BBA SEM – V

ADVANCE HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT - I

(CODE: UM05EBBI11)

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR:

- ➢ Meaning, Nature
- ➢ Factors affecting human behavior at work,
- ➢ Limitations of OB,
- ➢ Model of human behavior (S-R, S-O-R, S-O-B-C)

PERSONALITY:

- ➢ Concept,
- ➢ Determinants,
- ➢ Freudian and Neo Freudian Stages of personality,
- ➢ Psychoanalytic theory & Self Theory

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Definitions:

"Organisational behaviour is a subset of management activities concerned with understanding, predicting and influencing individual behaviour in organisational setting."—Callahan, Fleenor and Kudson.

"Organisational behaviour is a branch of the Social Sciences that seeks to build theories that can be applied" to predicting, understanding and controlling behaviour in work organisations."—Raman J. Aldag.

"Organisational behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within an organisation. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behaviour of people in all types of organisation."— Newstrom and Davis.

"Organisational behaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, production and control of human behaviour in organisations."—Fred Luthans.

"Organisational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within the organisations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness."—Stephens P. Robbins.

NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Organisational behaviour in the study of human behaviour in the organisations. Whenever an individual joins an organisation he brings with him unique set of personal characteristics, experiences from other organisations and a personal background. At the first stage organisational behaviour must look at the unique perspective that each individual brings to the work setting.

The second stage of organisational behaviour is to study the dynamics of how the incoming individuals interact with the broader organisation. No individual can work in isolation. He comes into contact with other individuals and the organisation in a variety of ways. The individual who joins a new organisation has to come into contact with the co-workers, managers, formal policies and procedures of the organisation etc.

Over the time, he is affected by his work experience and the organisation as well as his personal experiences and maturity. On the other hand, the organisation is also affected by the presence or absence of the individual. Thus, it is essential that OB must study the ways in which the individuals and organisation interact with each other.

The organisational behaviour must be studied from the perspective of the organisation itself because an organisation exists before a particular individual joins in and continues to exist after he or she has left the organisation. Thus, OB is the study of human behaviour in the organisation, the individual-organisation interaction and the organisation itself. And these factors are influenced by the external environment in which the individuals and the organisation exist.

Thus, we can say that we cannot study individual behaviour completely without learning something about the organisation. On the other hand, we cannot study the organisations without studying the behaviour of the individuals working in it. This is because the organisation influences and is influenced by the people working in it. Moreover, both the individuals and the organisation are influenced by the external environment. Thus, the field of organisational behaviour is a complex field. It seeks to throw light on the entire canvas of human factor in the organisations which will include the causes and effects of such behaviour.

MODEL OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

We assume that behaviour is caused and this assumption is true. Behaviour takes place in the form of a process. It is based on the analysis of behaviour process over the period of time. Three models of behaviour process have been developed. These are S-R model, S-O-R model, S-O-B-A model and S-O-B-C model.

S-R Model

S-R model of human behavior suggests that the behaviour is caused by certain reasons. The reasons may be internal feeling (motivation) and external environment (stimulus). A stimulus is an agent, such as, heat, light, piece of information, etc., that directly influences the activity of an organism (person). Without the stimulus there is no information to be handled by the internal processes prior to action taken by the person. It implies that his behaviour is determined by the situation. Inherent in the situation are the environmental

forces that shape and determine his behaviour at any given moment. The entire situation has been traditionally described as stimulus response (S-R) process.

This S-R model, however, does not give the total concept of caused nature of behaviour specially when the person concerned plays an important role in behaviour because behaviour is shaped by his internal feelings also. Thus, combination of stimulus-response situation and human being will give more comprehensive model of human behaviour denoting that the situation interacting with the human preceeds and causes behaviour.
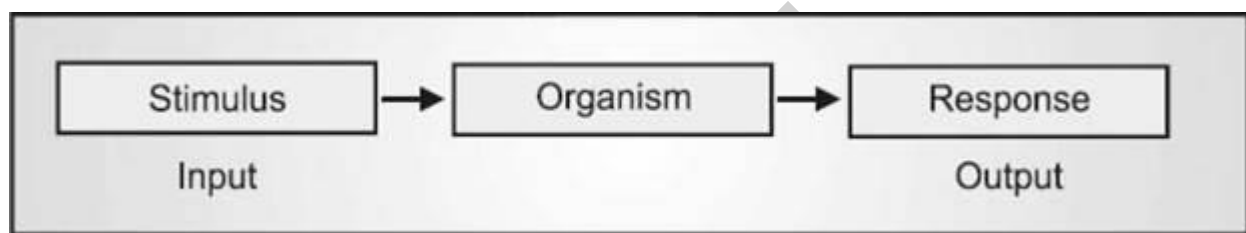

Fig. 1.4: S.R. Model.

There is a direct relation between stimulus and response that is why this process is called S-R process.

The basic drawback of this models is that organism or person is immobile and passive. Whereas in reality the person concerned plays an important role in behaviour which is influenced by the internal feelings of the person. This model, thus does not give a complete picture as to what caused the person to act in a particular way in a particular situation.

S-O-R Model

S-O-R model of human behaviour is achieved by inserting O (organism) in the classical S-R model. The S-O-R model is based upon the stimulus processed by the organism and followed by a behaviour. This O is not passive and immobile as assumed in S-R model. Rather the O is viewed as mediating, maintenance and adjective function between S and R. As a mediating function, the O is constantly active, scanning its surroundings, monitoring its own actions,

seeking certain conditions and avoiding others. As a maintenance function, organs of O are responsible for its health and growth. There are three categories of maintenance organs-receptors (sense and glands), connectors (nervous organs) and effectors (muscles and glands). The adjustments function of the O monitors the person's activities so that he can overcome obstacle and satisfy his needs.

Though the insertion of O in S-R model gives some recognition to the importance to the human variables, it still remains a relatively mechanistic and simplistic approach and does not explain the complexity of human behaviour.

S-O-B-C Model

S-O-B-C model incorporates a more complex mechanism of human behaviour which modifies and extends S-O-R model. In this model, **S** stands for the situation which is more comprehensive than stimuli of S-O-R model and incorporates all aspects of the environment - immediate stimulus, physical environment and socio-cultural environment. **O** is the organism but does not only represent the physiological being as in the S-O-R model, but also the physiological being which is more complex. **B** stands for pattern of behaviour both overt and convert. **C** stands for contingent consequences both overt and covert. Thus, this model of behaviour has significant departure from earlier models of behaviour which have considered only overt aspects. In S-O-B-C model, behaviour takes place because of the interaction of situation (S), organism (O), behaviour pattern (B) and consequences (C) as shown in Fig. 16.

PERSONALITY

CONCEPT

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

and social influences he becomes a person and comes to possess a personality.

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

DEFINITIONS

According to Ruch, personality should include –

   (i)   External appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value;
   (ii)   Inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force and
   (iii)   The particular pattern or organisation of measurable traits, both inner and outer.

Maddi has defined, "personality is a set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commodities and differences in the behaviour (thought, feelings, and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment."

According to Anderson and Parker, "Personality is the totality of habits, attitudes, and traits that result from socialization and characterizes us in our relationships with others."

According to N.L. Munn, "Personality may be defined as the most characteristic integration of an individual's structure modes of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes."

According to Morton Prince, "Personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses tendencies and instincts of the individual, and the acquired disposition and tendencies acquired by experience."

According to Young, "Personality is the totality of behaviour of an individual with a given tendency system interacting with a sequence of situations."

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

DETERMINANTS

People are enormously complex; their abilities and interests and attitudes are diverse. An early argument in personality research was whether an individual's personality was the result of heredity or environment. Was the personality predetermined at birth, or was it the result of the individual's interaction with his or her environment? Personality appears to be a result of both influences. Additionally, today we recognize another factor - the situation. The problem lies in the fact the cognitive and psychological processes, plus many other variables, all contribute to personality. The determinants of personality can perhaps best be grouped in five broad categories: biological, cultural, family, social and situational.

Biological Factors

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

a. **Heredity:** Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception.

   Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent from one's parents. The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes.

Research on animals has showed that both physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted through heredity. But research on human beings is in adequate to support this view point. However, psychologists and geneticists have accepted the fact that heredity plays an important role in one's personality.

b. **Brain:** The second biological approach is to concentrate on the role that the brain plays in personality. Though researchers make some promising inroads, the psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of human brain in influencing personality. The most recent and exciting possibilities come from the work done with electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) and split-brain psychology.

Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research give indication that better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from the study of the brain. Work with ESB on human subjects is just beginning.

There seem to be definite pleasurable and painful areas in the human brain. This being true, it may be possible physically to manipulate personality through ESB.

c. **Biofeedback:** Until recently, physiologists and psychologists felt that certain biological functions such as brainwave patterns, gastric secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control. Now some scientists believe that these involuntary functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback. In BFT the individual learns the internal rhythm of a particular body process through electronic signals feedback from equipment that is wired to the body area. From this biofeedback the person can learn to control the body process in question. More research is needed on biofeedback before any definitive conclusions can be drawn. But its potential impact could be extremely interesting for the future.

d. *Physical features:* A vital ingredient of the personality, an individual's external appearance, is biologically determined. The fact that a person is tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white will influence the person's effect on others and this in turn, will affect the self-concept. Practically all would agree that physical characteristics have at least some influence on the personality. According to Paul H Mussen "a child's physical characteristics may be related to his approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others, and to their reactions to him. These, in turn, may have impacts on personality development".

Personality Factor

If personality characteristics were completely dictated by heredity, they would be fixed at birth and no amount of experience could alter them. But personality characteristics are not completely dictated by heredity. There are other factors, which also influence personality.

Cultural Factors

Among the factors that exert pressures on our personality formation are the culture in which we are raised, our early conditioning, the norms among our family, friends and social groups and other influences we experience. Traditionally, cultural factors are usually considered to make a more significant contribution to personality than biological factors.

The culture largely determines attributes toward independence, aggression, competition, and cooperation. According to Paul H Mussen "each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in the ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned". Culture requires both conformity and acceptance from its members.

There are several ways of ensuring that members comply with the dictates of the culture.

The personality of an individual to a marked extent is determined by the culture in which he or she is brought up. It follows that a person reared in a western culture has a different personality from a person reared in our Indian culture.

Family Factors

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

A substantial amount of empirical evidence indicates that the overall home environment created by the parents, in addition to their direct influence, is critical to personality development. For example, children reared in a cold, un stimulating home are much more likely to be socially and emotionally Mal adjusted than children rose by parents in a warm, loving and stimulating environment.

The parents play an especially important part in the identification process, which is important to the person's early development. According to Mischel, the process can be examined from three different perspectives.

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

ii. Identification can be looked at as the child's motives or desires to be like the model.

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

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

Social Factors

There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organizations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process. Socialization involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentialities that are open to him or her. Socialization starts with the initial contact between a mother and her new infant. After infancy, other members of the immediate family – father, brothers, sisters and close relatives or friends, then the social group – peers, school friends and members of the work group, play influential roles.

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

Situational Factors

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. The effect of environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The different demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one's personality. According to Milgram "Situation exerts an important press on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push. In certain circumstances it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed that determines his actions". We should therefore not look at personality patterns in isolation.

FREUDIAN STAGES OF PERSONALITY

Sigmund Freud first formulated a systematic stage theory. According to Freud, childhood events have a bearing on adult behaviour and consciousness. He

believes that there are five stages of psychological development which influence the personality development i.e. oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital

Stage 1: The Oral Stage

This stage is from the birth up the age of one year. Infants during this stage depend on others for survival. The biological drives are reduced through the mouth. Mouth remains an important erogenous zone throughout life. Excision or insufficient amounts of stimulation during this stage may lead to the development of an oral-passive personality in adulthood, with the characteristics of exploitation and domination of others.

Stage 2: The Anal Stage

This stage is from the age of one year to three years. The liberal energy is focused on the anal region during this stage. The harsh and repressive toilet training given during this stage may result in anal-retentive personality with the characteristics of punctuality, orderliness, obstinacy, stinginess and cleanliness. The other side of the toilet training will develop an anal-aggressive personality with traits like disorderliness, hostility, destructiveness and cruelty.

Stage 3: The Phallic Stage

This stage starts at the age of three years and ends at the age of four. This stage focuses on psychosexual development. Freud belives that children during this stage identify themselves with the parents of the same gender. Children at this stage are generally interested in the genitals. The Oedipus complex or conflict occurs during this stage, which results in both loving and hating parents. If this conflict is unresolved, it would lead to serve anxiety and guilt feelings affecting normal personality development.

Stage 4: The Latency Period

This stage occurs between the 4 and 6 years of age. The children during this stage shift their interest from sexual issues and seeking gratification of the libido to the social knowledge and skills needed for work. Children develop the

interest in developing social relations with classmates and friends. Similarly, they develop the basic skills necessary for their work by understanding the basics of environments with the entry in schools.

Stage 5: The Genital Stage

This stage occurs during adolescence to adulthood and sexual interest is re-emerged during this stage. Interest in and awareness towards the opposite gender increase during this stage.
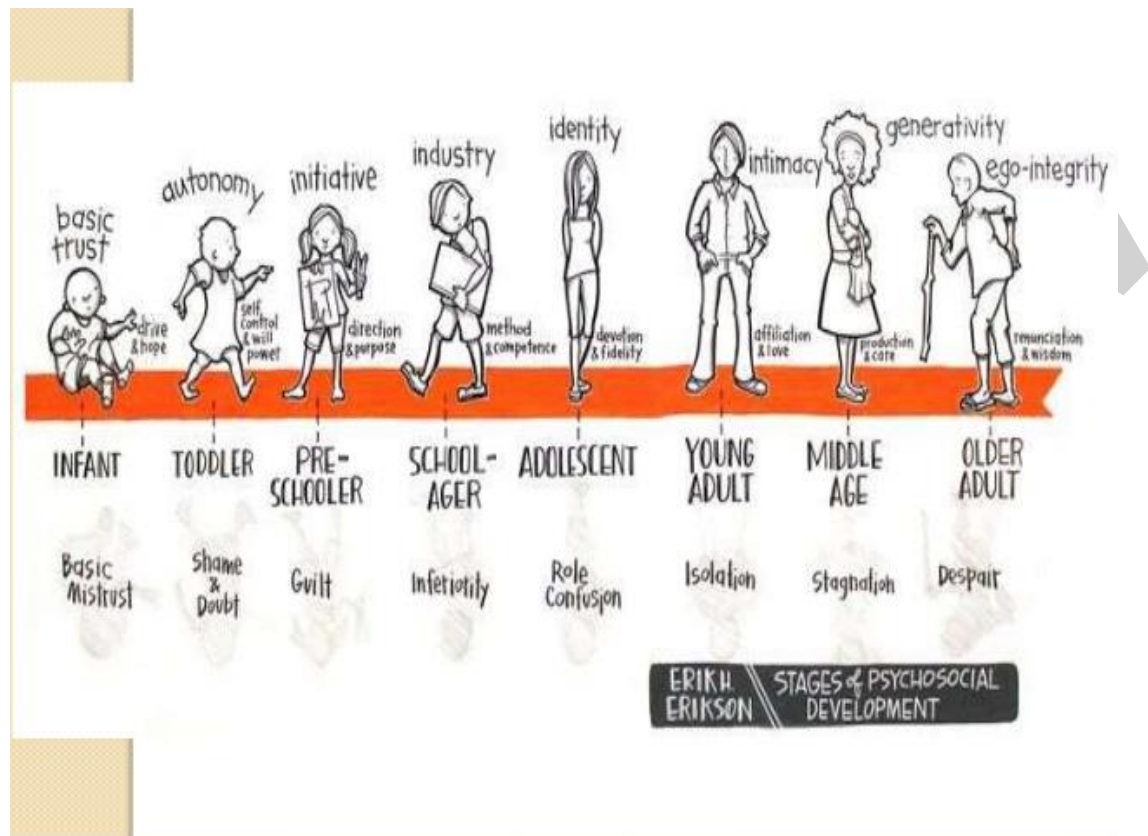
Freud mostly relied on gender to explain stages in personality development. As such, this theory was criticized and paved the way for the development of other theories based on stages of personality development.

> ➢ *Oral* (0 – 1.5 years of age): Fixation on all things oral. If not satisfactorily met there is the likelihood of developing negative oral habits or behaviors.
> ➢ *Anal* (1.5 to 3 years of age): As indicated this stage is primarily related to developing healthy toilet training habits.
> ➢ *Phallic* (3 – 5 year of age): The development of healthy substitutes for the sexual attraction boys and girls have toward a parent of the opposite gender.
> ➢ *Latency* (5 – 12 years of age): The development of healthy dormant sexual feelings for the opposite sex.
> ➢ *Genital* (12 – adulthood): All tasks from the previous four stages are integrated into the mind allowing for the onset of healthy sexual feelings and behaviors.

NON FREUDIAN STAGES OF PERSONALITY (ERIKSON'S STAGES)

Erikson believed in paying more attention on the social aspects of personality development rather than sexual aspects. He felt that social issues are more important in the process of personality development and development of human relationships. According to Erikson, individuals face psycho-social crisis in each stage of personality development. Each crisis should be aptly resolved in order to have a normal and fulfilling personality. Crisis is a turning point in an

individual's development. Erikson proposed eight stages of personality development.

Stage 1: Infancy Stage

From birth to 12 months of age, infants must learn that adults can be trusted. This occurs when adults meet a child's basic needs for survival. Infants are dependent upon their caregivers, so caregivers who are responsive and sensitive to their infant's needs help their baby to develop a sense of trust; their baby will see the world as a safe, predictable place. Unresponsive caregivers who do not meet their baby's needs can engender feelings of fear, and mistrust; their baby may see the world as unpredictable. If infants are treated cruelly or their needs are not met appropriately, they will likely grow up with a sense of mistrust for people in the world.

Stage 2: Early childhood

As toddlers (ages 1–3 years) begin to explore their world, they learn that they can control their actions and act on their environment to get results. They begin to show clear preferences for certain elements of the environment, such as food, toys, and clothing. A toddler's main task is to resolve the issue of *autonomy vs. shame and doubt* by working to establish independence. This is the "me do it" stage. For example, we might observe a budding sense of autonomy in a 2-year-old child who wants to choose her clothes and dress herself. Although her outfits might not be appropriate for the situation, her input in such basic decisions has an effect on her sense of independence. If denied the opportunity to act on her environment, she may begin to doubt her abilities, which could lead to low self-esteem and feelings of shame.

Stage 3: Play Age

Once children reach the preschool stage (ages 3–6 years), they are capable of initiating activities and asserting control over their world through social interactions and play. According to Erikson, preschool children must resolve the task of *initiative vs. guilt.* By learning to plan and achieve goals while interacting with others, preschool children can master this task. Initiative, a sense of ambition and responsibility, occurs when parents allow a child to explore within limits and then support the child's choice. These children will develop self-confidence and feel a sense of purpose. Those who are unsuccessful at this stage—with their initiative misfiring or stifled by over-controlling parents—may develop feelings of guilt.

Stage 4: School Age

During the elementary school stage (ages 6–12), children face the task of *industry vs. inferiority.* Children begin to compare themselves with their peers to see how they measure up. They either develop a sense of pride and accomplishment in their schoolwork, sports, social activities, and family life, or they feel inferior and inadequate because they feel that they don't measure up. If children do not learn to get along with others or have negative experiences at

home or with peers, an inferiority complex might develop into adolescence and adulthood.

Stage 5: Puberty and adolescence

In adolescence (ages 12–18), children face the task of *identity vs. role confusion.* According to Erikson, an adolescent's main task is developing a sense of self. Adolescents struggle with questions such as "Who am I?" and "What do I want to do with my life?" Along the way, most adolescents try on many different selves to see which ones fit; they explore various roles and ideas, set goals, and attempt to discover their "adult" selves. Adolescents who are successful at this stage have a strong sense of identity and are able to remain true to their beliefs and values in the face of problems and other people's perspectives. When adolescents are apathetic, do not make a conscious search for identity, or are pressured to conform to their parents' ideas for the future, they may develop a weak sense of self and experience role confusion. They will be unsure of their identity and confused about the future. Teenagers who struggle to adopt a positive role will likely struggle to "find" themselves as adults.

Stage 6: Young Adulthood

People in early adulthood (20s through early 40s) are concerned with *intimacy vs. isolation.* After we have developed a sense of self in adolescence, we are ready to share our life with others. However, if other stages have not been successfully resolved, young adults may have trouble developing and maintaining successful relationships with others. Erikson said that we must have a strong sense of self before we can develop successful intimate relationships. Adults who do not develop a positive self-concept in adolescence may experience feelings of loneliness and emotional isolation.

Stage 7: Middle Adulthood

When people reach their 40s, they enter the time known as middle adulthood, which extends to the mid-60s. The social task of middle adulthood

is *generativity vs. stagnation.* Generativity involves finding your life's work and contributing to the development of others through activities such as volunteering, mentoring, and raising children. During this stage, middle-aged adults begin contributing to the next generation, often through childbirth and caring for others; they also engage in meaningful and productive work which contributes positively to society. Those who do not master this task may experience stagnation and feel as though they are not leaving a mark on the world in a meaningful way; they may have little connection with others and little interest in productivity and self-improvement.

Stage 8: Late Adulthood

From the mid-60s to the end of life, we are in the period of development known as late adulthood. Erikson's task at this stage is called *integrity vs. despair.* He said that people in late adulthood reflect on their lives and feel either a sense of satisfaction or a sense of failure. People who feel proud of their accomplishments feel a sense of integrity, and they can look back on their lives with few regrets. However, people who are not successful at this stage may feel as if their life has been wasted. They focus on what "would have," "should have," and "could have" been. They face the end of their lives with feelings of bitterness, depression, and despair.

Stage	Points	Psychosocial Crisis	Basic Virtue	Age
1.	Infancy Stage	Trust vs. Mistrust	Hope	0 - 1½
2.	Early Childhood	Autonomy vs. Shame	Will	1½ - 3
3.	Play Age	Initiative vs. Guilt	Purpose	3 - 5
4.	School Age	Industry vs. Inferiority	Competency	5 - 12

Stage	Points	Psychosocial Crisis	Basic Virtue	Age
5.	Puberty and Adolescence	Identity vs. Role Confusion	Fidelity	12 - 18
6.	Young Adulthood	Intimacy vs. Isolation	Love	18 - 40
7.	Middle Adulthood	Generativity vs. Stagnation	Care	40 - 65
8.	Late Adulthood	Ego Integrity vs. Despair	Wisdom	65+

PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

Psychoanalytic theory is based on the notion that man is motivated more by unseen forces than he is controlled by conscious and rational thought. Clinical techniques were used primarily to develop psychoanalytic theory. Freud noted that his patients' behaviour could not always be consciously explained. This clinical finding led him to conclude that major motivating forces in man was unconscious framework. This framework contains three aspects, though interrelated but often conflicting, id, ego and super ego. They are so interrelated that they can only be artificially separated for individual study and analysis.

1. The Id

The id is the source of psychic energy and seek immediate gratification for biological or instinctual needs. Freud believed that instinct could be classified under life instincts and death-instincts. Life-instincts are hunger, thirst and sex; the energy involved in their activity is the libido. The id would proceed unchecked to satisfy motives, particularly the sexual relations and pleasures, were it not for the channeling activity into acceptable ways by the ego. As an

individual matures, he learns to control the id. But even then, it remains a driving force throughout life and an important source of thinking and behaving.

2. The Ego

The ego is the conscious and logical part of the human personality and is associated with the reality principle. While id represents the unconscious part, ego is conscious. Thus, ego keeps the id in check through the realities of the external environment through intellect and reason. Out of the functioning of the id and ego, many conflicting situations arise because id wants immediate pleasure, while ego dictates denial or postponement to a more appropriate time and place. In order to resolve the conflict, the ego gets support form the super ego.

3. The Super Ego

The super ego represents social and personal norms and serves as an ethical constraint on behaviour. It can best the described as the conscience. The super ego provides norms to ego to determine what is wrong or right. However, a person is not aware of the working of the super ego, and conscience is developed by absorptions of cultural values and norms of society.

SELF THEORY

Self-theory termed as organismic or field theory, emphases the totality and interrelatedness of all behaviour. This approach treats the organism as a whole to a greater degree than do any of the other theoretical formulations.

1. Self-image

The self-image is the way one sees oneself. Every person has certain beliefs about who or what he is, taken together, these beliefs are a person's self-image of identity Erikson has defined identity as "life-long development largely unconscious to the individual and his society." Its roots go back all the way to the first self-recognition: in the baby's earliest exchange of smiles, there is something of self-realisation coupled with a mutual recognition.

2. Ideal-self

The ideal-self denotes the way one would like to be. The ideal-self differs from self-image in the fact that the self-image indicates the reality of a person as perceived by him, while ideal-self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him. Thus, there may be a gap while ideal-self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him. Thus, there may be a gap between these two characteristics. The ideal-self is important in stimulus selectivity because a person will select those stimuli for processing which fit in with the characteristics of the ideal-self.

3. Looking Glass-self

The looking glass-self is the perception of a person about how others are perceiving his qualities and characteristics. This is the perception of others' perception, that is, the way one thinks people perceive about him and not the way people actually see him. The looking glass-self is predominantly a social product which emerges from face-to-face interaction with others from the very beginning of the life. This interaction is directed towards cues about how others see him as an individual. Thus, beliefs about self are in large measure a reflection of others' perception about the person.

4. Real-self

The real-self is what one really is. The first three aspects of self-concept are the functions of individual perception and they may be same as real-self or different from it. An individual's self-image is confirmed when other persons' responses to him indicate their beliefs about who and what he corresponds with. In the face of feedback from the environment, the person re-evaluates himself and readjusts his self-image to be more consistent with the cues he was receiving. Thus, there is a mutual recognition of his real-self, and the validity of his self-image is confirmed.

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