they demand too much of themselves and feel guilty for not achieving more. If they can develop their perception, they can become more aware of actual possibilities and realities and can be more effective and confident in their endeavors. Without a valued outlet for their feelings (e.g., work), such individuals tend to become frustrated, oversensitive, and critical of others and of themselves for having achieved so little.

**ISFP**

With sensing as a backup function, ISFPs are aware of the realities of the situation. Because they are not as distracted by external things, they can concentrate for long periods of time, and are good at tasks that require monitoring or close observation. Although they may be concerned with the feelings of others, they are introverts, so are more apt to do something about it than to say something about it. They tend to want to champion the hurt, helpless, or underprivileged and they may become nurses, social workers, and the like. They may have difficulty in accepting the limitations of what they can do, blaming themselves rather than circumstances or reality.

**INFP**

Introverted feelers who use intuition see the possibilities in situations. They are interested in insights, new ideas, new knowledge, and long-range visions related to their concerns. They are not detail oriented. They tend to have more skill in expressing themselves than do ISFPs and exercise this skill in the service of their interests and ideals. They, too, are attracted to work such as counseling, teaching, and social welfare.

**The Extraverted Sensing Types: ESTP and ESFP**

Extraverted sensors have an innate ability to accumulate and use experiences. They notice what goes on with the people and objects around them. They do not engage in a lot of thinking and feeling about what they observe, so they are able to be good natured about the situations in which they find themselves. They perceive rather than judge, so they do not waste time and effort trying to make situations conform to an ideal; they are free to apply what they know and to try whatever will work. They also tend to accept whatever they find in themselves and others. Their easy-going example may help others to be more adaptable and tolerant, too. For this reason, they make good arbitrators, compromisers, and peacemakers. Because of their desire for concrete sensations and their memory for details, such people are ideally suited to work with machinery and tools, to be craftpersons or artists, connoisseurs or collectors. They have an affinity for quality, line, color, texture, and detail.

Extraverted sensors enjoy the physical things in life. They appreciate good food. They accumulate, enjoy, and take care of material possessions. Their amusements may range from racing cars to being patrons of music and the arts. They are regarded as fun-loving. The y usually want hands-on contact in learning and in dealing with things. They know what they can experience with their senses-the "reality" of things. However, because they do not use intuition, they are not aware of the possibilities that do not currently exist. They are more interested in practical application than in new ideas or unexplored areas. They
handicap is that they may be more concerned with experiencing than with thinking or a judging. This is especially true if they are the type that seeks one new physical experience after another. The easy-going attitude may reflect the fact that they are lazy, undependable, al or shallow. In terms of things, such a person may fail to accomplish or finish anything. In y terms of people, one may find a sensualist who has little true feeling or concern for others.

ESTP

Extraverted sensors who use thinking as their auxiliary function tend to make decisions based on logical consequences but not on feelings. They are good at work involving basic principles, such as math, applied science, architecture, etc. They can be firm when necessary.

ESFP

This type bases decisions on the auxiliary function of feeling, rather than thinking. Such people are more sensitive to the needs and reactions of others. They tend to be diplomatic and discreet; they do not like to reprimand or correct others. Because of their combination of sensing and feeling, they may enjoy experiencing art and music.

The Introverted Sensing Types: ISTJ and ISFJ

Because they prefer sensing, introverted sensors use that process in their inner lives. Their accumulated sensations are altered by their inward focus, and their resulting thoughts and preferences are highly individual, even bizarre. Because they are linked to their inner selves, these ideas are strongly held. However, they do not often result in unpredictable or irrational behavior because people of this type use their secondary process (thinking or feeling) in dealing with people and things in the outside world. Outwardly, therefore, they appear calm and controlled. They like accuracy and prefer to deal with simple facts when dealing with external realities. They are realistic and practical, sensible and responsible because of their judging abilities. Keeping external things straightforward (despite their ability to deal with facts) also allows them to concentrate on their internal realities, which others rarely suspect.

In work, this type is meticulous, scrupulous, methodical, conscientious, and good with detail and routine. They are patient and persevering once they have decided to become involved with something. They do not give up unless they decide that something is impractical or senseless. They tend to be conservative, dealing with known facts and details because they do not use intuition, but they are accurate in their assessments of what exists. If made aware of strongly held needs and values of others, they can generously incorporate these facts into their judgments about things, even though they do not value them personally.

This type is most effective if it continues to use its secondary processes in dealing with the world. If it retreats into introverted sensing, it may become irrational and dissociated with reality.

STJ

Introverted sensors who use thinking as the backup function value decisions based on logical analysis. Because they are not naturally in touch with the feelings of others, they need to learn to try to understand others and to show appreciation to them. Otherwise, they may ignore the needs and feelings of others in their focus on facts and
The Extraverted Intuitive Types: ENTP and ENFP

The outstanding characteristic of extraverted intuitives is their focus on the greatest range of possibilities in people and things. They are interested in and energetic in their pursuit of anything that is new, different, and innovative. They are imaginative and creative in envisioning possibilities, even in situations in which other functions have failed to find a way. They are the champions of people with potential and the promoters of new enterprises. They become excited about their inspirations, working tirelessly to expand options, refine theories, and deal with problems.

Because of their quest for the new, they are stifled by the routine or uninspired and frequently bored by that which has been explored and become stable. They often would prefer to drop their own projects once the envisioning phase is over and the project is put into production or practice. They work best in an environment in which they can continue to generate new possibilities and change.

Their enthusiasm is contagious, and they often can inspire or excite others by the strength of their beliefs. However, because of their intuition and because they use perceiving instead of judging, they also have the ability to understand others and to accept them without judgment. They are able to present their ideas in ways that are geared to other people's values and beliefs. Their own beliefs make them liked.

Because they do not specialize in judging, however, they may not be objective about the worth of the people or projects for which they feel such enthusiasm. Often, the pursuit of the possibilities is more important than the objective reality. If they allow their auxiliary function (thinking or feeling) to operate, they can achieve more understanding of the realities of the situation. In this case, their insight is complimented by judgment, and results in wisdom. If they do not develop their judgment and self-discipline, they may fall into the trap of chasing the will-o'-the-wisp, wasting their inspirations and ingenuity on things that are impractical or unfinished. They may become adventurers, always chasing the new and different, but rarely accomplishing anything.

ENTP

Extraverted intuitors who use thinking tend to be more able to judge their undertakings. They are more autonomous and detached from other people. They are focused on the possibilities that they are exploring, not on the people involved. They are attracted to work in which they can follow their own leads and may become inventors, scientists, promoters, etc.

ENFP

Extraverted intuitors who use feeling are more involved with other people and more sensitive to their needs. Their interest in finding new solutions to new problems often leads them into the fields of teaching, science, art, counseling, advertising, sales, etc.

The Introverted Intuitive Types: JNTJ and JNFJ

Introverted intuitives specialize in exploring ideas that are generated by external things but translated inwardly into symbols of their inherent nature. They see not the form of things but the meanings of and relationships between things. They have no concern for traditional points of view. Their belief in their ideas makes
more concerned with the needs and opinions of others with whom they work. They tend to be more tactful and sympathetic and are concerned about the welfare of others. If their focus is on human welfare or social reform, they will feel compelled to act to improve those areas, although not always in traditional ways. They like jobs in which they can transmit their ideas to and inspire others.

**Conclusion**

Again, the purpose of identifying types is to appreciate the strengths of each and to learn what one's own developmental needs are if one is to be fully effective. Each of the combinations has its strengths and its weaknesses. We need all of them to balance one another if we are to envision, judge, plan, and accomplish things and if we are to be able to interact with and communicate with one another in our work and home lives. The purpose of the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator™* is both to encourage individual understanding and self-development and to generate respect for the strengths of others and an awareness of the need for different types of people.

**References**

### Myers-Briggs Typologies

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**Table: Myers-Briggs Typologies**

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<thead>
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<th></th>
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<td>ESTP</td>
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<td>ESFJ</td>
<td>ESFP</td>
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<td><strong>Thinking</strong></td>
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Neurolinguistic Programing

Language Systems

Neurolinguistic programing (NLP) is a model of human behavior and communication (Bandler & Grinder, 1975, 1979, 1982; Dilts, Grinder, Bandler, Bandler, & DeLozier, 1980; Grinder & Bandler, 1976). NLP resulted from a systematic study of Virginia Satir, Milton H. Erickson, Fritz Perls and other famous therapists (Harmon & O'Neill, 1981). Additionally, the theory of NLP draws from psychodynamics and behavioral theories.

The NLP model embodies several key components, as follows: (a) rapport and communication, (b) gathering information, and (c) change strategies and interventions. Within the component of rapport and communication exist the dimensions of language-representational systems, eye-accessing movements, verbal and nonverbal pacing and leading, communication translation skills, and representational system overlapping. The most well-known dimension of this component is, language-representational systems. This is the dimension that is most applicable to human resource development. Other aspects of NLP are used primarily in therapeutic work.

Representational Systems

The basic premise of NLP is that people's perceptions of the world (what they perceive as information) are filtered through their sensory systems (Bandler & Grinder, 1975). Data are first processed at an unconscious level, experienced internally, and then manifested in external behavior. Language patterns are one method that people use to communicate their internal responses. NLP is a model for understanding the processes that people use to encode and transfer experience and to guide and modify their behavior. All the distinctions we make concerning our environment, both internal and external, are represented in terms of three sensory systems: the visual, auditory, and kinesthetic (Dilts & Meyers-Anderson, 1980). Smell and taste are not widely utilized ways of gaining information about the world.

People who rely on their visual systems appear to run movies in their heads when remembering or storing information. If people are primarily auditory, i.e., taking in information through sounds, remembering may be like replaying a tape recorder, with original tones and dialogue. People who are primarily kinesthetic respond to internal bodily feelings or tactile sense. They remember bodily sensations in recalling experiences.

Predicates

"Predicates" are verbs, adjectives, and adverbs that people use to describe the processes and relationships in their experiences. They are divided into three categories corresponding to the three major representational systems. People either see (visual) pictures and have images about their experiences, or they hear (auditory) sounds and talk about their experiences, or they experience sensations (kinesthetic) and have feelings about their experiences (Grinder & Bandler, 1976). For example, a visual person might say: "Look at the facts," "I see," "I get the picture," or "Let's get a perspective on this." An auditory person might say: "I hear you," "Let's listen to reason," or "It sounds like it will work." A kinesthetic person would be more likely to say: "It doesn't feel right," "Just hold on," "Let's get a handle on this," or "He didn't grasp the idea." Each individual has a primary (more highly developed) representational system that he or she relies on during times of stress in problem solving as well as a secondary system that may be used in everyday conversation.
increase rapport and trust with a client or trainee (or with the majority of group members) by using the other's primary language system. This technique is called "reflecting."

It also seems that people will learn best when content is presented to them in their primary representational systems. A visual person will remember graphs, illustrations, and "seeing" new things. An auditory person will remember sounds and will be stimulated by changes in vocal tone, pitch, and pacing. A kinesthetic person will learn best from "hands on" experience and will remember how he or she "felt." Thus, more impact may be gained from showing things to visuals, providing interesting sounds for auditorys, and working alongside kinesthetics. Conversely, if a trainee is kinesthetic or visual, and the training is presented verbally, the content may not be easily translated, and the trainee may not get it. If a client experiences and describes things visually, and the consultant uses an auditory language system, the client may have difficulty understanding.

Of course, the trainer or consultant must first be aware of his or her own primary and secondary language systems. Then, by paying attention to the predicates used by others, the trainer or consultant can determine the systems valued by those others. The following examples illustrate how matching or mismatching language systems can either enhance or frustrate communication.

**Mismatched Language Systems**

Learner (visual): "I just can't see myself doing any better in this training session."

Trainer (kinesthetic): "Well, how do you feel about not being able to do better?"

Learner (visual): "I just don't have a clear picture of what you want from me."
Trainer (kinesthetic): "How do you feel about not being able to get a handle on things that we are doing."

Learner (visual): "I don't see what you're trying to do. It's really hazy to me."

In this example, it is apparent that the trainer is not paying attention to the language system used by the learner, who "sees" the trainer as a person who just does not portray things clearly. On the other hand, the trainer may "feel" frustrated in his attempts to "reach" this trainee. Neither of them profits from this type of interaction.

**Matched Language Systems**

Learner (visual): "I just can't see myself doing any better in this training session."

Trainer (visual): "It did appear to me that you looked confused when I was giving out the work assignment."

Learner (visual): "I'm trying to get a picture of what you expect, but I just can't seem to focus it."

Trainer (visual): "I see. Let's look at it from some different angles and see if we can come up with a new perspective for you."

In this example, both the trainer and the learner are using the visual language system. They are actually "seeing" things from the same "perspective."

HRD professionals who know how to identify and use language systems will be better prepared to teach and relate to their trainees and clients. In addition, trainers can teach their trainees to expand their own uses of their nonpreferred representational systems. For example, a person who is primarily kinesthetic can learn to access information through the visual and auditory systems. This will increase the person's ability to learn in different contexts and from trainers with different language systems.

**References**


### REPRESENTATION SYSTEMS

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>VISUAL</th>
<th>AUDITORY</th>
<th>KINESTHETIC</th>
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<tr>
<td>I see</td>
<td>I hear You</td>
<td>I catch on</td>
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<tr>
<td>I get the perspective</td>
<td>Listen to reason</td>
<td>Get a handle on it</td>
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<tr>
<td>Looks like it will work</td>
<td>Sounds like it will work</td>
<td>Feels like it will work</td>
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<td>Focus on</td>
<td>Hearsay</td>
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<td>Outlook</td>
<td>Tempo</td>
<td>Movement</td>
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Social Styles

Social styles theory, originally developed by Merrill and Reid (1981) and expanded by Wilson Learning Corporation (UA/Wilson, 1989), states that there are four basic "styles" or preferred ways of interacting with others. These styles are distinguished by certain behaviors that others can observe and report. Merrill and Reid believe that each person's social style is a way of coping with others that is learned in childhood. One habitually becomes most comfortable with that style in oneself and others. Understanding of one's own style and those of one's colleagues can help to improve relationships and reduce tension and misunderstandings. A primary goal of social-styles training is to help individuals to develop versatility in dealing with others.

One's social style is measured by one's position in relation to three behavioral dimensions: assertiveness, responsiveness, and versatility.

• The **Assertiveness** scale measures the degree to which a person attempts to influence the thoughts, decisions, or actions of others. Some people do this directly; they tell. Merrill and Reid and Wilson Learning both use the terms "Tell Assertive" in labeling this group. Other individuals ask. Merrill and Reid see this type as not attempting to influence others; they call it "Ask (Nonassertive)." Wilson Learning sees this type as attempting to influence others indirectly and labels it "Ask Assertive."

• The **Responsiveness** scale measures the degree to which one openly expresses one's feelings to others or controls one's feelings. Merrill and Reid call those who control or reserve their feelings "Control (Nonresponsive)." Wilson Learning calls them "Control-Responsive." Other individuals are more apt to express their feelings to others. Merrill and Reid and Wilson Learning both use the terms "Emote Responsive" in referring to this type.

• The **Versatility** dimension is measured by the individual's ability to be adaptable in dealing with others (in order to relate most effectively to their styles) versus the tendency to be rigid and inflexible, behaving solely according to one's own preferred style. One goal of social styles training is to enable individuals to understand and deal more effectively with people of all styles.

The social style profile is formed by using the assertiveness and responsiveness scales. Combining these scales yields four possible behavioral profiles or "social style" types (see figure): Driver, Expressive, Analytical, and Amiable.

**Drivers**

Drivers rank high on the assertiveness scale (they "tell") and low on the responsiveness scale (high "control").

• They are action- and goal oriented.
Theories and

CONTROL-RESPONSIVE [WLC]
CONTROL (NON RESPONSIVE) [M&R]

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<tr>
<th>ASK-ASSERTIVE (WLC)</th>
<th>Analytical</th>
<th>Driver</th>
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<tr>
<td>ASK (NONASSERTIVE) M+R</td>
<td>Amiable</td>
<td>Expressive</td>
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<tr>
<td>TELL ASSERTIVE (WLC)</td>
<td>TELL (ASSERTIVE) M+R</td>
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The Social Styles Matrix


- Their need is for accomplishment and results.
- They have a quick reaction time, and are decisive, independent, disciplined, practical, and efficient.
- They use facts and data.
- They tend to speak and act quickly.
- Nonverbally, because they are assertive, they tend to lean forward and point and make direct eye contact. However, because they control their emotions, their bodily posture is rigid and they control their facial expressions.
- They do not want to waste time on personal talk or preliminaries and can be perceived by other styles as dominating or harsh and severe in pursuit of a goal.
- They are comfortable in positions of power and control.
In times of stress, drivers may become autocratic. Their need for growth is to slow down enough to listen.

Analyticals

Analyticals are low in assertiveness (they ask) and low in responsiveness (high control).

- They are most concerned with being organized, having all the facts and being careful before taking action.
- Their need is to be accurate and to be right.
- They are precise, orderly, and methodical and conform to standard operating procedures, organizational rules, and historical ways of doing things.
- They have a slow reaction time and work more slowly and carefully than Drivers. They are perceived as serious, industrious, persistent, and exacting.
  - They are task oriented.
  - They use facts and data.
  - They tend to speak less and more slowly than Drivers.
- Nonverbally, because they are nonassertive, they tend to lean back and use their hands less than Drivers. They do not make direct eye contact. Because they also are low on the responsiveness scale, they control their facial expressions.
- Other styles may see them as stuffy, indecisive, critical, picky, and moralistic. They are comfortable in positions in which they can check facts and figures and be sure they are right.
  - In times of stress, analyticals tend to avoid.
  - Their need for growth is to learn to decide and declare.

Expressives

Expressives are high in both assertiveness (they tell) and emote- responsiveness.

- They enjoy involvement, excitement, and interpersonal action. They are sociable, stimulating, and enthusiastic and are good at involving and motivating others.
- They are idea oriented.
- They have less concern for routine and are future oriented.
- They have a quick reaction time.
- They have a need to be accepted by others.
- They tend to be spontaneous, outgoing, energetic, and friendly.
- They are focused on people rather than on tasks.
• They use opinions and stories rather than facts and data.
• They speak and act quickly and vary their vocal inflection.
• Nonverbally, because they are assertive, they tend to lean forward, point, and make direct eye contact. Being responsive, they also tend to use their hands when they are talking, to have a more casual bodily posture, and to have an animated expression. Their feelings often show in their faces.
• They may be perceived by others as excitable, impulsive, undisciplined, dramatic, manipulative, ambitious, overly reactive, and egotistical.
• Under stressful conditions, expressives tend to resort to personal attacks.
• Their need for growth is to check things out before they respond.

Amiables

Amiables are low on the assertiveness scale (they ask) and high on the emotiveness scale.

- They have a need for cooperation, personal security, and acceptance. They are uncomfortable with and will avoid conflict.
- They value personal relationships, helping others, and being liked. Thus, some Amiables will sacrifice their own likes or desires in order to win approval from others.
- They prefer to work with other people in a team effort, rather than individually. They have an unhurried reaction time and little concern with effecting change. They are friendly, supportive, respectful, willing, dependable, and agreeable.
- They are people-oriented.
- They use opinions and stories rather than facts and data.
- They tend to speak slowly and softly; however, because they are more responsive, they use more vocal inflection than Drivers or Analyticals.
- Nonverbally, because they are nonassertive, they lean back while talking and do not make direct eye contact. But because they are responsive, they tend to have a more casual posture and an animated expression.
  - They may be perceived by other styles as conforming, unsure, pliable, dependent, and awkward.
  - An Amiable's reaction to stress is to comply with others.
  - The Amiable's need for growth is to initiate.

We all display characteristics of each style at different times, but we tend to favor the behavioral patterns of one primary style and one secondary style. Thus, depending on where one falls on the two scales, one may be a "pure" driver, an analytical driver, or an expressive driver. Likewise, an amiable may not be totally responsive, so may be an analytical amiable. An amiable also may be somewhat assertive, i.e., an expressive amiable. Each of the four "styles" can have more or less characteristics of the styles next to it, that is, be more or less assertive or more or less responsive. This results in eight possible combinations.
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<thead>
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**Diagram: **

- **AN** (Analytical Driver)
- **AM** (Amiable Expressive)
- **D**
- **E**
Implications of the Theory

The purpose of identifying one’s own social style and learning about others’ is to learn why other people act the way they do and to learn to be more tolerant of individual differences and more versatile in order to get along better with others. Social-styles theory indicates that some "rubs" or clashes are inevitable between people with different styles, particularly between those with no shared characteristics. However, these misunderstandings or annoyances can be minimized and managed if those involved understand why they exist.

Accompanied by the proper training, this theory provides an effective way to help people to understand how they are perceived by others, how they perceive themselves, and how they can better understand, accept, and interact with both business and personal contacts. It is especially useful in team building and team development, managing superior/subordinate relationships, job recruitment and selection, and interpersonal-relationship training in both organizational and personal settings.

Reference

Value Programing

Morris Massey's (1979) theory of values acquisition proposes that values are programed into each person and that programing begins around age ten because this is the age at which people begin to absorb the cultural, family, media, and global influences around them. Massey says that by examining the values and ideas that existed when a person was ten years old, one can fairly accurately predict what kinds of values that person will hold throughout life.

Although a person's core values are not easily changed, Massey believes that Significant Emotional Events (SEEs) can cause a person to re-evaluate and perhaps alter those values. A SEE may be, but does not have to be, a relatively sudden change and/or crisis such as losing a job, going through a divorce, going to war, etc. A SEE also can be a slower and more long-term change, such as exposure to society's attitudes toward women, holding many jobs, and so on. An event is a SEE only if it prompts a change in an individual's deep, underlying value system.

Massey developed his model of Value Programing Analysis by studying groups of people. In each group, the members were about the same age. Massey noticed that people who were near in age tended to hold similar values and world views, and he hypothesized that this was because they were imprinted at approximately the same time. Massey found that people ".. .locked in on their basic gut-level values" (p. 51) at around age ten; this is the age when children truly begin absorbing the stimuli and messages of the world around them. He explains the advantages of value programing analysis thusly:

... because groups of people were influenced in the same general way, programmed through the same activities, events, and experiences, we may look at a group and understand why particular clusters within our society react to today's world as they do .... If we can determine the basic core values held by the majority of the group because of their similarities in programming experiences, then we can gain a better understanding of contemporary American society. (p. 51)

Major Events of Each Decade

Massey goes on to describe each decade, beginning with the 1920s and ending with the 1970s. He summarizes the major events of each decade, emphasizing how each event changed the world and people's thinking—especially the thinking of the ten-year-old children whose values were being programed at the time.

The values of the 1920s centered around the establishment, patriotism, and financial success. With flappers, jazz, and speakeasies, the Twenties were exciting times. The 1930s, in stark contrast, were times of poverty for the people who had lost everything in the stock-market crash and those who struggled for survival during the Great Depression. The 1940s were dominated by World War II, the resurgence of the American economy, and the entrance of women into the work force. During the 1950s, Americans were swept along by the growing trend toward consumerism and the pursuit of "the good life." Television suddenly enabled more families than ever before to be reached by one medium, and rock
'n roll music was born. The 1960s brought shocking changes as the civil-rights movement gained strength, and the "flower children" rejected their parents' values, gained access to the birth-control pill, and protested the war in Vietnam. The trends toward sexual freedom, religious alternatives, environmental awareness, broken families, and women's liberation are some of the far-reaching changes that took place in the 1970s.

The figure at the end of this article illustrates some of the major events that took place from 1919-1979 and that had a profound influence on the ten-year-olds of the time.

**Generational Clusters**

As shown in the figure, the people who fall into the time graph illustrated can be divided into four clusters: Traditionalists, In-Betweeners, Challengers, and Synthesizers.

- **Traditionalists** hold fast to their traditional set of values even when faced with a modern world full of changes, problems, and progress.

- **In-Betweeners**, who were programmed from the late 1940s to the late 1950s, hold traditional values but also were exposed to the new values that emerged during the 1950s. Torn between such differing sets of values, in-betweeners typically feel the need to "find themselves" and are major consumers of the self-help market.

- **Challengers**, who were programmed during the turbulent 1960s, challenge and question the traditional values that their elders accepted without questioning. Challengers typically value people instead of technology and industry. Because challengers are the "baby boomers," there are many of them and their values affect our entire society.

- The **Synthesizers**, the youngest group in Massey's illustration, are today's young people. They must learn to cope with the three preceding value patterns,
the title of synthesizers. These young people are somewhat pessimistic as they view the environmental damage that previous generations have done to the planet, but they are hopeful that they, too, may enjoy a good life.

Use of the Theory

Massey's value programing analysis has many practical applications, one of which is in the organizational arena. For example, a manager may supervise a forty-year-old, a thirty-year-old, and a twenty-year-old. According to Massey's theory, each of these subordinates will be different, i.e., will hold different values, because of the generational programing that occurred when he or she was about ten years old. If the manager were to examine each subordinate's likely programing, that manager would have a better grasp of each subordinate's motivational patterns, attitudes about work, and general outlook on life. In turn, the manager would then be able to supervise each person more effectively.

This theory also can be used in developing self-awareness and in value-clarification and team-building efforts.