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Managerial Psychology and Sociology

Strategic project of TBU in Zlín, reg. no. CZ.02.2.69/0.0/0.0/16_015/0002204

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1. Personality Psychology

Chapter subtitle



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1.1 Definition of Personality

Is defined as: "The characteristics or blend of characteristics that make a person unique."
(Weinberg & Gould, 1999).

Is characterized by uniqueness, consistency, relative persistence and development.

Each person has a unique personality.

Research has shown that personality traits are determined largely by heredity and are mostly immutable (Lickerman, 2011).





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1.1 Definition of Personality

Personality is influenced by (McLeod, 2017):

- nature (genetics, biology, ...)
- nurture (the environment, upbringing)
- personal development



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1.2 Theories of Personality

There are many groups of theories of personality (Mikuláščík, 2007), (McLeod, 2017):

- Theories of layers
 - Sigmund Freud (founder of psychoanalytic theory) - the id, the ego, and the superego
- Typology theories of personality
 - Hippocrates and Galen - 4 temperament theory
 - Jung
- Factorial theories of personality
 - Cattell – 16 personality factors trait theory
- Humanist theories of personality
 - Abraham Maslow – hierarchy of needs
 - Carl Rogers
- The Big Five Dimensions of Personality
 - McCrae and Costa - Five-factor model of personality - OCEAN (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism)
- Ok, not OK
 - Eric Berne - transactional analysis





1.3 Biological and social determinants of psyche development

Theoretical Approach and Major Theorists	Conscious Versus Unconscious Determinants of Personality	Nature (Hereditary Factors) Versus Nurture (Environmental Factors)	Free Will Versus Determinism	Stability Versus Modifiability
Psychodynamic (Freud, Jung, Horney, Adler)	Emphasizes the unconscious	Stresses innate, inherited structure of personality while emphasizing importance of childhood experience	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Emphasizes the stability of characteristics throughout a person's life
Trait (Allport, Cattell, Eysenck)	Disregards both conscious and unconscious	Approaches vary	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Emphasizes the stability of characteristics throughout a person's life
Learning (Skinner, Bandura)	Disregards both conscious and unconscious	Focuses on the environment	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Stresses that personality remains flexible and resilient throughout one's life
Biological and Evolutionary (Tellegen)	Disregards both conscious and unconscious	Stresses the innate, inherited determinants of personality	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Emphasizes the stability of characteristics throughout a person's life
Humanistic (Rogers, Maslow)	Stresses the conscious more than unconscious	Stresses the interaction between both nature and nurture	Stresses the freedom of individuals to make their own choices	Stresses that personality remains flexible and resilient throughout one's life





1.4 Structure of Personality

Structure of personality by Heymans and Wiersma (Van der Werff, 1985)

- **Emotivity – nonemotivity**
level of emotional excitability and reactivity, frequency and strength of emotional response
- **Psychical activity – nonactivity**
active will, purposefulness, organization of activities
- **Primarity – secondarity**
fast-paced and disappearing mental states versus slow and long-lasting decay of experiences





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1.4 Structure of Personality

Personality consists of (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- What a man can – Abilities (intellect, knowledge, skills, dexterity, aptitude, talent)
- What a man wants – Motivation
- What a man is – Temperament
 - Character





1.4 Structure of Personality

Abilities (Mikuláščík, 2007)

- knowledge - acquired sets of ideas and concepts,
- skills - the practical habits that we receive through training and practice,
- hand-skills - fine motor skills (small finger movements),
- dexterity - gross motor skills (whole body),
- aptitude - innate gifts,
- talent - a set of significant skills
- competences - a set of abilities, knowledge, skills, hand-skills and dexterity necessary to perform particular, specific, most often professional activities.

Abilities are predetermined up to 60 % (Mikuláščík, 2007).





1.4 Structure of Personality

Motivation

is the biological, emotional, social, and cognitive forces that activate behavior (Nevid, 2013).

You can influence your own levels of motivation.

5 different approaches to motivation (Nevid, 2013):

- The instinct approach – instincts motivate us.
- The drive-reduction approach – homeostasis - our body has a tendency to act in such a way that a steady internal state is maintained.
- The arousal approach - if our excitement level is too high, we try to reduce it, if our excitement level is too low, we try to increase it by seeking stimulation.
- The incentive approach - we are motivated to get what we want. E.g., students want good grades so they study hard.
- The cognitive approach - we are motivated by our thoughts, expectations and goals.





1.4 Structure of Personality

Motivation

5 drivers by Kahler (1975):

- Be perfect
- Please others
- Try hard
- Be strong
- Hurry up

It is gained characteristics, formed in childhood.

How teachers and parents speak to the child.

We tend to use our driver to motivate others, but it is just one possibility out of 5.





1.4 Structure of Personality

Motivation

- The cognitive approach - we are motivated by our thoughts, expectations and goals.
 - Motivation extrinsic
 - stimuli are coming from outside. We do things because of the tangible rewards, e.g. good grades, money, employee of the month award, benefit package, bonuses, organized activities... E.g. we exercise because we want to lose weight (Nevid, 2013).
 - Motivation intrinsic
 - stimuli are coming from within. We do things because we enjoy doing them. The individual has the desire to perform a specific task, because its results are in accordance with his/her belief system or fulfills a desire and therefore importance is attached to it. Our deep-rooted desires have the highest motivational power. E.g. we exercise because we feel good to exercise (enjoy the activity) (Nevid, 2013).





1.4 Structure of Personality

Motivation

As managers, try to find ways how to provide your employees intrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic motivation can sometimes undermine intrinsic motivation.

In one study, children who really enjoyed drawing were either promised or not promised a reward for their drawing. It was found that children who were promised a reward were less likely to draw again later (Nevid, 2013).





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1.4 Structure of Personality

Temperament

Is characterized as personality disposition and readiness for emotional reactions or as a dynamic aspect of personality.

Temperament is genetically based, inborn (Eysenck, 1972).





1.4 Structure of Personality

Temperament covers (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- The overall focus of mental phenomena (orientation towards people - avoiding people, masculinity - femininity)
- Psychic excitability (easy excitability - not easy excitability, deep excitability - not deep excitability, slowness - speed)
- Resilience of psychic phenomena (stability - lability of nerve processes, nerve weakness – toleration of frustration)
- Permanence of psychological processes (changeability – rigidity, precision - inaccuracy)





1.4 Structure of Personality

Temperament

Typology of temperament by Galen characterized by Eysenck (Eysenck, 1972):

- Sanguine (blood) - cheerful and optimistic, pleasant to be with, comfortable with his or her work.
- Choleric (yellow bile) - quick, hot temper, often an aggressive nature.
- Phlegmatic (phlegm) - slowness, laziness, and dullness.
- Melancholic (black bile) - tend to be sad, even depressed, and take a pessimistic view of the world.

Most people – mix of 2-3 types (Merenda, 1987).

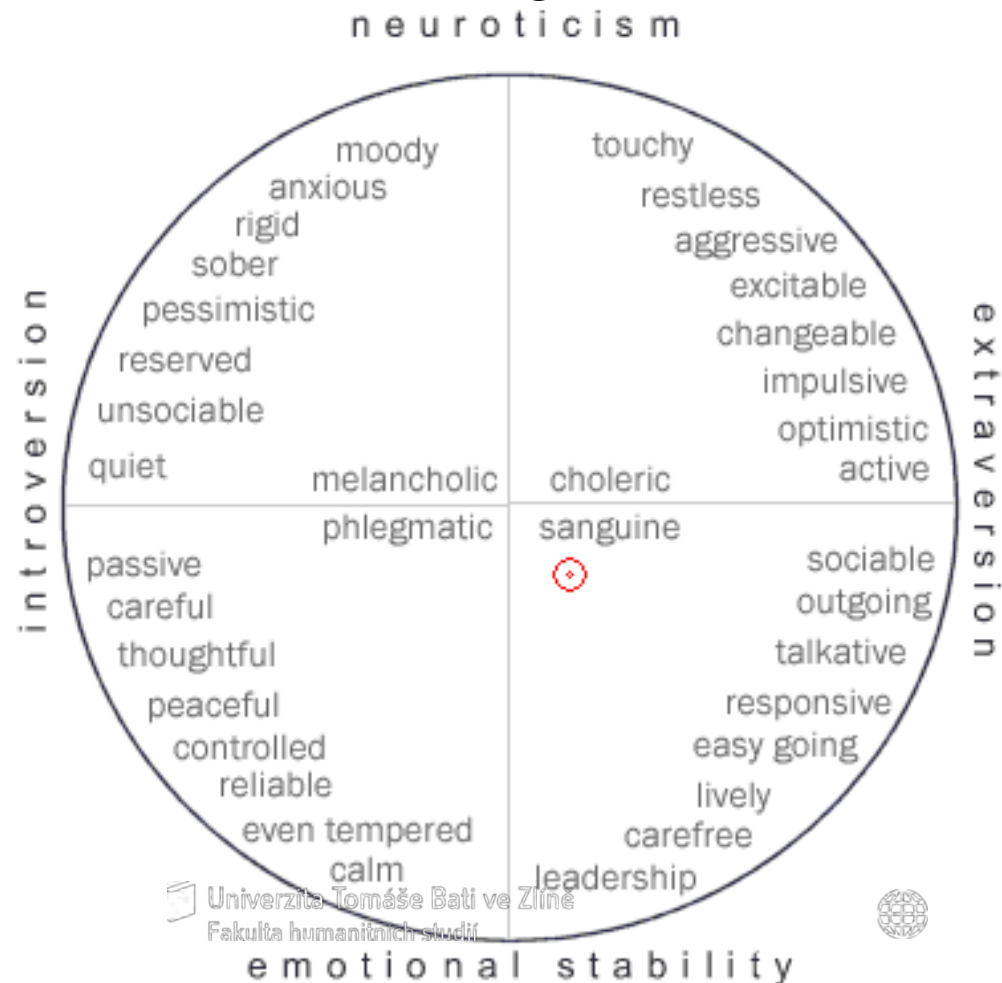




1.4 Structure of Personality

Temperament

Eysenck's characteristics
of temperament types





1.4 Structure of Personality

Temperament

Cloninger´s model of temperament (1986)

- how chemical substances influence the construction and manifestations of temperament.
- 3 areas of temperament:
 - Novelty seeking (behavioural activation, dopamine),
 - Harm avoidance (behavioural inhibition, serotonin),
 - Reward dependence (behavioural support, noradrenaline)
 - Persistence
- the brain has been explored by about 10%





1.4 Structure of Personality

Character

The character expresses the relation to (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- yourself (modesty, the characteristics of will, decisiveness, courage, relationship to freedom ...)
- people (cooperativity, dedication, sincerity, altruism, expansiveness ...)
- work (thoroughness, sense of duty, diligence, initiative ...)
- total world-view orientation (ecological sense, sense of truth, sense of justice, searching and finding the content and meaningfulness of life, pacifism, religiosity ...)





1.4 Structure of Personality

Character

Character development is influenced by (Campbell and Bond, 1982):

- heredity
- early childhood experience
- modelling by important adults and older youth
- peer influence
- the general physical and social environment
- the communications media
- what is taught in the schools and other institutions
- specific situations and roles that elicit corresponding behaviour.





1.4 Structure of Personality

Character

Character is learned, not innate.

Primarily by upbringing. (Rewards and punishments).

Research has shown that traits of character are malleable, not without great effort (Lickerman, 2011).

Sustained character traits are formed by drill, and training.

The origin of the character can be found in two processes (Mikuláščík):

- Assimilation - taking in and fully understanding information or ideas
- Accomodation – adaptation to someone or something

Character traits are based on beliefs (e.g., that honesty and treating others well is important—or not), and though beliefs can be changed (Lickerman, 2011).





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2. Selfmanagement

Chapter subtitle



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2.1 Concepts of Selfmanagement

Selfmanagement

- the ability of an individual to regulate their emotions and resulting behaviors (Bandy & Moore, 2010).
- includes how the individual copes with unmet wants or needs, perseveres when faced with obstacles, and sets goals for himself/herself (Bandy & Moore, 2010).
- how you control and manage yourself and your emotions, inner resources, and abilities ('Self-Regulation | Self-Management', n.d.).
- includes your ability to manage your impulses ('Self-Regulation | Self-Management', n.d.).
- includes taking responsibility for your own actions ('Self-Regulation | Self-Management', n.d.).
- Includes ensuring that what you do matches with your personal values ('Self-Regulation | Self-Management', n.d.).





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2.1 Concepts of Selfmanagement

Selfmanagement consists of five elements ('Self-Regulation | Self-Management', n.d.):

- Self-control
- Trustworthiness
- Conscientiousness
- Adaptability
- Innovation





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2.1 Concepts of Selfmanagement

Selfmanagement consists of 3 areas (Porvazník et al., 2008):

- Self-awareness and self-acceptation
- Self-reliance:
 - self-planning
 - self-organization
 - self-control
- Self-development



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2.2 Selfawareness and selfacceptation

Selfawareness

- the ability to be aware of who we are as individuals – my likes/dislikes, strengths/weaknesses, value system, past experiences, patterns of behavior, self esteem level, emotional reactions, passions, etc. (Goleman, 2009).

Techniques to know and realize who I am (Mikulášťík, 2007):

- regular reflection
- diary
- knowing yourself through the perception of other





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2.2 Selfawareness and selfacceptation

Exercise:

Write down the characteristics of a manager you admire the most.

Which qualities are on your list? Now turn the mirror on yourself. How do you become that person? (Stine, 2016).





2.2 Selfawareness and selfacceptation

Experiment investigated the relation between the achievement and receiving assessment from surroundings (Kim & Lee, 2019), (Hurst et al., 1994):

- People who received positive assessment from their surroundings about their abilities had higher performance (performed better) than people who received negative assessment from their surroundings about their abilities.





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2.3 Self-reliance

Self-reliance consists of three parts (Porvazník et al., 2008):

- self-planning,
- self-organization
- self-control



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2.4 Self-development

Self-awareness is essential for self-development.

If you want to develop yourself, :

- **Cultivate a positive mind-set**
- **Improve your concentration**
- **Build your self-discipline**



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2.4 Self-development

Build your self-discipline by (Kennedy, 2019):

- Get motivated. Know your “why”
- Create a goal, challenge or deadline
- Remove temptations. Our environment affects our choices.
- Start Small. Eat an elephant one bite at a time.
- Create habits and rituals.
- Do the most important things first before you run out of mental willpower, time and energy.
- Be nice to yourself.





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3. Mental Hygiene

Chapter subtitle



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3.1 What is Mental Hygiene?

Human life consists of body and soul, interconnected
Their interdependence - mental and physical health is a closed system
One without the other cannot function in the long term.

Mental Hygiene

is an interdisciplinary subject covering the practical issues of our lives, focusing on the preservation of physical and mental health despite the adverse impacts of many sub-stimuli and situations” (Bedrnová, 2009).





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3.2 Give your brain what it needs

A healthy brain requires ('3 things your brain loves', 2018):

- the right nutrition (monounsaturated fats)
- physical exercise
- to get regular mental workouts (challenges, exercises for the brain)



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3.3 Prevent stress

The following long-term habits to better manage general stress (Scott, 2019):

- Exercise regularly
- Healthy diet
- Cultivate supportive relationships
- Meditate regularly
- Listen to music



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3.3 Prevent stress

Resistance to increased stress can be strengthened by (Machač, 1984):

- Diverse relaxation techniques
- Yoga
- Autogenous training



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3.3 Prevent stress

Some principles to good relax (Bedrnová, 2009):

- relax at the first signs of tiredness,
- relax activities differ to those normally carried out,
- prefer relaxation with one's own activity rather than just involvement of the senses,
- part of the relax activities realize separated (not with the core family),
- change of life stereotype including ways of relax,
- at least once a year relax for 14 continuous days,
- enjoy leisure activities and enjoy them with a pleasure.





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3.4 Build mental toughness and resilience

Some tips to building mental toughness (Mayberry, 2017):

- Practice mindfulness daily
- Step out of your comfort zone daily



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4. Conflicts

Chapter subtitle



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4.1 Types of Conflicts

Conflict can be defined as

- disagreement or incompatibility between principles, interests or opinions.
- a situation in which two or more parties strive to acquire the same scarce resources at the same time (Wallenstein, 2011).





4.1 Types of Conflicts

Conflict can be classified into the following types (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- Intrapersonal conflict
- Interpersonal conflict
- Intragroup conflict
- Intergroup conflict
- International conflict





4.1 Types of Conflicts

Negative consequences of conflict (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- Psychic disorders
- Physical difficulties
- Distance in relations

Positive consequences of conflict (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- Strengthening relations with higher tolerance
- Positive development – new is born in conflict
- More respect from others and more self-esteem after resolved conflict
- Strengthening the creative spirit
- Some people need tension as stimulation for better performance





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4.2 Frustration

Conflict usually causes frustration.

Frustration - a barrier on a way to a goal (Mikuláščík, 2007)

Frustrational tolerance - the ability to handle the frustration (Rosenzweig, 1945)

Different people - different frustration tolerance.

Managers - need a high level of frustrational tolerance.





4.2 Frustration

Human reactions to frustration (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- increasing efforts
- projection
- aggression and anger
- escape into fantasy
- depressive behavior
- regression
- sublimation
- denial
- rationalization
- physical escape
- the "sour grape" mechanism
- redemption of ourself





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4.2 Frustration

Typology of people according to their reaction to frustrational situation (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- Extrapunitive type
- Intropunitive type
- Inpunitive type





4.3 Strategies of conflict solving

Pondy 's model of organizational conflict has following stages (Pondy, 1967):

1. Latent conflict - Participants not yet aware of conflict
2. Perceived conflict - Participants aware a conflict exists
3. Felt conflict - Stress and anxiety
4. Manifest conflict - Conflict is open and can be observed
5. Conflict aftermath - The situation where a particular problem may have been resolved but the potential for conflict still exists.



[\(https://likealotusflower.wordpress.com/conflict-management/\)](https://likealotusflower.wordpress.com/conflict-management/)





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4.3 Strategies of conflict solving

There are several theories of conflict management:

- 5 strategies of conflict solving
- Rahim's meta model
- Thomas & Kilmann model
- Blake and Mouton's conflict grid





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4.3 Strategies of conflict solving

5 strategies of conflict solving (Bedrnová & Nový, 2007):

- Escape strategy
- Win-loss, confrontational, coercive, repressive strategy
- Adaptation, adaptational strategy
- Win-win, agreement, strategy of cooperation
- Compromise strategy

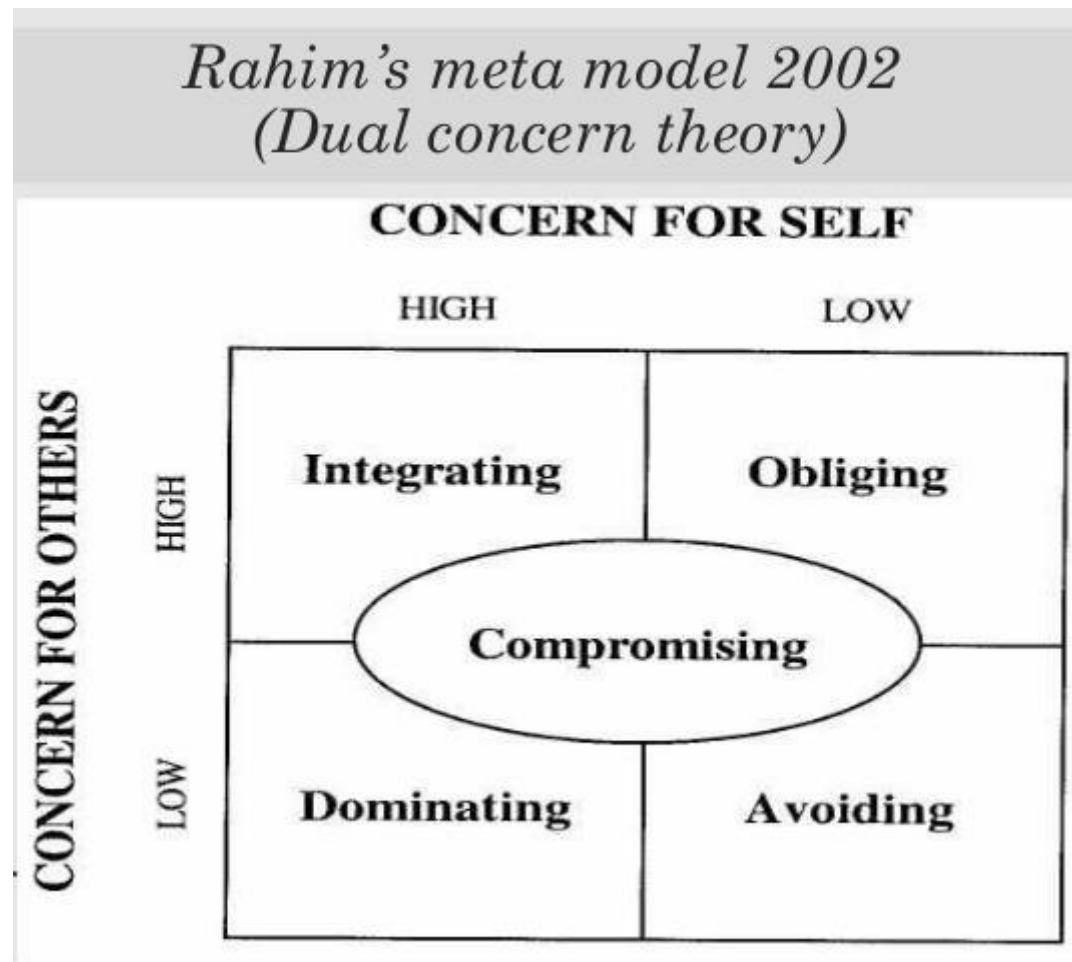




4.3 Strategies of conflict solving

Rahim's meta model

(<https://www.slideshare.net/AamerNaseer1/conflict-management-71274712>)

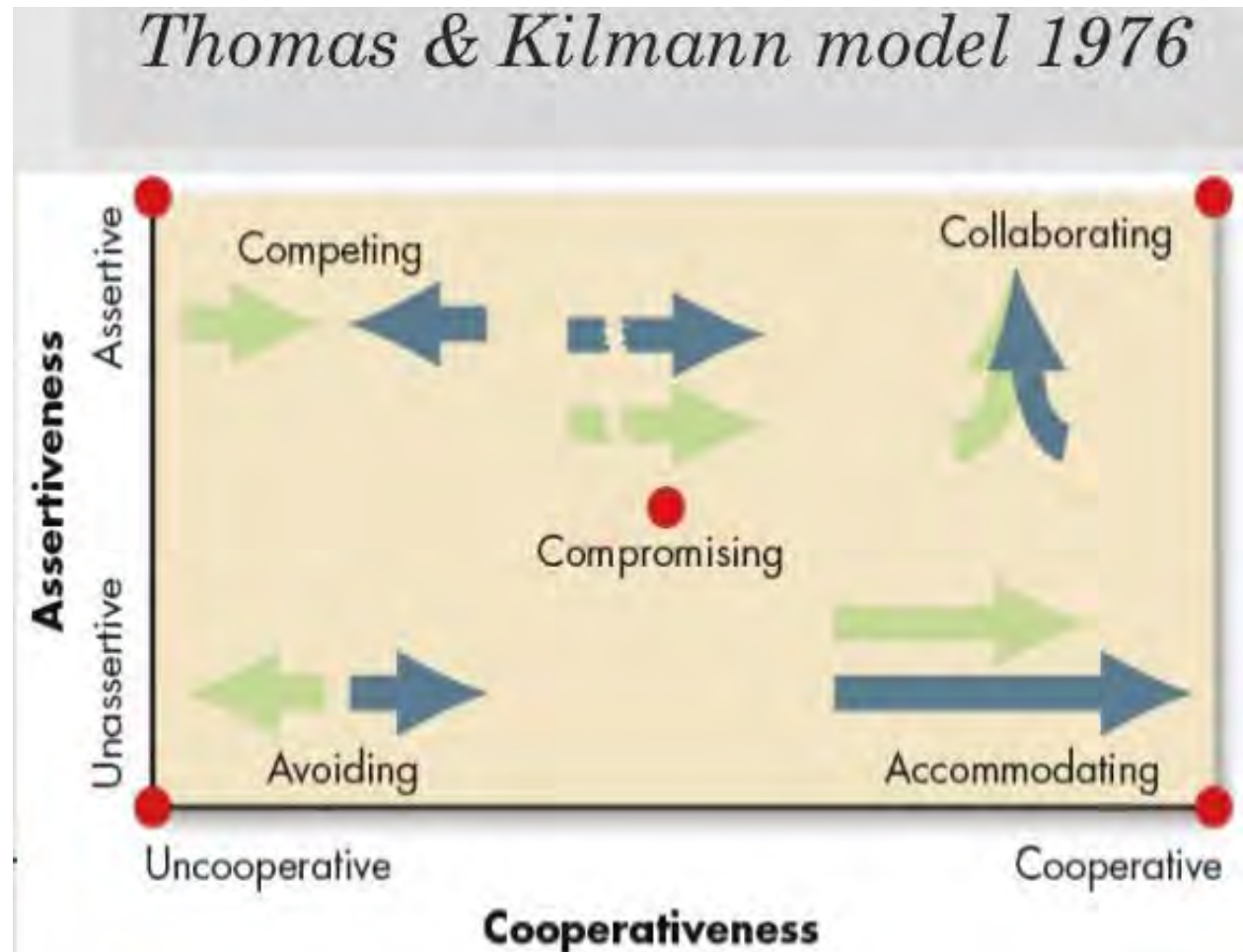




4.3 Strategies of conflict solving

Thomas & Kilmann model

(<https://www.slideshare.net/AamerNaseer1/conflict-management-71274712>)

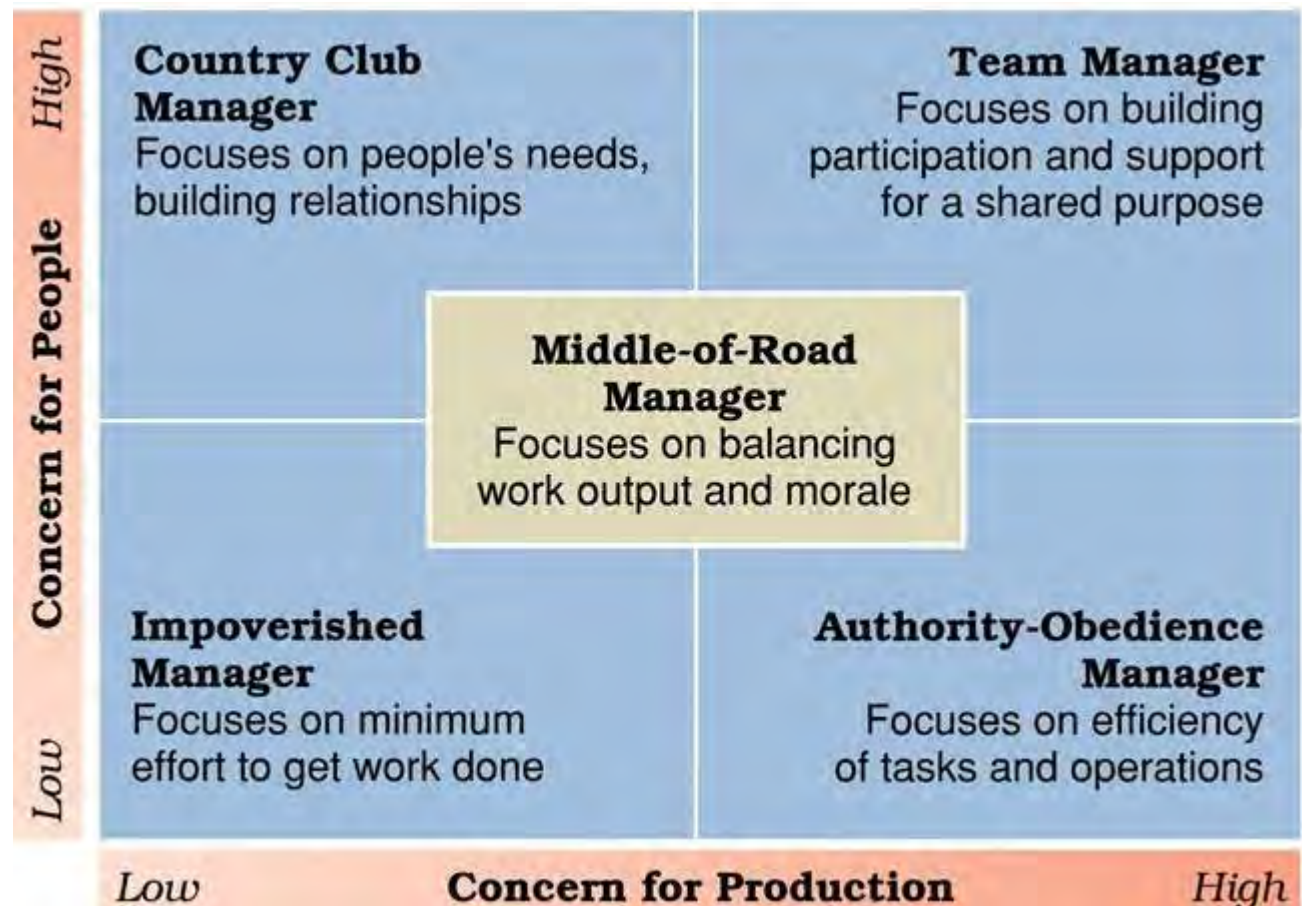




4.3 Strategies of conflict solving

Blake and Mouton's
conflict grid

(<https://slideplayer.com/slide/8945779/>)

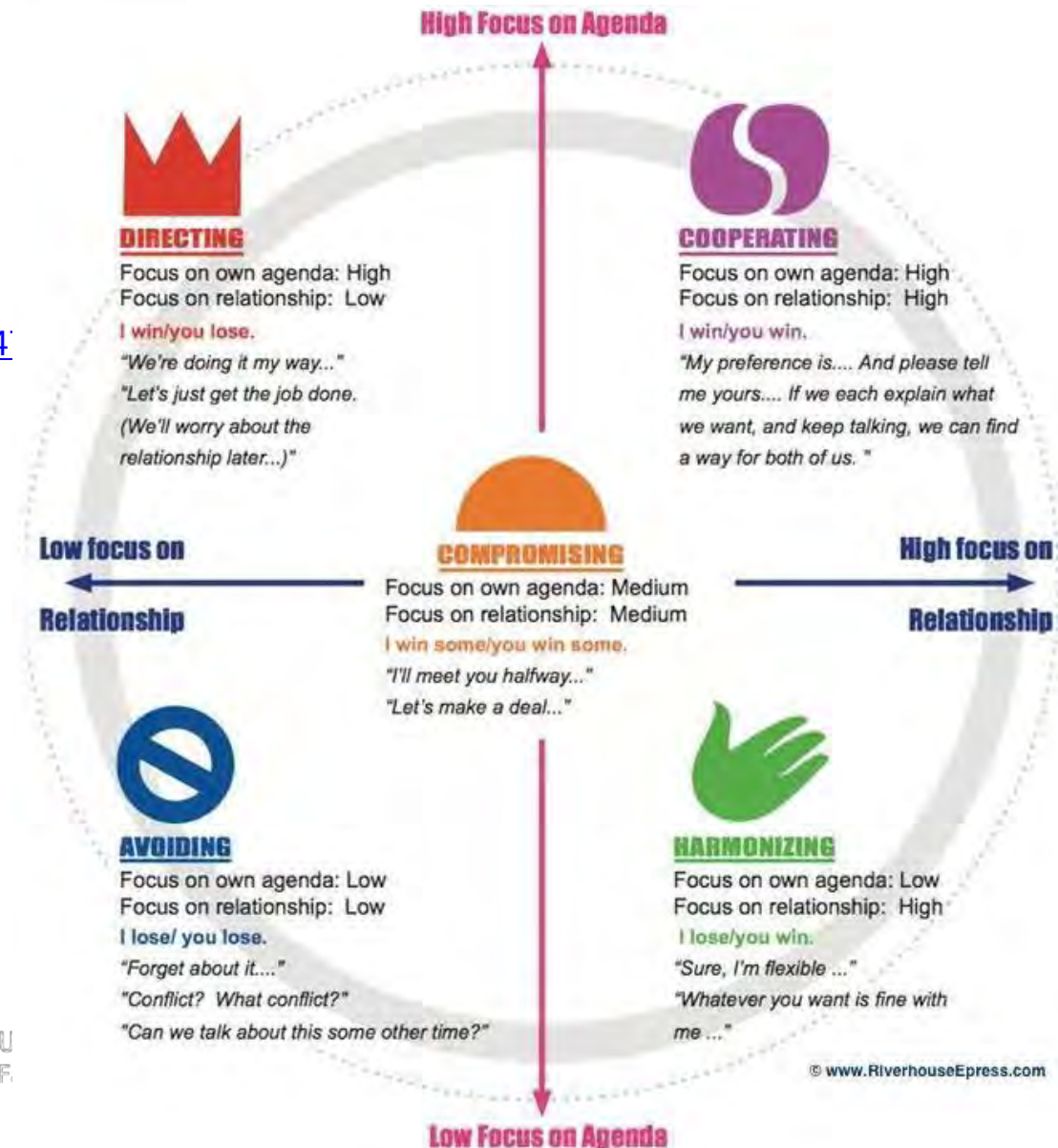




4.3 Strategies

5 styles of responding to conflict

(<https://cz.pinterest.com/pin/12406016419194742/?lp=true>)





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5. Work and Organizational Psychology

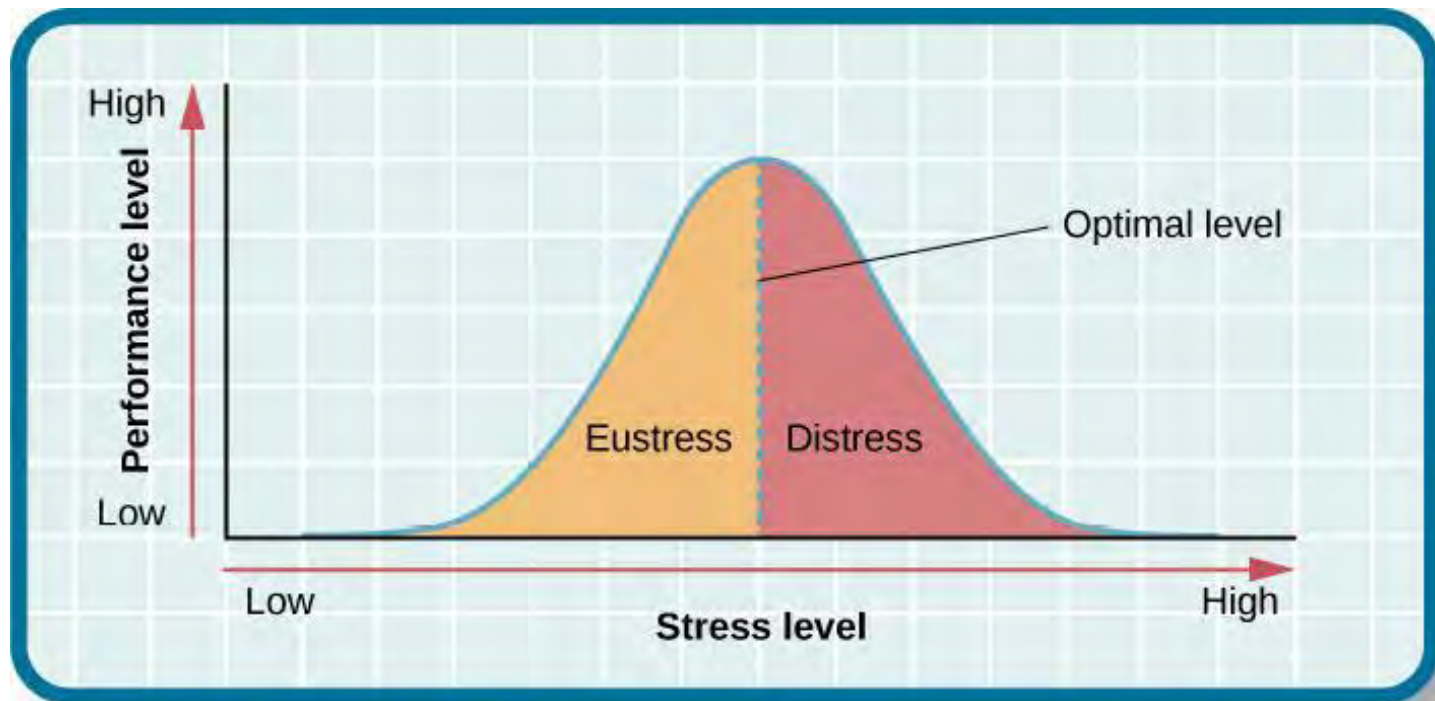
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5.1 Stress



The relation between stress and performance (Spielman, 2014)





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5.1 Stress

Stress ingredients are (Recipe for stress, 2017):

- Novelty
- Unpredictability
- Threat to the Ego (your competence as a person is called into question)
- Sense of Control (you feel you have little or no control over the situation)



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5.1 Stress

Main stress starters on workplace (Mühlfeit et al., 2017):

- Requirements (overloads)
- Control (lack of feedback)
- Relationships
- Changes (poor communication about changes, noneffective managing of change)
- Role (wrong choice of work)
- Support



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5.1 Stress

Principle of predictability

When individuals are informed about events (stressor) before they occur, the magnitude of the stressor is less (Grillon et al., 2004).

Principle of control

The degree to which the stressor can be controlled plays a variable in how the person perceives stress (Deckers, 2018). If an individual is able to take some control over the stressor, then the level of stress will be decreased. The individuals become increasingly anxious and distressed if they were unable to control their environment (Zvolensky et al., 2001).





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5.2 The Psychology of Change

Change management requires understanding :

- how people experience change
- what they need to change successfully.

Natural human reaction - to resist change (Kalivoda, 2013)





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5.2 The Psychology of Change

Natural human reaction to change has following phases (Managing Change, 2016):

- Shock
- Anger (Anxiety)
- Resistance
- Acceptance
- Hope/Healing/Help



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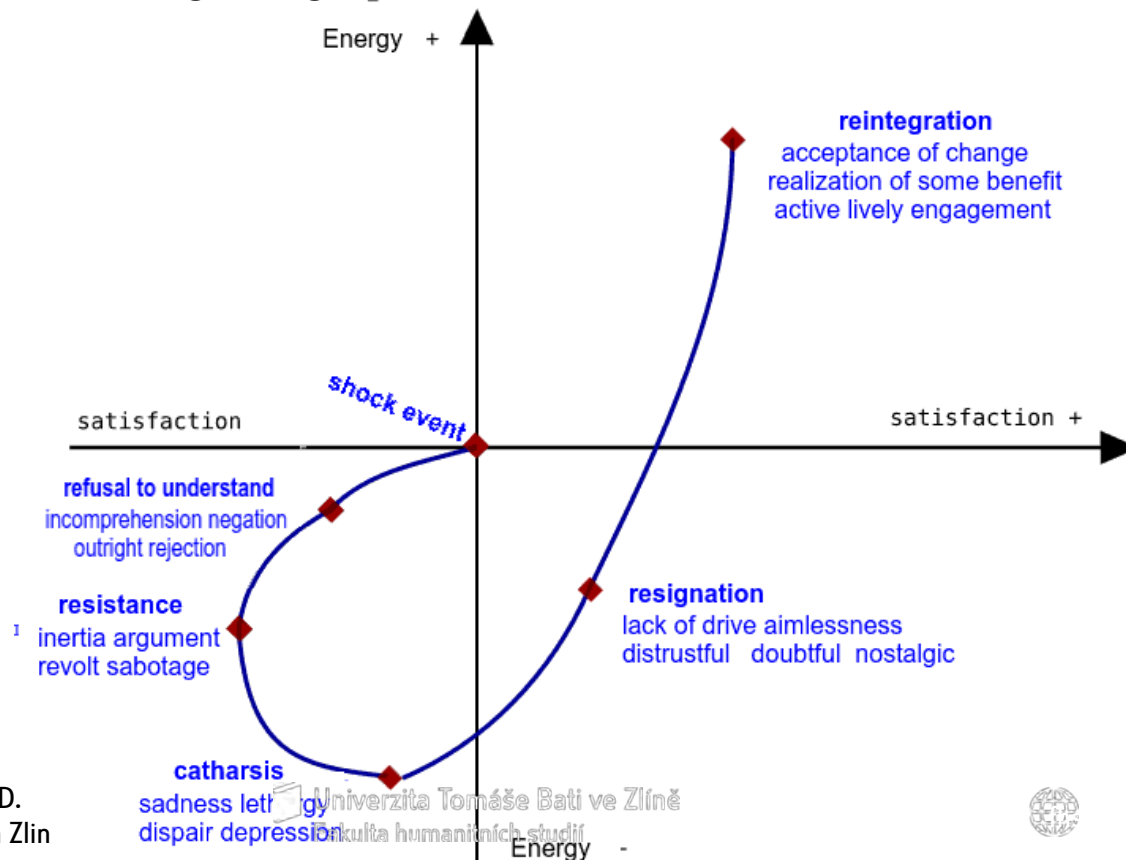
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5.2 The Psychology of Change

Kübler Ross grieving curve (Grondin, 2017)





5.2 The Psychology of Change

Resistance Zoo - different reactions to change (Murphy, 2013), (Straker, 2008) :

- Rhinos - Want to bulldoze through and sabotage the change.
- Lions - want to ensure they remain King of the Jungle.
- Monkeys - Want to create mischief and won't take the change seriously.
- Ostriches - puts its head in the sand.
- Tortoises - want to wait to see if other people adopt the change.
- Elephants - are not agile and flexible enough to adapt and can cause a stampede at any moment if they feel they are being cornered.
- Owls – they point out faults and reasons for the change not to work.





5.2 The Psychology of Change

4 conditions for changing mind-sets (Lawson & Price, 2003):

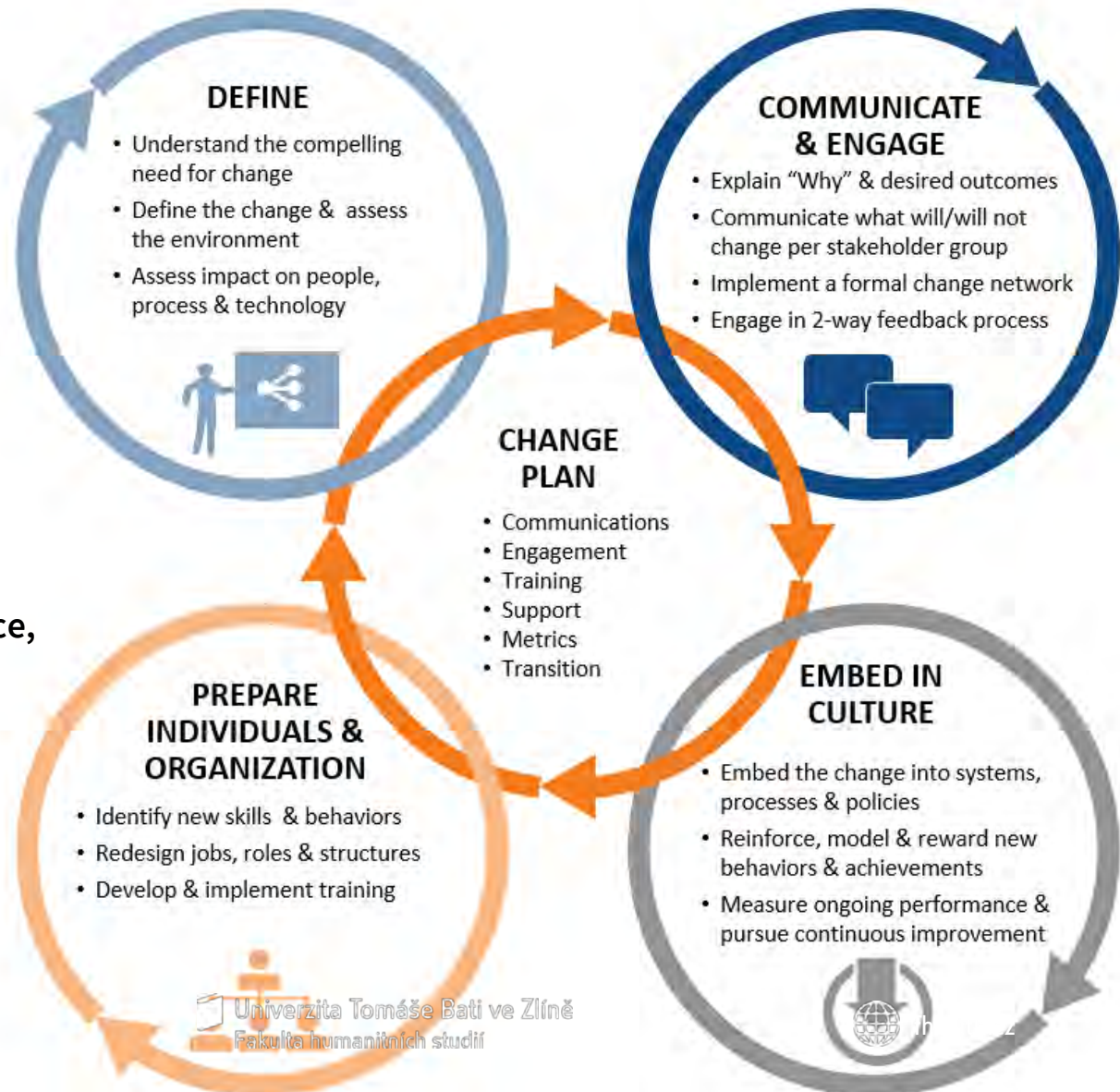
- A purpose to believe in
- Reinforcement systems (reward and recognition systems must be in tune with the new behavior)
- The skills required for change
- Consistent role models





Change Management Framework

Provides guidance
to people who
are leading and/or
implementing change
(Change Management |
Organizational Excellence,
U.Va., 2020)





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5.2 The Psychology of Change

The ADKAR model (Hiatt, 2006):

- Awareness of the need for change
- Desire to support the change
- Knowledge of how to change
- Ability to demonstrate skills and behaviours
- Reinforcement to make the change stick



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6. Psychology of selling

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6.1 Know Customers' Needs

The primary customer needs are (Prater, 2018), (Tracy, 2006):

1. Money,
2. Security,
3. Being liked,
4. Status and prestige,
5. Health and fitness,
6. Praise and recognition,
7. Power, influence, and popularity,
8. Leading the field,
9. Love and companionship,
10. Personal growth,
11. Personal transformation.





6.1 Know Customers' Needs

Tracy (2006) cites a study showing

- desire for gain has a motivational power of 1.0,
- while fear of loss has a negative motivational power of 2.5.

This means people are much more motivated by fear they'll lose something by not buying.

Increase buying desire, reduce fear of loss, and emphasize the ultimate benefit.





6.2 Types of Customers

3 basic categories of customers (Starzyczna, 2005):

- Customers with a clear idea.
- Customers with no idea.
- Customers who are not interested in buying something.

6 basic buyers profiles (Tracy, 2006):

- The apathetic buyer
- The self-actualizing buyer
- The analytical buyer
- The relater buyer
- The driver buyer
- The socialized buyer





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6.2 Types of Customers

4 basic combinations of personal types of customers (Filipová, 2010):

- Leader-friendly type
- Leader-hostile type
- Subordinate-friendly type
- Subordinate-hostile type



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6.2 Types of Customers

Avidity – nonavidity

100 % gained factor of personality, not inborn

The need for not to be average and show my status to my surrounding.

Compared to the environment (referential group) that is important for the person.

Eg.:

- **Image - expensive clothes, car, watch, phone.**
- **Presentation of relationship net on high level - When I spoke with minister, we...(reference to my relationship to important person)**
- **Verbal communication - I (often)...**

The referential group can be different - e.g. rich-people, intellectuals, artists, ...





6.2 Types of Customers

Psychical activity – nonactivity (Van der Werff, 1985)

About 70 % inborn and 30 % gained factor of personality

How an individual makes use of opportunities in his/her surrounding for own goals.

It also shows how successful we are and how we can attract other people.

- Active – use dramatic verbs in their communication
- Nonactive – use static verbs in their communication





6.3 Psychology of Customer Influencing

People make decisions emotionally.

People justify decisions with facts.

People are egocentric.

People look for value.

The human brain's primary function is to deal with social interactions.

You can't force people to do anything.

People love to buy. What people don't love is to be cheated or tricked.

Instead of "selling" to people, try to "help" them.

People are naturally suspicious.

People are always looking for something.

People buy "direct" because of convenience and exclusivity.

People like to see it, hear it, touch it, taste it, or smell it before they buy it.

Most people follow the crowd.





6.3 Psychology of Customer Influencing

7 Principles of the psychology of selling (Steffens, 2018):

- **Reciprocity** - Whenever you do something for someone, or give them something, they're more likely to do something for you.
- **Commitment** - The observation that once someone makes an initial decision, they usually work hard to avoid contradicting their past position. That is, people want to appear stable, grounded, and consistent.
- **Liking** - consumers are looking for brands that help them live their own personal values in return. Liking means having a connection. Buyers don't connect with a list of features or a given price point. They feel connection when they're presented with the opportunity to be the person they want to be, either at work or at home.
- **Authority** - Reducing risk is a key factor in influencing any decision-maker to buy. Established authority helps to do that, giving readers confidence by showcasing your specialized expertise. Everyone is an authority on something, but being an authority on the right things is crucial.





6.3 Psychology of Customer Influencing

7 Principles of the psychology of selling (Steffens, 2018):

- **Social Proof** - is sort of like “authority for the average person.” The wisdom of crowds, as evidence that others have had success in the past making the same buying decision you are pondering. The more “like you” those others seem, the more effective the social proof is in inspiring a sale.
- **Scarcity** - humans are predisposed to believe the rarer something is, the more valuable it is. Example: Diamonds. There are several different ways this can shake out:
 - Limited time offers that get advertised early but go on for a relatively short duration.
 - Limited in-stock inventory, with the remaining inventory indicated within your site.
 - Ambiguity as to the long-term fate of the product – whether it will be offered again.
- **Unity** - is the belief that everything you present to a potential customer should be congruent.





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6.3 Psychology of Customer Influencing

A customer who says no today can say yes after a while.

We can change the customer's opinion.

With appropriate questions we can detach or attract customer attention.

Argumentation in several forms several times in a row.

References, leaflets, mock-ups, the possibility to take the product in hands, taste it, etc.

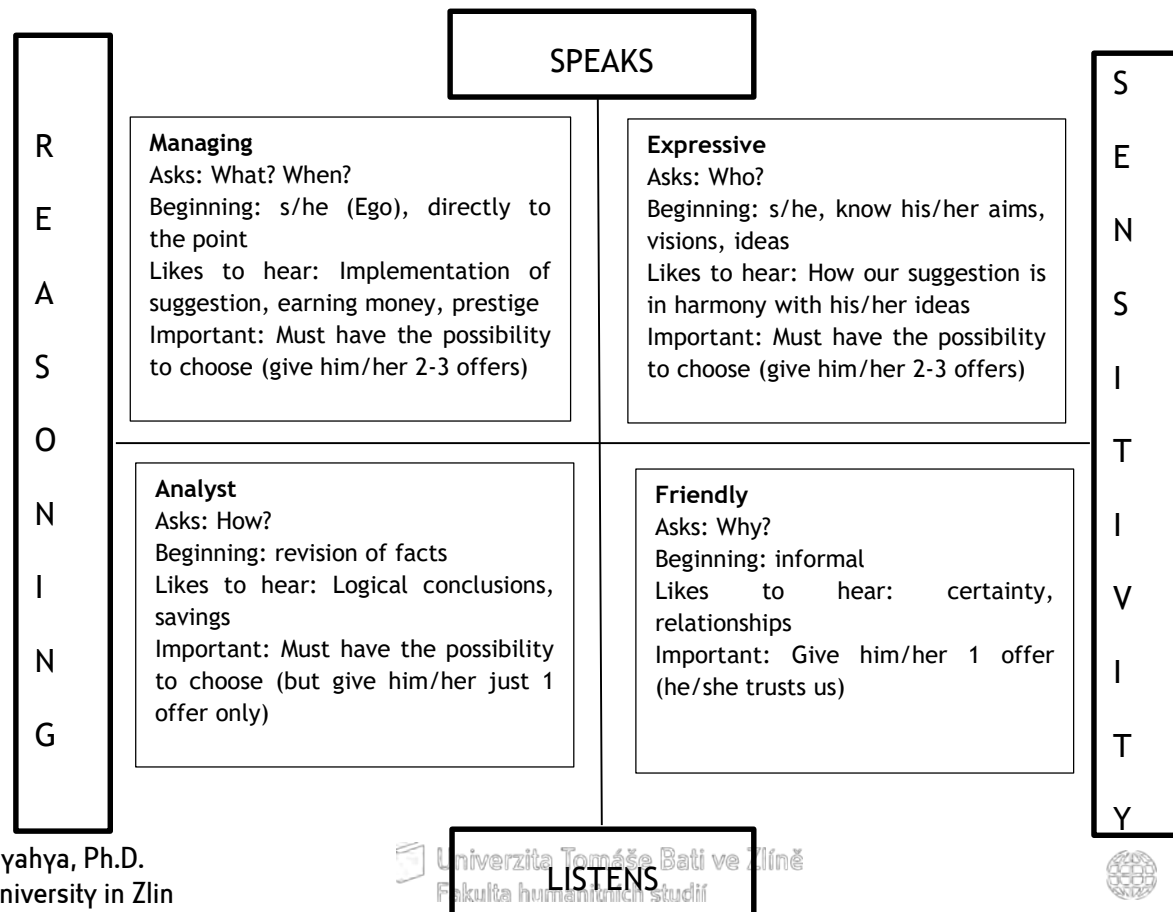
The customer must be persuaded, not forced.

The customer forgets the third solution.





6.3 Psychology of Customer Influencing





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6.3 Psychology of Customer Influencing

5 tips you cant do during dealing when the customer has some objections (a.s, 2020 IVITERA):

- downplay his/her objection
- start arguing with the client
- deviate from the meeting outline
- advocate the product without understanding what the client means
- lie or fog or conceal





6.4 Psychological Aspects of Goods Placement

Expert studies findings (Cimler & Zadražilová, 2007), (Starzyczna, 2005), (Vysekalová, 2004), (Berekoven, 1995):

- initially walking fast, then slowing down and finally speeding up again.
- regularly purchased goods display at the opposite end of the entrance
- the goods we want to offer place on the right
- goods bought regularly distribute to the left
- customers prefer external roads (main streams)
- in the secondary streams (“dead center”) the frequency of purchase decreases by more than 50%
- customers are not very interested in the assortment in the corners





6.4 Psychological Aspects of Goods Placement

Statistics proved effects (Starzyczna, 2005):

- moving goods up to the neighboring zone increases sales by about 15-20%,
- moving goods down to the neighboring zone declines sales by approximately 15%;
- moving goods up two zones increases sales by about 30-50%,
- moving goods down two zones causes sales to fall by about 30-60%.





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CONTENTS

CONTENTS	3
INTRODUCTION	5
1 PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY	6
1.1 DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY	6
1.2 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY	6
1.2.1 Theories of layers	6
1.2.2 Typology theories of personality	7
1.2.3 Factorial theories of personality	7
1.2.4 Humanist theories of personality	8
1.2.5 The Big Five Dimensions of Personality	8
1.2.6 OK, not OK	9
1.3 BIOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF HUMAN PSYCHE DEVELOPMENT	11
1.4 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY	12
1.4.1 Abilities	12
1.4.2 Motivation	13
1.4.3 Temperament	15
1.4.4 Character	17
2 SELFMANAGEMENT	20
2.1 CONCEPTS OF SELFMANAGEMENT	20
2.2 SELFAWARENESS AND SELFACCEPTATION	21
2.3 SELF-RELIANCE	22
2.4 SELF-DEVELOPMENT	23
3 MENTAL HYGIENNE	26
3.1 WHAT IS MENTAL HYGIENNE	26
3.2 GIVE YOUR BRAIN WHAT IT NEEDS	26
3.3 PREVENT STRESS	26
3.4 BUILD MENTAL TOUGHNESS AND RESILIENCE	27
4 CONFLICTS	29
4.1 CONFLICTS - CONSEQUENCES, TYPES AND STAGES	29
4.2 STRATEGIES OF CONFLICT SOLVING	31
4.3 CONFLICT PREVENTION AND RULES FOR CONFLICT SOLVING	32
4.4 ASSERTIVENESS	33
4.5 HANDLING AGGRESSION AND ANGER	34
4.6 MEDIATION	35
5 WORK AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY	36



5.1	STRESS	36
5.2	THE PSYCHOLOGY OF CHANGE.....	41
6	PSYCHOLOGY OF SELLING.....	47
6.1	KNOW CUSTOMER 'S NEEDS	47
6.2	TYPES OF CUSTOMERS.....	47
6.3	PSYCHOLOGY OF CUSTOMER INFLUENCING	49
6.4	PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF GOODS PLACEMENT	50
	SUMMARY	52
	REFERENCES	53
	LIST OF IMAGES.....	61
	LIST OF TABLES	62



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INTRODUCTION

Dear students,

I present you this university textbook to the bachelor course Managerial Psychology and Sociology. This brief aid should help you to study the part of the course that relates to the managerial psychology.

This university textbook contains basic knowledge of complex issues relating to the managerial psychology. Psychology is very wide and covers so many practical knowledge. I tried to choose topics that from my point of view are essential in managerial work. So you will study personality psychology, selfmanagement, mental hygiene, conflicts, work and organizational psychology with subchapters stress and psychology of change, and also the chapter psychology of selling.

Each chapter includes not only the informational text based on scientific sources, but also interesting scientific experiments and results of scientific studies.

I wish you good luck in your study and your practice, as well. I hope you will find the knowledge useful.

Authoress

Leadership is the art of getting someone else to do something you want done
because he wants to do it.
(Dwight Eisenhower)



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1 PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

1.1 Definition of personality

There is not just one accepted definition of personality. Personality can be defined for example as "The characteristics or blend of characteristics that make a person unique." (Weinberg & Gould, 2014). "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his/her characteristics behaviour and thought." (Allport, 1937). There are different definitions but some general characteristics of personality can be defined. They are:

- uniqueness - personality is what distinguishes man from others.
- consistency and unity - a personality is a sum of psychological elements, some sub-structures that together form an indivisible unity (the whole)
- relative persistence - the personality is relatively stable and this makes possible to predict the behavior of a person in a particular situation,
- adaptation and development - a continuous process - a way how to cope with changes of conditions inside the man himself/herself and also the changes in his/her environment.

It is assumed that each person has a unique psychological structure. We must also consider the influence and interaction of nature (biology, genetics, etc.) and nurture (the environment, upbringing) with respect to personality development (McLeod, 2017).

1.2 Theories of personality

There are various theories of personality and these theories can be divided into 4 groups:

1.2.1 Theories of layers

This group of theories can be represented by Sigmund Freud (1856-1939). He was the founder of psychoanalytic theory. According to Sigmund Freud, human personality is complex and has more than a single component. In his famous psychoanalytic theory of personality, personality is composed of three elements. These three elements of personality known as the id, the ego, and the superego (Freud, 2010). The id is responsible for all needs and





urges, while the superego for ideals and morals. The ego moderates between the demands of the id, the superego, and reality (Cherry, 2019).

1.2.2 Typology theories of personality

This group of theories can be represented by ancient Hippocrates and Galen's Four temperament theory or Jung's model (Mikuláščík, 2007). Temperament theory has its roots in the ancient four humors theory. The Greek physician Hippocrates (460–370 BC) developed it into a medical theory. He believed certain human moods, emotions and behaviours were caused by an excess or lack of body fluids (called "humors"): blood, yellow bile, black bile, and phlegm. Next, Galen (AD 129 – c. 200) developed the first typology of temperament in his dissertation *De temperamentis*, and searched for physiological reasons for different behaviours in humans. The Four temperament theory suggests that there are four fundamental personality types. These temperamental categories Galen named "sanguine", "choleric", "melancholic" and "phlegmatic" after the bodily humors, respectively. Most formulations include the possibility of mixtures between the types where an individual's personality types overlap and they share two or more temperaments (Merenda, 1987).

1.2.3 Factorial theories of personality

Factorial theories are too difficult so they are not used in managerial practice. Factorial theories can be represented by Cattell's 16PF Trait Theory. (Cattell, 2007) He argued that it was necessary to look at a much larger number of traits in order to get a complete picture of someone's personality. Cattell collected data about people through their life record data such as school grades, absence from work, etc., from a questionnaire designed to rate an individual's personality factors and from objective tests designed to 'tap' into a personality construct (McLeod, 2017). Cattell identified 16 personality traits common to all people. They are warmth, intellect, emotional stability, aggressiveness, liveliness, dutifulness, social assertiveness, sensitivity, paranoia, abstractness, introversion, anxiety, open-mindedness, independence, perfectionism, tension. He made a distinction between source and surface traits. Surface traits are very obvious and can be easily identified by other people, whereas source traits are less visible to other people and appear to underlie several different aspects of behaviour. Cattell regarded source traits are more important in describing personality than surface traits (Cattell, 2007).





1.2.4 Humanist theories of personality

Humanist theories emphasize the importance of free will and individual experience in the development of personality. Humanist theorists also focused on the concept of self-actualization, which is an innate need for personal growth that motivates behaviour. Humanist theorists include Allport, Rogers, Maslow, Seligman (Cherry, 2019).

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) was a humanist psychologist who developed the well-known hierarchy of needs. This hierarchy includes physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and affection needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualizing needs (Cherry, 2019).

Carl Rogers (1902-1987) was a humanist psychologist who believed that all people have an actualizing tendency - a drive to fulfil the individual potential that motivates behaviour. Rogers called healthy individuals fully-functioning, describing these individuals as those who are open to experience, live in the moment, trust their own judgment, feel free and are creative (Cherry, 2019).

1.2.5 The Big Five Dimensions of Personality

On the border between typology and factorial theories there is McCrae and Costa's Five-Factor Model of personality, which describes personality in terms of five broad factors (McCrae & T, 2005), (Waude, 2017): Openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism. You might find it helpful to use the acronym OCEAN.

The openness to experience dimension of personality is characterised by a willingness to try new activities.

Conscientiousness - People who are conscientious are more aware of their actions and the consequences of their behavior than people who are unconscientious. They feel a sense of responsibility towards other and are generally careful to carry out the duties assigned to them. People with high conscientious levels also exhibit more goal-oriented behaviour (Waude, 2017).

Extraversion is characterised by outgoing, socially confident behavior. Extraverts are sociable, talkative and often forward in social situations. They enjoy being the center of a group and will often seek the attention of others (Waude, 2017).



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Individuals who score highly on agreeableness measures are friendly and co-operative. Often considered more likeable by their peers and colleagues, agreeable people are trusting of others and are more altruistic, willing to help others during times of need. Their ability to work with others means that they often work well as members of a team. Agreeable people dislike being involved in arguments, conflict with others and other forms of confrontation. They appease others, acting as the mediating 'peace-maker' of their group (Waude, 2017).

Neuroticism is measured on a continuum ranging from emotional stability to emotional instability (neuroticism). People with high neuroticism scores are often persistent worriers. They are more fearful and often feel anxious, over-thinking their problems and exaggerating their significance. Rather than seeing the positive in a situation, they may dwell on its negative aspects. Neuroticism can result in a person coping less successfully with common stressors in their day-to-day lives. Instead, they will often become frustrated with others and may feel angry if events do not occur as they wish (Waude, 2017).

1.2.6 OK, not OK

Eric Berne initiated the principle within Transactional Analysis that we are all born 'OK', in other words good and worthy (Berne, 2016). Frank Ernst and Thomas A. Harris developed these into the OK matrix, also known as the 'OK Corral' (Harris, 1996), (Ernst, 2008b). These are also known as 'life positions'.

		You	
		You're OK	You're not OK
I	I'm OK	Get on with others	Get rid of them
	I'm not OK	Get away from them	Get nowhere with them

Image 1 - The OK matrix (The OK-Not OK Matrix, n.d.)





I'm not OK - You're OK - When I think I'm not OK but you are OK, then I am putting myself in an inferior position with respect to you. This position may come from being belittled as a child, perhaps from dominant parents or maybe careless teachers or bullying peers. People in this position have a particularly low self-esteem and will put others before them. They may thus have a strong 'Please Others' driver (*The OK-Not OK Matrix*, n.d.).

I'm OK - You're not OK - People in this position feel themselves superior in some way to others, who are seen as inferior and not OK. As a result, they may be contemptuous and quick to anger. Their talk about others will be smug and supercilious, contrasting their own relative perfection with the limitation of others. This position is a trap into which many managers, parents and others in authority fall, assuming that their given position makes them better and, by implication, others are not OK. These people may also have a strong 'Be Perfect' driver, and their personal strivings makes others seem less perfect (*The OK-Not OK Matrix*, n.d.).

I'm OK - You're OK - When I consider myself OK and also frame others as OK, then there is no position for me or you to be inferior or superior. This is, in many ways, the ideal position. Here, the person is comfortable with other people and with themselves. They are confident, happy and get on with other people even when there are points of disagreement (*The OK-Not OK Matrix*, n.d.).

I'm not OK - You're not OK - This is a relatively rare position, but perhaps occurs where people unsuccessfully try to project their bad objects onto others. As a result, they remain feeling bad whilst also perceive others as bad. This position could also be a result of relationships with dominant others where the other people are viewed with a sense of betrayal and retribution. This may later get generalized from the bullies to all others people (*The OK-Not OK Matrix*, n.d.).

So what? Understand how you frame yourself and others as being OK and note how you respond to this. Then think about the other person and how they are framing it.

Note how some combinations work together, for example where one person has the position of 'I'm OK/You're not OK' and the other person has 'I'm not OK/You're OK'. In such match-





ing positions the relationship may well be stable and both will gain some comfort of confirmation from this. When positions do not fit, particularly when both people are 'I'm OK/You're not OK', then this is a recipe for conflict or confusion.

What can we do if we have the I am not OK life position? Try techniques for increasing the frequency of get-on with encounters. Using these techniques will result in more "I am OK and You are OK" encounters. These techniques at first are experienced as "mechanical" vs emotional style "real" activities. It is recommended to a person (Ernst, 2008a):

- "Give more frequent thank you's to more people. In order to secure (receive/get) more (reciprocated) OK's coming back to you. Often the particular person carrying out the exercise "mechanical style" says "I feel like a phony" or "That's being insincere, isn't it?" The person committed to getting well, often reports a few days later: "I feel OK now when I am giving these thank-you's, especially when I see the other person warming up back to me. It works!"
- "Give a Named Hello to 15 people a day," (e.g. Hi John).
- "Make a (name) Seating Diagram of meetings,"
- "Talk with a friend for 20 to 30 seconds, every once in awhile."

1.3 Biological and social determinants of human psyche development

Determinants of human psyche can be:

- Biological: CNS-the central nervous system, endocrine glands, hereditary factors (heritable genetic), individual specificities, organism condition, needs (even biological)
- Social: Family, school, work, social group, culture, media...

Here you can see how different theories vary in its view on personality.



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Theoretical Approach and Major Theorists	Conscious Versus Unconscious Determinants of Personality	Nature (Hereditary Factors) Versus Nurture (Environmental Factors)	Free Will Versus Determinism	Stability Versus Modifiability
Psychodynamic (Freud, Jung, Horney, Adler)	Emphasizes the unconscious	Stresses innate, inherited structure of personality while emphasizing importance of childhood experience	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Emphasizes the stability of characteristics throughout a person's life
Trait (Allport, Cattell, Eysenck)	Disregards both conscious and unconscious	Approaches vary	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Emphasizes the stability of characteristics throughout a person's life
Learning (Skinner, Bandura)	Disregards both conscious and unconscious	Focuses on the environment	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Stresses that personality remains flexible and resilient throughout one's life
Biological and Evolutionary (Tellegen)	Disregards both conscious and unconscious	Stresses the innate, inherited determinants of personality	Stresses determinism, the view that behavior is directed and caused by factors outside one's control	Emphasizes the stability of characteristics throughout a person's life
Humanistic (Rogers, Maslow)	Stresses the conscious more than unconscious	Stresses the interaction between both nature and nurture	Stresses the freedom of individuals to make their own choices	Stresses that personality remains flexible and resilient throughout one's life

Image 2 - Personality and different theories (Feldman, 2011)

1.4 Structure of personality

Structure of personality can be classified into (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- What a man can – Abilities of a man (intellect, knowledge, skills, dexterity, aptitude, talent)
- What a man wants - motivation
- What a man is – temperament, character, attitudes

In other words, the structure of personality is created by abilities (intellect, knowledge, skills, dexterity, aptitude, talent), motivation, temperament, character.

1.4.1 Abilities

"Skills represent a wide range of different personality assumptions necessary for successful performance of certain activities." We can distinguish a) general abilities that can be applied in a wide variety of activities and b) special abilities that apply to certain activities only (e.g. playing a musical instrument).

Other concepts that include the answer to the question "what a man can?" Also include (Mikuláščík, 2007):



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- knowledge - acquired sets of ideas and concepts,
- skills - the practical habits that we receive through training and practice,
- hand-skills - fine motor skills (small finger movements),
- dexterity - gross motor skills (whole body),
- aptitude - innate gifts,
- talent - a set of significant skills
- competences - a set of abilities, knowledge, skills, hand-skills and dexterity necessary to perform particular, specific, most often professional activities.

Abilities are predetermined up to 60 % (Mikuláščík, 2007).

Another criterion of division allows to specify abilities into: perceptive abilities, memory, imaginary, attention, thought, manual skills, psychomotor skills, creativity, verbal abilities, numerical abilities, artistic abilities (Mikuláščík, 2007).

1.4.2 Motivation

Motivation involves the biological, emotional, social, and cognitive forces that activate behavior. "The term motivation refers to factors that activate, direct, and sustain goal-directed behavior... Motives are the 'whys' of behavior, the needs or wants that drive behavior and explain what we do. We don't actually observe a motive; rather, we infer that one exists based on the behavior we observe (Nevid, 2012).

Motivation is the crucial element in setting and attaining one's objectives. Research shows you can influence your own levels of motivation and self-control (*Motivation*, n.d.). Motivation might be (*Types of Motivation—Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation*, n.d.):

- extrinsic, where a person is inspired by outside forces—other people or things that transpire. Extrinsic motivation is external in nature; it means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from outside. Our desires to perform a task are controlled by an outside source. Note that even though the stimuli are coming from outside, the result of performing the task will still be rewarding for the individual performing the task. The most well-known and the most debated motivation is money. Here are some other examples: employee of the month award, benefit package, bonuses, organized activities





- intrinsic, where the inspiration comes from within a person. Intrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from within. The individual has the desire to perform a specific task, because its results are in accordance with his/her belief system or fulfills a desire and therefore importance is attached to it. High achievers, who have outsized stores of motivation, readily feed their needs of a meaningful life. Our deep-rooted desires have the highest motivational power. Here are some examples be (*Types of Motivation—Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation*, n.d.):
 - Acceptance: We all need to feel that we, as well as our decisions, are accepted by our co-workers.
 - Curiosity: We all have the desire to be in the know.
 - Honor: We all need to respect the rules and to be ethical.
 - Independence: We all need to feel we are unique.
 - Order: We all need to be organized.
 - Power: We all have the desire to be able to have influence.
 - Social contact: We all need to have some social interactions.
 - Social Status: We all have the desire to feel important.

In psychology, motivation is a very broad topic. Now we are going to see 5 different approaches to explain motivation (*Motivation in psychology*, 2015):

- The instinct approach - Animals, including humans are born with a set of behaviours that steer us to act a certain way so that we could produce certain ends. These are called instincts. Some of these instincts are essential to our survival. This approach suggests that we are born to be motivated. However, there are many questions that this approach cannot answer, e.g. what and how many instincts exist (*Motivation in psychology*, 2015).
- The drive-reduction approach - This approach suggests that our body has a tendency to act in such a way that a steady internal state is maintained. This tendency is called homeostasis. For example, if you are hungry, you are motivated to look for food to reduce your hunger drive. There are 2 types of drives: 1) Primary drives – these are related to our biological needs, e.g. hunger, thirst, etc. 2) Secondary drives – these





are related to our prior experience and learning, e.g. achievement (*Motivation in psychology*, 2015).

- The arousal approach - This approach came about because there were situations which the drive-reduction approach could not explain. For example, who do thrill-seekers bungee jump? Rather than trying to reduce a drive, these thrill-seekers are motivated to maintain or increase excitement. The arousal approach to motivation suggests that if our excitement level is too high, we try to reduce it. If our excitement level is too low, we try to increase it by seeking stimulation (*Motivation in psychology*, 2015).
- The incentive approach - Simply, we are motivated to get what we want. For example, students want good grades so they study hard (*Motivation in psychology*, 2015).
- The cognitive approach - The cognitive approach to motivation suggests that we are motivated by our thoughts, expectations and goals. There are 2 types of motivations: 1) Intrinsic motivation - We do things because we enjoy doing them. For example, we exercise because it feels good to exercise. 2) Extrinsic motivation - We do things because of the tangible rewards, e.g. good grades, money, etc. For example, we exercise because we want to lose weight (*Motivation in psychology*, 2015).

We should be highly motivated if we get paid to do what we love, right? This is not necessarily true because extrinsic motivation can sometimes undermine intrinsic motivation. In one study, children who really enjoyed drawing were either promised or not promised a reward for their drawing. It was found that children who were promised a reward were less likely to draw again later (Lepper et al., 1973).

1.4.3 Temperament

Temperament is characterized as personality disposition and readiness for emotional reactions or as a dynamic aspect of personality. Temperament characteristics can be divided into four groups (Mikulášťík, 2007):

- The overall focus of mental phenomena (orientation towards people - avoiding people, masculinity - femininity)
- Psychic excitability (easy excitability - not easy excitability, deep excitability - not deep excitability, slowness - speed)



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- Resilience of psychic phenomena (stability - lability of nerve processes, nerve weakness – toleration of frustration)
- Permanence of psychological processes (changeability – rigidity, precision - inaccuracy)

Temperament theory has its roots in the ancient medical concept. The Greek physician Hippocrates (460–370 BC) believed certain human moods, emotions and behaviours were caused by an excess or lack of body fluids (called "humors"): blood, yellow bile, black bile, and phlegm. Different people have different proportions of these fluids; the predominance of one fluid defines one's temperament.

Galen (AD 129 – c. 200) developed the first typology of temperament in his dissertation *De temperamentis*, and searched for physiological reasons for different behaviours in humans. The Four temperament theory suggests that there are four fundamental personality types. These temperamental categories Galen named "sanguine", "choleric", "melancholic" and "phlegmatic" after the bodily humors. Here are the four temperaments and their predominant humors (bodily fluids) (Merenda, 1987): Sanguine (blood), Choleric (yellow bile), Phlegmatic (phlegm), Melancholic (black bile). Most formulations include the possibility of mixtures between the types where an individual's personality types overlap and they share two or more temperaments (Merenda, 1987).

Temperament is genetically based, inborn, there from birth or even before. That does not mean that a temperament theory says we don't also have aspects of our personality that are learned. They just have a focus on "nature," and leave "nurture" to other theorists (Boeree, 2006).

Later, W. Wundt and Hans J. Eysenck developed this theory. Eysenck determined that personality is composed of three main elements: Extroversion, Neuroticism, and Psychoticism.

He characterized these temperament types as following (Boeree, 2006):

- The sanguine type is cheerful and optimistic, pleasant to be with, comfortable with his or her work. Physically, these people are characterized by a healthful look, including rosy cheeks.



- The choleric type is characterized by a quick, hot temper, often an aggressive nature. Physical features of the choleric person include a yellowish complexion and tense muscles.
- The phlegmatic type is characterized by slowness, laziness, and dullness. Physically, these people are thought to be kind of cold, and shaking hands with one is like shaking hands with a fish.
- The melancholy temperament people tend to be sad, even depressed, and take a pessimistic view of the world.

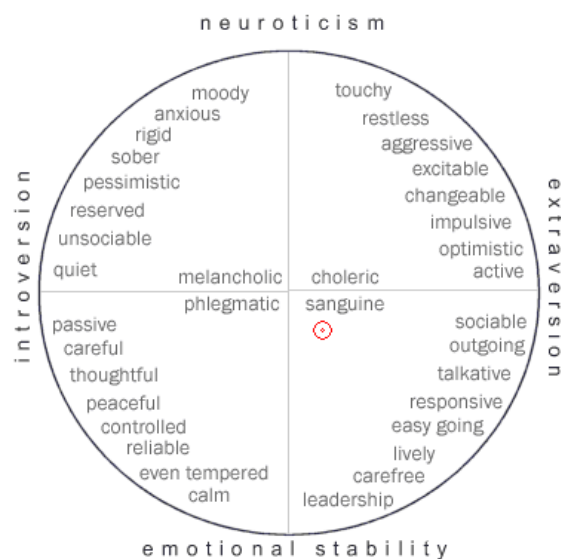


Image 3 - Eysenck's characteristics of temperament types
(Eysenck Personality Test, n.d.)

Do you want to check what temperament type is you? Test yourself at <https://similar-minds.com/cgi-bin/eysenck.pl> or at <https://psychologia.co/four-temperaments-test/>.

1.4.4 Character

Character is the system of relatively stable mental qualities of man that manifest in his/her relationships with reality, including the relation of man to him/herself (Porvazník et al., 2008). The character expresses the relation to reality. This relationship can be divided into 4 areas (Mikuláščík, 2007):



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- Relationship to yourself (self-confidence, the level of self-esteem, the level of aspiration, modesty, the characteristics of will, decisiveness, courage, relationship to freedom ...)
- Relationship to people (friendship, cooperativity, dedication, sincerity, altruism, conflictness, expansiveness ...)
- Relation to work (thoroughness, sense of duty, diligence, initiative ...)
- Total world-view orientation and attitudes (relation to nature, ecological sense, esthetic sense, sense of truth, sense of justice, searching and finding the content and meaningfulness of life, the relation to freedom, political orientation, pacifism, religiosity ...)

Character is not innate but learned. The character of man is created primarily by upbringing and other influences that act on the individual in the social environment. Sustained character traits are formed by drill, and training. The use of rewards and punishments plays a role as well. The origin of the character can be found in two processes (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- Assimilation - the process of taking in and fully understanding information or ideas. I'm getting something out of my mind.
- Accomodation - the process of adapting or adjusting to someone or something, socialization, adaptation

Character takes far longer to read. It includes traits that reveal themselves only in specific—and often uncommon—circumstances, traits like honesty, virtue, and kindness. Ironically, research has shown that personality traits are determined largely by heredity and are mostly immutable. The arguably more important traits of character, on the other hand, are more malleable—though, we should note, not without great effort. Character traits are based on beliefs (e.g., that honesty and treating others well is important—or not), and though beliefs can be changed, it's far harder than most realize (Lickerman, 2011).

Campbell and Bond state (McClelland, 1982) there are four major questions to be addressed when focusing on character development: What is good character? What causes or prevents it? How can it be measured so that efforts at improvement can have corrective feedback? How can it be best developed?





Good character is defined in terms of one's actions. Character development traditionally has focused on those traits or values appropriate for the industrial age such as obedience to authority, work ethic, working in group under supervision, etc. However, modern education must promote character based on values appropriate for the information age: truthfulness, honesty, integrity, individual responsibility, humility, wisdom, justice, steadfastness, dependability, etc. (Huitt, 1997).

In terms of what influences character development, Campbell and Bond propose (McClelland, 1982) the following as major factors in the moral development and behavior of youth (Huitt, 2004):

1. heredity
2. early childhood experience
3. modeling by important adults and older youth
4. peer influence
5. the general physical and social environment
6. the communications media
7. what is taught in the schools and other institutions
8. specific situations and roles that elicit corresponding behavior.



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2 SELFMANAGEMENT

2.1 Concepts of selfmanagement

Self-management refers to the ability of an individual to regulate their emotions and resulting behaviors in ways that society considers acceptable. This includes how the individual copes with unmet wants or needs, perseveres when faced with obstacles, and sets goals for him-/herself (Bandy & Moore, 2010).

Self-management is concerned with how you control and manage yourself and your emotions, inner resources, and abilities. It also includes your ability to manage your impulses. Self-management also includes an element of taking responsibility for your own actions, and ensuring that what you do matches with your personal values (*Self-Regulation / Self-Management*, n.d.).

Self-management consists of five elements (*Self-Regulation / Self-Management*, n.d.):

- **Self-control** is not masking or hiding your emotions but recognising and controlling them appropriately. This means not making rash decisions or over-reacting to a situation but remaining calm and rational. It leads to being able to make balanced decisions based on what is really important, and not just how we feel at the time. People who have good self-control generally remain calm even when stressed. They are able to think clearly under pressure and still make good decisions. Self-control usually manifests itself as the absence of visible emotion (*Self-Regulation / Self-Management*, n.d.).
- **Trustworthiness** is your ability to maintain your integrity, which means ensuring that what you do is consistent with your personal values. People who are trustworthy act ethically. They build trust through their personal actions, and the way that their actions are consistent with their espoused values. They are also prepared to confront unethical actions and take a stand when necessary, even if that stand will be unpopular.
- **Conscientiousness** is taking responsibility for your own personal performance, and making sure that it matches up to your ability and your values.



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- **Adaptability** was defined as being flexible in responding to change. Change is difficult for many of us to manage. Anyone who has had any close contact with children will recognise that change is unsettling and stressful for small children, and that being able to manage it is very much a learned skill. Without careful control and development of our personal adaptability and resilience, personal change can remain very stressful into adulthood. However, by understanding what is happening, and developing our ability to manage change, it is possible to greet change as an adventure, rather than as a problem.
- **Innovation** is being open to novel ideas and approaches.

According to Porvazník, Selfmanagement consists of 3 areas (Porvazník et al., 2008):

- Selfawareness and selfacceptation
- Self-reliance (self-planning, self-organization, self-control)
- Self-development

2.2 Selfawareness and selfacceptation

“The most difficult thing in life is to know yourself.” Thales

Self awareness is the ability to be aware of who we are as individuals – my likes/dislikes, strengths/weaknesses, value system, past experiences, patterns of behavior, self esteem level, emotional reactions, passions, etc. In other words, I know that I am particularly sensitive when people speak in a derogatory way regarding or towards the mentally ill. It is my hot button issue and I know that it is important to me to defend this population, I know that historically I have overreacted in these instances, I also know that if I am not careful my emotions can quickly escalate and will lead to a reaction that I will possibly regret after it has subsided (Goleman, 2009).

As a manager, you don't have to know everything. We learn a lot from the people we work with—by feedback, and by example. Every interaction can be a learning moment. It's important to ask yourself questions: How did I make others feel in that meeting? Did I facilitate constructive conversation? How did others perceive me? In your interactions with others, being emotionally and socially aware can help you build and strengthen relationships (Stine, 2016).



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Write down the characteristics of a manager you admire the most. Which qualities are on your list? Listening, motivating, caring, supportive, well-organized, responsive, ...? It's a long and inspiring list. Then turn the mirror on yourself. How do you become that person? (Stine, 2016).

Self-awareness is essential for personality development. An experiment that investigated the relation between the achievement and receiving positive assessment from surroundings was conducted (Kim & Lee, 2019), (Hurst et al., 1994). There people who received a positive assessment from their surroundings about their abilities and people who received negative ratings were compared. It turned out that people who received positive assessment from their surroundings about their abilities had higher performance, they performed better. It is important to have confidence in your own abilities, but that confidence should also be objective. If we have overconfidence, we do not feel the need to develop ourselves as those who are aware of their weaknesses. Self-awareness and self-acceptance is a challenging process because, in addition to our strengths, it is necessary to realize our weaknesses.

There are many techniques to know and realize who I am. The most well-known are (Mikulášťík, 2007):

- regular reflection - This is the assessment of the day and analyzing our behavior and comparing with the behavior that we intend in the given situation (Hurst et al., 1994).
- diary - This is a written articulation of your own behavior, feelings and values. Written form allows us to see the development.
- knowing yourself through the perception of other people - It is advisable to ask people who love us for their opinion about us. Their criticism and praise will be objective with the aim to help us. This technique is beneficial because in some situations we do not realize that others can evaluate some our behaviour negatively (Mikulášťík, 2007).

2.3 Self-reliance

“Let him who would move the world first move himself.” Socrates

The next step of selfmanagement is self-reliance which consists of three parts:

- self-planning,



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- self-organization
- self-control.

Self-planning is the setting of personal goals. The goals set must be measurable to see that we have achieved the goal. It is important to set real goals that should not be exaggerated or too blue. At both extremes, the goal is not motivational. If the target is too high and can not be achieved, disappointment from failure can deter us from doing other activities. If the target is too easily achievable, we do not respect its fulfillment, which again has a demotivating effect. Goals are important to write on paper so that the text can not be adjusted to fit (Čakrt, 2009). The more specifically and clearly the goal is formulated, the easier you can accomplish it (Bishop, 2003).

We should be aware of the steps we need to promote in order to achieve this goal and determine the timeframe in which we want to achieve that goal. The consequence of aimlessness and randomness is that we are not happy about the achievements, because many times we do not know that we have achieved a goal, there are feelings of remark and paralyzing activity due to the absence of other goals (Čakrt, 2009).

2.4 Self-development

"Live as if you were to die tomorrow. Learn as if you were to live forever." Mahatma Gandhi

"Don't limit yourself. Many people limit themselves to what they think they can do. You can go as far as your mind lets you. What you believe, remember, you can achieve." Mary Kay Ash

Cultivate a positive mind-set which is the seed for success (*7 golden steps to create a success mind-set*, 2020):

- Decide to change.
- Believe that positive changes are possible for you –nobody was born with self-esteem or self-image, they are learnt. Any learnt negative mind-set can be unlearned through belief and repletion.
- Feed your mind constantly with positive messages – listen to motivational audio or videos. Read motivational books. Attend motivational seminars and workshops.



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- Hang out with positive people - the quality of your friends sets the height of your success in life. Spend time with people whose goals, future and accomplishments you respect and desire.
- Create positive daily activities – this is the link to the fulfilment of your goals that you set. It is what you do daily that connects you to the future you have imagined. Write down at least five positive activities for each goal that you will do daily, whether you feel like it or not.

Improve your concentration by following these tips:

- Practice meditation. Multiple studies have shown that meditation can be a good brain training tool to improve concentration skills (Pascale, 2015).
- Be proactive, not passive: If talking with someone: ask questions. If reading a book, ask yourself how you would summarize what you just read (Pascale, 2015).
- Do not multitask, since this will divide your attention. Attention is limited, so when you try to do several things at once you concentrate less on each individual task and, worse, you waste some of your limited attention and processing power in switching from one thing to the next and then back (there is a clear “transaction cost” when multi-tasking) (Pascale, 2015).

Build your self-discipline. People with self-discipline are more content, satisfied and happy. Study (Tangney et al., 2004) showed that people with higher level of self-control have higher self-esteem, less binge eating and alcohol abuse, better relationships and interpersonal skills, and more optimal emotional responses. You can build your self-discipline by (Kennedy, 2019):

- Get motivated. Simon Sinek talks about the power of why. Knowing your “why” provides a compelling intrinsic motivation. It fuels the fire and you’re much likely to stay focused.
- Create a goal, challenge or deadline
- Remove temptations. Research has proven that our environment affects our choices.
- Start Small. How do you eat an elephant? One bite at a time. Change is hard and our brains are wired to return to what feels comfortable and predictable. Therefore, big changes can be really hard. But if you start slow, you can build momentum without



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getting overwhelmed. If you want to start walking 30 minutes a day, five days a week, start with five minutes a day. If you feel like continuing after five minutes, go for it! If you want to start eating better, identify one change you can make in your diet. Often when our mind thinks it's going to be easy, it allows us to get started...and then you can use that momentum to keep going.

- Create habits and rituals. Get started. It doesn't matter how small the action is as long as you're going in the right direction. Small changes eventually lead to big results.
- Put the big rocks in first. Get started early in the day and do the most important things first before you run out of mental willpower, time and energy. If you do the most important things first, you won't get distracted by all the little items that can end up mindlessly filling your day (Covey, 2013). Studies of American Psychological Association have shown that willpower is a limited resource.
- Be nice to yourself. You made a mistake? It's over. It's a lesson. Pick yourself up, acknowledge the lesson and move on. Celebrate your wins and successes, no matter how small.



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3 MENTAL HYGIENNE

3.1 What is mental hygiene

“It is an interdisciplinary subject covering the practical issues of our lives, focusing on the preservation of physical and mental health despite the adverse impacts of many sub-stimuli and situations” (Bedrnová, 2009).

The role of mental hygiene in human life is set by the fact that human life consists of two interconnected levels - body and soul. Their interdependence clearly confirms the fact that mental and physical health is a closed system where one without the other cannot function in the long term.

3.2 Give your brain what it needs

A healthy brain requires three things: the right nutrition, exercise, and to get regular mental workouts. Your brain loves monounsaturated fats, like those found in avocado, nuts, olive oil, fish and chia seeds (*3 things your brain loves*, 2018).

Your brain loves exercise, sweating a little every week. Exercise increases blood flow and oxygen to the brain, and helps create and strengthen neural pathways, and provides huge benefits to cognitive function later in life. Two longitudinal studies showed that subjects who exercised regularly performed better at verbal memory, psychomotor speeds, and executive function tests, as well as having less risk of developing dementia (*3 things your brain loves*, 2018).

Your brain loves challenges. Challenges, like puzzles, learning new skills or receiving and using new information, are like exercises for the brain. When confronted with new stimuli, your brain has to use or create neural pathways to figure out the best, most efficient way to solve the problem. Unfortunately, your brain plays by a strict ‘use it or lose it’ rule (*3 things your brain loves*, 2018).

3.3 Prevent stress

Longer time of performing some activity is naturally followed by tiredness and fatigue, which indicates a temporary deterioration of the human condition and the need for rest.



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When it comes to physical tiredness, a passive rest in the form of sleep is more appropriate. In the case of mental tiredness, we regenerate the forces by active relaxation covering various activities.

It would be difficult to find a generally valid guide to good rest, but according to Bedrnová there are at least some principles (Bedrnová, 2009):

- relax at the first signs of tiredness,
- relax activities differ to those normally carried out,
- prefer relaxation with one's own activity rather than just involvement of the senses,
- part of the relax activities realize separated (not with the core family),
- change of life stereotype including ways of relax,
- at least once a year relax for 14 continuous days,
- enjoy leisure activities and enjoy them with a pleasure.

The following long-term habits can help you to better manage general stress (Scott, 2019):

- Exercise regularly to release stress.
- Healthy diet - your body will function better.
- Cultivate supportive relationships - Having a solid support is a crucial coping mechanism.
- Meditate regularly - While quick meditations are great for dealing with acute stress, a regular meditation practice will help build your overall resilience to stress.
- Listen to music - Music can act as a wonderful, stress-reducing backdrop to everyday tasks.

Yoga, diverse relaxation techniques, or autogenous training can strengthen resistance to increased stress (Machač, 1984). In general, these methods allow individuals to free themselves from the external stress reality and focus on their inner rhythm, peace and harmony.

3.4 Build mental toughness and resilience

There is nothing that you can't do or become when you have a phenomenally strong mindset (Mayberry, 2017). If you feel mentally defeated, chances are small that you will ever get to





where you want to go. A big part of having that focused mindset is being able to keep pressing forward when the going gets extremely tough, staying positive when negativity attacks and persisting over and over again until you finally reach your destination.

That's the true definition of mental toughness: displaying an enormous amount of belief, fight and dedication toward a goal that you are passionately pursuing. If you take a look at any category of high achievers regardless of industry, you will quickly realize that they have displayed an extraordinary level of mental toughness to get to where they are (Mayberry, 2017).

The University of Miami study (Mayberry, 2017) showed that one of the best ways to build mental toughness is through practicing mindfulness on a consistent basis. Mindfulness is all about directing your energy and thoughts on the present moment without any judgment. Practice mindfulness daily. Mindfulness calms your mind down and that calm, in turn, equips you with the strength and peace of mind to keep moving forward even in the face of extreme difficulty. Being in tune with the present moment and living fully right where you currently are helps diminish the fear that holds many people back and provides them with the clarity to focus on what's most important (Mayberry, 2017). You can use the Calm app. It has a variety of different breathing exercises and body scans that the app walks you through step by step.

Another tip what to do to build mental toughness is to step out of your comfort zone daily. This one may be a lot more difficult than practicing mindfulness, but making it a daily habit to step out of your comfort zone builds an incredible amount of strength and expand your capacity for mental toughness. The more we seek to step out of our own comfort zone, no matter how uncomfortable it may be at the time, the stronger and better we feel. When you plan your day the night before, ask yourself how can you step out of your comfort zone for that particular day. You can't build mental toughness and become resilient by always playing it safe and operating only out of the confines of your comfort zone (Mayberry, 2017).



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4 CONFLICTS

4.1 Conflicts - consequences, types and stages

Conflict can be defined as disagreement or incompatibility between principles, interests or opinions. It is the state of opposition, antagonism or struggle. (Wallensteen, 2011) defines conflict as a situation in which two or more parties strive to acquire the same scarce resources at the same time.

Conflicts are often perceived as negative only. Negative consequences of conflict are following: Psychic disorders, physical difficulties, distance in relations. Conflict may seem to be a problem to some, but this isn't how conflict should be perceived. It is an opportunity for growth. Conflicts can have also very positive consequences (Mikuláščík, 2007):

- Strengthening relations with higher tolerance
- Positive development – new is born in conflict
- More respect from others and more self-esteem after resolved conflict
- Strengthening the creative spirit
- Some people need tension as stimulation for better performance

Conflicts can be classified into the following types (Mikuláščík, 2007), (Evans, 2013):

- **Intrapersonal conflict** occurs within an individual, in the person's mind - individual's thoughts, values, principles and emotions. Interpersonal conflict may come in different scales, from the simpler mundane ones like deciding whether or not to go organic for lunch to ones that can affect major decisions such as choosing a career path.
- **Interpersonal conflict** refers to a conflict between two individuals. This occurs due to how people are different from one another.
- **Intragroup conflict** is a type of conflict that happens among individuals within a team. The incompatibilities and misunderstandings arise from interpersonal disagreements (e.g. team members have different personalities which may lead to tension) or differences in views and ideas (e.g. in a presentation, members of the team might find the notions presented by the one presiding to be erroneous due to their





differences in opinion). Within a team, conflict can be helpful in coming up with decisions which will eventually allow them to reach their objectives as a team. However, if the degree of conflict is high, it can disrupt harmony among the members.

- **Intergroup conflict** takes place when a misunderstanding arises among different teams within an organization. Eg., the sales department of an organization can come in conflict with the customer support department. This is due to the varied sets of goals and interests of these different groups.
- **International conflict**

Pondy 's model of organizational conflict has following stages (Pondy, 1967):

1. Latent conflict - Participants not yet aware of conflict
2. Perceived conflict - Participants aware a conflict exists
3. Felt conflict - Stress and anxiety
4. Manifest conflict - Conflict is open and can be observed
5. Conflict aftermath - The situation where a particular problem may have been resolved but the potential for conflict still exists.

Frustration is a barrier on a way to a goal. Conflict usually causes frustration. People react to frustration in various ways (Mikulášťík, 2007):

- increasing efforts
- projection
- aggression and anger
- escape into fantasy
- depressive behavior
- regression
- sublimation
- denial
- rationalization
- physical escape
- the "sour grape" mechanism
- redemption of ourself

Here is a typology of people according to their reaction to frustrational situation (Mikulášťík):

- Extrapunitive type (they are looking for the guilt rather in the people around, not in themselves or in objective causes)





- Intropunitive type (they are looking for the guilt rather in themselves, not in the people around or in objective causes)
- Inpunitive type (they are looking for the reasons in objective causes)

The ability to handle the frustration is called frustrational tolerance (Rosenzweig, 1945). Different people have different frustration tolerance. Managers must have a high level of frustrational tolerance. When people are frustrated, they are probably using their emotional hemisphere and stop using their rationality, composure, social thoughtfulness and sensitivity, emotional stability. They have the tendency to exaggerate, react affectionately, in short-circuit, or within their stereotypes. Frustrated person is emotionally unstable and is not able to solve problems rationally.

4.2 Strategies of conflict solving

The way of conflict solution is dependent on the individual style of partner's action. Bedrnová & Nový (2007, 255-256) wrote about five strategies of conflict solving:

- Escape strategy: A person tries to avoid conflicts and stay neutral. This is applied if the dispute is insignificant, the individual does not have enough information or has no power to change. Permanent use of this solution leads to unfavorable assessment by others.
- Win-loss, confrontational, coercive, repressive strategy: The individual asserts himself/herself only, has no interest in cooperating with partner. The only optimal solution is a his/her victory at the cost of pressure, dominance, and extract.
- Adaptation, adaptational strategy: A person subordinates to partner's requirement, acts weakly and submissively. In the long run, this strategy is totally ineffective, but in the short term, it often has its merits, for example if there is a risk of emotional conflict or if it is necessary to keep harmony at all cost.
- Win-win, agreement, strategy of cooperation: A co-operative way that brings benefits to both sides. The result is called consensus. This strategy is very effective and mature.





- Compromise strategy: The solution is based on the principle of give-take. Each side gives something to get something else. Compromise is suitable mostly for situations where mutual benefit can not be achieved.

4.3 Conflict prevention and rules for conflict solving

Prevention of conflicts has two components. Controlling my own emotions (not allow others to drag myself in the argue) and not provoking emotional response of the other (Furnham, 2005). From the psychologic point of view, all communication needs to sound collaborative and positive. Following pieces of advice can help (*Negative Words to Avoid in Writing*, 2018), (Bedrnová, 2009):

- Let's express approval and agreement anytime it is possible. If someone agrees with us, it is not possible to argue with him/her.
- Let's separate opinions from their authors – let's oppose against unacceptable opinions with respect the partner.
- Focus on the positive and use positive words. Instead of saying: "The project cannot be completed because some people are not doing their jobs. " You can say: "We must get everyone's data by Thursday to complete the project on time."
- Include positive words: benefit, it is best to, issue, matter, progress, success, valuable
- Avoid interdict. Tell the partner what to do, rather than what not to do. Instead of saying: "Don't use an A-12 form when reporting absences. " You can say: "Use form A-24 when you report absences. "
- Don't demand, rather start sentences with "I would like."
- Soften bad news by telling them sensitively.

It is not possible to avoid conflicts at all. But it is necessary to avoid hostile emotions and minimize potential mental damage. Here are some fair-play rules for conflict solving (Mikuláščík, 2007), (Whetten & Cameron, 2011): Everyone has the right to say their opinion. Everyone has the right to the same time-length in conversation. We will listen carefully to the other's opinion to the end, and we will not interrupt his/her speech. There should be no shouting, no screaming. We do not offend others, we do not mock others, do not use irony. We use logical reasoning and we still keep a rational overlook. We are only talking about





the current issue, what happened right now. We do not start to speak about old problems. At the end of the dialogue, it is good to start with self-criticism and to pick up some positive moments of the opponent's view. Avoid black-or-white thinking. Behave impartially. When there are ambiguities, try to overcome them. Redirect our attack from person to the problem. Respond rather defensively than offensive. Ask ourselves whether the conflict is based on facts or on misinterpretation or illusions. Analyze the interests of the group members and focus efforts to meet these interests. Watch interpersonal differences in evaluation, predictions, in risk behaviors. Look for the ways how to handle opposing positions. Let's try to restore contact, try to maintain cooperation. It is recommended to lead an internal dialogue in which we compare all pros and cons, no matter if they were said by the opponent or myself. The way of communication starts so that we do not attack the opponent but we begin with speaking about our feelings. After the conflict, do not return with our emotions to a conflict situation. Let's take it as experience. Try to change your mind in the sense that we perceive our opponent not as a man who is not right, but rather as "what can I learn new from his/her concept, what can I enrich from his/her opinion or attitude?" Don't search for a initiator of the conflict.

4.4 Assertiveness

Assertiveness is an honest, direct, and appropriate expression of one's feelings, thoughts, and beliefs. Assertiveness is respect for yourself and others, honest expressing your thoughts, feelings, and beliefs, effective influencing, listening, and negotiating with others (Whetten & Cameron, 2011).

Person, who behaves assertively, can say what he/she wants, how he/she sees the situation, what he/she thinks about the situation and how he/she feels about the situation. One has positive behaviour to other people and adequate self-confidence. One can listen to others and is able to change his/her opinion under pressure of arguments. Assertive behaviour is calm, the person seems to be relaxed.

There are several techniques of assertive behavior, here just one technique will be explained.

„I-statement“ - How do you feel when somebody tells you: "You are always interrupting me."? And how do you feel when the person says: "I would like to finish my sentence without being interrupted."? The application of I-statements helps to minimize negative reactions.





Assertive I-statement does not blame and does not attack. Using "I" rather than "you", "we" or "one" puts the responsibility to the speaker rather than trying to transmit the responsibility on the other person. "I have noticed that you have been arriving 20 minutes late for work recently." instead of: "You are always late for work."

4.5 Handling aggression and anger

Anger is a defensive precaution. Increased voice power is often a signal that arguments are missing. Anger often demonstrates not only the speakers power, but also one's weakness and insecurity. To sit down on a chair, or better in an armchair has a calming effect. Give time and place for releasing negative emotions. Do not agree with the script of angry partner – he/she expects counter-attack or defense (apology, unclear buts, assumption of others guilt). Control your emotions. Search for common interests and point it out. (Whetten & Cameron, 2011)

Not to react and let the attack without response – may be helpful but you risk escalating of anger. "Maybe it wasn't enough for you, I must stiffen up!" Start every sentence with saying that you respect partner's emotions - sense his/her feelings and understand his/her anger. This can calm him/her down: "I see, that you are annoyed, I understand your feelings." (Plamínek, 1994)

Aim attention to objective solution. "I am afraid, we can't solve this problem here, let us concentrate at least to this question..." If nothing works, ask for a break or request to remit the motion – give time to make the situation clear and release the stress: "To conclude your reaction, this problem is much more complicated than I imagined, I need to take a look at it once more, could we continue in 30 minutes (or arrange another meeting)?" (Křivohlavý, 2002)

Admit impossibility and inability to solve the problem because of strong anger. "I cannot shout you down, I cannot make myself be heard over you." Leave without feeling guilty and blame with suggestion of later solution: "I cannot get to word, I cannot help you, I do best if I leave. I would like to get to that later." (Fehlau, 2003)





4.6 Mediation

Mediation is a form of conflict solving through a mediator who helps to solve problems between conflicting sides decently and effectively so that both sides are fully responsible for the agreed solutions. Advantages of mediation are (in comparison with e.g. judicial court order) that it doesn't take too long, it is not as much expensive, it can be kept in secret, and the solution is satisfactory for both partners (Holá, 2003), (Riskin et al., 1997).

Example of conflict suitable for mediation: Two members of management attack each other and highlight each others mistakes. This causes that they don't concentrate on their work and the company is less successful in the market. The top management doesn't want to fire either one of them because both are excellent at their work. That is why the members of top management want them to solve the conflict. In such case mediation is very common. The company will choose a mediator but the mediator must be external. (It cannot be e.g. boss of these managers or other person from the same company.) (Holá, 2003).

Mediator is a negotiation specialist who forms conditions for decent, impartial, and effective process and opens space for collective talks, for new points of view of the problem and of the deal. Mediators guarantee discreteness of whole process of mediation (Holá, 2003).



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5 WORK AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

5.1 Stress

Eustress - good form of stress; low to moderate in intensity; associated with positive feelings, as well as optimal health and performance (Spielman, 2014).

Distress - bad form of stress; usually high in intensity; often leads to exhaustion, fatigue, feeling burned out; associated with erosions in performance and health (Spielman, 2014).

In area of eustress, as the stress level increases from low to moderate, so does performance. At the optimal level of stress (the peak of the curve), performance has reached its peak. If stress exceeds the optimal level, it will reach the distress area, where it will become excessive and debilitating, and performance will decline (Everly & Lating, 2012).

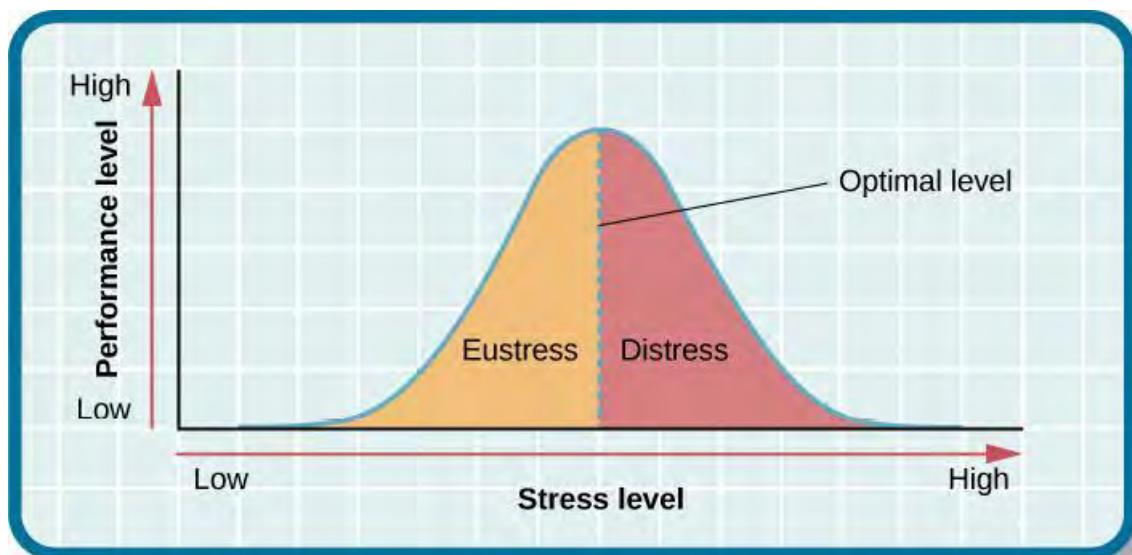


Image 4 - The relation between stress and performance (Spielman, 2014)

A stressor is anything that causes the release of stress hormones (Kaye et al., 2017). Whether chronic or acute, potential stressors come in many shapes and sizes (Spielman, 2014). But we can look at stress ingredients. Stress ingredients are (*Recipe for stress*, 2017):

- Novelty
- Unpredictability
- Threat to the Ego (your competence as a person is called into question)



- Sense of Control (you feel you have little or no control over the situation)

Being in situations that involve N.U.T.S. causes the release of stress hormones. Stress also weighs down on us in an additive way. More ingredients mean more stress (*Recipe for stress*, 2017).

There are two broad categories of stressors (*Stressors*, 2017), (Kaye et al., 2017):

- Physiological (or physical) stressors - put strain on our body (i.e.: very cold/hot temperatures, injury, chronic illness, or pain).
- Psychological stressors - events, situations, individuals, comments, or anything we interpret as negative or threatening (i.e.: not being able to find a babysitter for your sick child when you cannot take time off work)

Holmes and Rahe (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale - scale designed to measure stress for last 12 months. Many life events that most people would consider pleasant (e.g. holidays, retirement, marriage) are examples of eustress. They proposed that life events can add up over time, and that experiencing a cluster of stressful events increases one's risk of developing physical illnesses.

Type of situation	Level of stress in LCU
Death of a spouse	100
Divorce	73
Death of a close family member	63
Personal injury or illness	53
Marriage	50
Dismissal from work	47
Change in financial situation	38
Change to different line of work	36
Outstanding personal achievement	28
Beginning or ending school	26





Change in living conditions	25
Change in working hours or conditions	20
Change in residence	20
Change in schools	20
Change in social activities	18
Change in sleeping habits	16
Change in eating habits	15
Vacation	13
Minor violation of the law	11

Table 1: Stressors on the Social Readjustment Rating Scale
(Holmes & Rahe, 1967)

If you want to identify your stressors, do the test in (Kaye et al., 2017) page 25.

Main workplace stressors can be low salaries, long hours and excessive workloads, few opportunities for advancement, uninteresting work or lack of social support.

Mühlfeit cites main stress starters on workplace (Mühlfeit et al., 2017):

- Requirements (overloads)
- Control (lack of feedback)
- Relationships
- Changes (poor communication about changes, noneffective managing of change)
- Role (wrong choice of work)
- Support

Stressors have physical, chemical and mental responses inside of the body (Institute of Medicine et al., 2001). A recent study shows that physical office clutter could be an example of physical stressors in a workplace setting (Roster & Ferrari, 2019).





Principle of predictability - When individuals are informed about events before they occur, the magnitude of the stressor is less than when compared to individuals who were not informed of the stressor (Grillon et al., 2004). For example, an individual would prefer to know when they have a deadline ahead of time in order to prepare for it in advance, rather than find out about the deadline the day of. In knowing that there is a deadline ahead of time, the intensity of the stressor is smaller for the individual, as opposed to the magnitude of intensity for the other unfortunate individual who found out about the deadline the day of. When this was tested, psychologists found that when given the choice, individuals had a preference for the predictable stressors, rather than the unpredictable stressors (Lejuez et al., 2000).

Principle of control - The degree to which the stressor can be controlled plays a variable in how the person perceives stress (Deckers, 2018). Research has found that if an individual is able to take some control over the stressor, then the level of stress will be decreased. The individuals become increasingly anxious and distressed if they were unable to control their environment (Zvolensky et al., 2001). As an example, imagine an individual who detests baths in the Middle Ages, taking a bath. If the individual was forced to take the bath with no control over the temperature of the bath, then their anxiety and stress levels would be higher than if the individual was given some control over the environment (such as being able to control the temperature of the water).

Several factors determine the way our stress response system works and the amount of stress hormones we release. These include (*Recipe for stress*, 2017):

- Genetics
- Early life experiences
- Personality
- The environment

Čakrt emphasizes that each person is strongly influenced by the tendency to avoid everything that is far from its nature (Čakrt, 2009):

- Extraverts put aside things that require calm thinking and concentration. They rather start something new that comes to their minds when solving demanding task.
- Introverts avoid interaction with others especially with people they don't know.



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- Individuals with sensory perception have a problem with questions about the future. Any estimates, visions, concepts or strategies are not related to the present, they are intangible and inaccurate (probabilistic tolerance).
- Intuitive people reject uselessness as current operations focusing on the details here and now. They rather think about the future shape of the finished project.
- People with a predominance of thinking do not care about others' sensitivity, they don't care if they touch someone. On the contrary, they pay attention to analytical activities.
- People with predominance of feelings do not solve problems directly, they walk around and around, they postpone criticism and negative assessments of others as well as telling bad news. They seek connecting aspects that help and develop cooperation and team spirit.

An essential aspect of the fight against stress is the individual's resilience and its strengthening. There is the inborn predisposition of our personality to deal with stress. However, it is possible to work actively on our own resilience and thus to strengthen it considerably.

When presenting how to deal with stress we need to distinguish an acute stress situation, and prevention of long-term stress.

These stress relievers can help you to relax and more quickly recover from acute stress (Scott, 2019):

- Breathing exercises
- Cognitive reframing - learn to change the way you look at the situation to manage your stress levels.
- Progressive muscle relaxation
- Mini-meditation.

In acute stress situation following can help (Gregor, 1988), (Kaye et al., 2017):

- anti-stress breathing (regular, deep and focused);
- short physical relaxation;
- concentration on any emotionally neutral object;
- move away and stay alone for a while;



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- releasing the whole body in a deep bend
- practice other activity;
- enjoy relaxing music;
- perform a simple rational activity (count how many days you live);
- talk to a third non-participating person;
- anti-stress physical exercises.

In addition to methods that help in acute stress situation, there are a number of preventive techniques (Kaye et al., 2017), (Mühlfeit et al., 2017).

5.2 The psychology of change

When change is announced, the results can be significant, which means you should seek to manage the cognitive and behavioral changes from the very beginning (The Psychology of Change, 2019).

While it is the natural psychological and physiological reaction of humans to resist change, we are actually quite resilient. When supported through times of change, we can be wonderfully adaptive and successful. Change management requires “understanding how people experience change and what they need to change successfully. It also requires knowing what will help people make a successful transition: what messages do people need to hear when and from whom, when the optimal time to teach someone a new skill is, how to coach people to demonstrate new behaviors, and what makes changes “stick” in someone’s work.” (What is Change Management?, n.d.)

To understand how people experience change we need to know that natural human reaction to change has following phases (*Managing Change*, 2016):

- Shock
- Anger (Anxiety) – expressing emotions, I am scolding for the situation
- Resistance – I don't understand why, so I don't accept the change and resist the change
- Acceptance – I am seeking arguments in order to understand the situation and to accept the situation
- Hope, healing, help – I start to change





Shock - People react with shock or denial when they are newly introduced to change. This stage requires that stakeholders are provided with the historical and background information they need to comprehend the reasons for the change and the intended outcome. Communication is key here (*Managing Change*, 2016).

Anger - Shock can manifest into anger or anxiety once people realise the implications of change. Managers should keep in mind the objections or fears stakeholders may have and work on addressing them before they get out of hand. This stage requires that managers take action to mitigate the impact of the change on staff morale (*Managing Change*, 2016).

Resistance - A period of resistance may be experienced. Sometimes, business stakeholders do resist change. Managers should be prepared to address such situations by seeking management support or intervention, where necessary (*Managing Change*, 2016).

Acceptance - This stage occurs when stakeholders have come to terms with the change and are ready to accept or live with it. When stakeholders embrace change, benefits can be realised. Once stakeholders are at this point, the affirmative effects of change become obvious (*Managing Change*, 2016).

Healing/Hope/Help - At this point, new behaviour is manifested. Stakeholders must realise that change does not happen at once and that falling back to old habits can become a normal occurrence. They should however, be encouraged to keep trying whenever they fall back into old behavior (*Managing Change*, 2016).

Research (Berliner & Kupermintz, 2014) found out that resistance to change can be witnessed in two ways:

- Overt resistance is the most noticeable; it is what we experience as obvious opposition to a proposed change e.g. disagreeing, arguing, debating, spreading false rumours, sabotage etc. (Berliner & Kupermintz, 2014).
- Covert resistance on the other hand comes in two forms:
 - Conscious covert resistance appears when employees are concerned about the consequences of their actions. People sometimes covertly resist by saying yes or apparently agreeing to a change and then avoiding or delaying its implementation (Berliner & Kupermintz, 2014).





- Unconscious covert resistance is the most difficult to see and understand. It is when we are not even aware of the resistance. This is most noticeable when a person struggles to understand the change, fails to achieve expected results, become ineffective, becomes ill, avoids for no apparent reason, etc. (Berliner & Kupermintz, 2014).

As managers it is good to recognise the types of resistance and implement the appropriate resistance management plan to support the team in dealing with resistance to change.

Straker (Straker, 2008) first came up with the concept of a Resistance Zoo. People have different motives so their reactions to change can differ and be described as behavior of different animals (Murphy, 2013):

- Rhinos - Want to bulldoze through and sabotage the change, they are difficult during workshops, create rumours and gossip and are not interested in working with the project team, intent on bulldozing through the change in the hope it will fail.
- Lions - The leaders who want to ensure they remain King of the Jungle with the new change, they want to be sure that they will not lose any power during the change.
- Monkeys - Want to create mischief and won't take the change seriously, they say things like "Here we go again, we have seen this before". They use humour and jokes to belittle the project and assume that this is another change that won't succeed.
- Ostriches - The ostrich famously puts its head in the sand when faced with danger hoping that the change will go away if they ignore it for long enough.
- Tortoises - These are the laggards on the project; they want to wait to see if other people adopt the change then slowly join the rest of them.
- Elephants - These people are tough and strong and have been around for a long time; they are not agile and flexible enough to adapt and can cause a stampede at any moment if they feel they are being cornered.
- Owls - The knowledgeable, experienced people within the organisation. They sit up on their branches in their tree, pointing out faults and reasons for the change not to work.

The Kübler-Ross Grieving curve (Kübler-Ross & Kessler, 2014) shows the emotional cycle on given bad news:



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1. Shock stage: Initial paralysis at hearing the bad news.
2. Denial stage: Trying to avoid the inevitable.
3. Anger stage: Frustrated outpouring of bottled-up emotion.
4. Bargaining stage: Seeking in vain for a way out.
5. Depression stage: Final realization of the inevitable.
6. Testing stage: Seeking realistic solutions.
7. Acceptance stage: Finally finding the way forward.

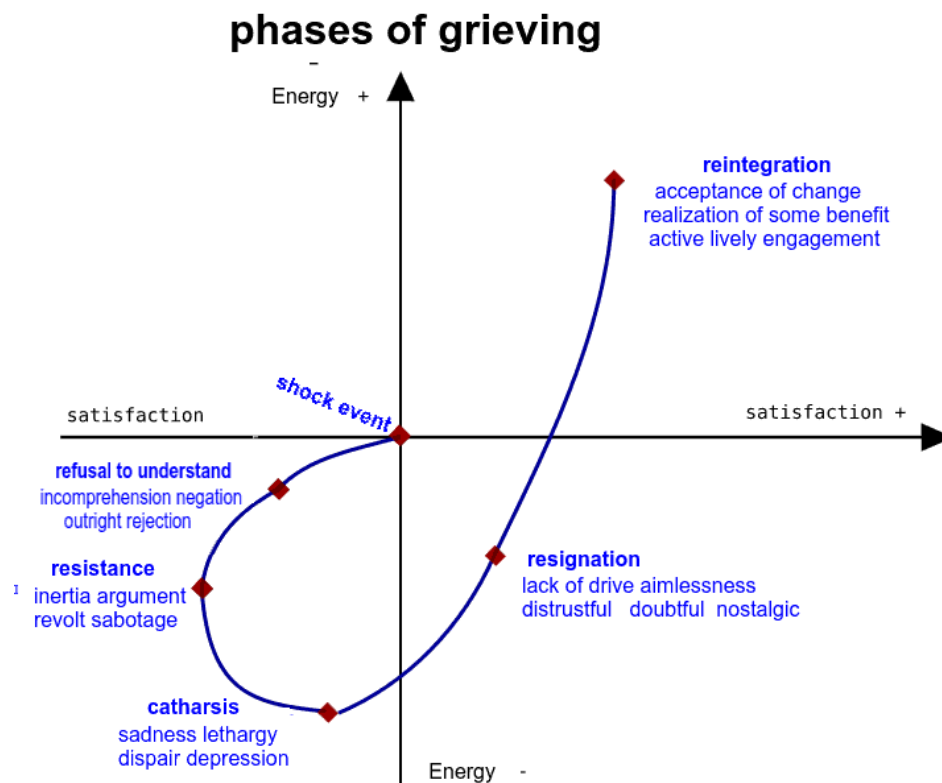


Image 5 - Kübler-Ross grieving curve (Grondin, 2017)

Now we understand how people perceive change. Let's move to tips that can help managers to manage the change.

In managing the initial announcement, the key is to do just that: manage it. Rather than just announce is, first think about the effects that it will have and stage the communication in a way to have the impact and effect that you desire, rather than resulting in a bloody mess that turns what at first seemed to be an easy change into what more resembles open warfare (The Psychology of Change, 2019).



Here are 4 conditions for changing mind-sets (Lawson & Price, 2003):

- A purpose to believe in. - Employees will alter their mind-sets only if they see the point of the change and agree with it—at least enough to give it a try.
- Reinforcement systems. - The surrounding structures (reward and recognition systems, for example) must be in tune with the new behavior.
- The skills required for change. - Employees must have the skills to do what it requires.
- Consistent role models. - Finally, they must see people they respect modeling it actively.

Each of these conditions is realized independently; together they add up to a way of changing the behavior of people in organizations by changing attitudes about what can and should happen at work (Lawson & Price, 2003).

Organizational change management involves first identifying the groups and people who will need to change as the result of the project, and in what ways they will need to change. Organizational change management then involves creating a customized plan for ensuring impacted employees receive the awareness, leadership, coaching, and training they need in order to change successfully. Driving successful individual transitions should be the central focus of the activities in organizational change management.

Change Management Framework - provides guidance to people who are leading and/or implementing change (*Change Management / Organizational Excellence*, U.Va., 2020). What is often recommended but forgotten in practice, is to involve people to defining the change and communicating the change enough even before the change beginning.



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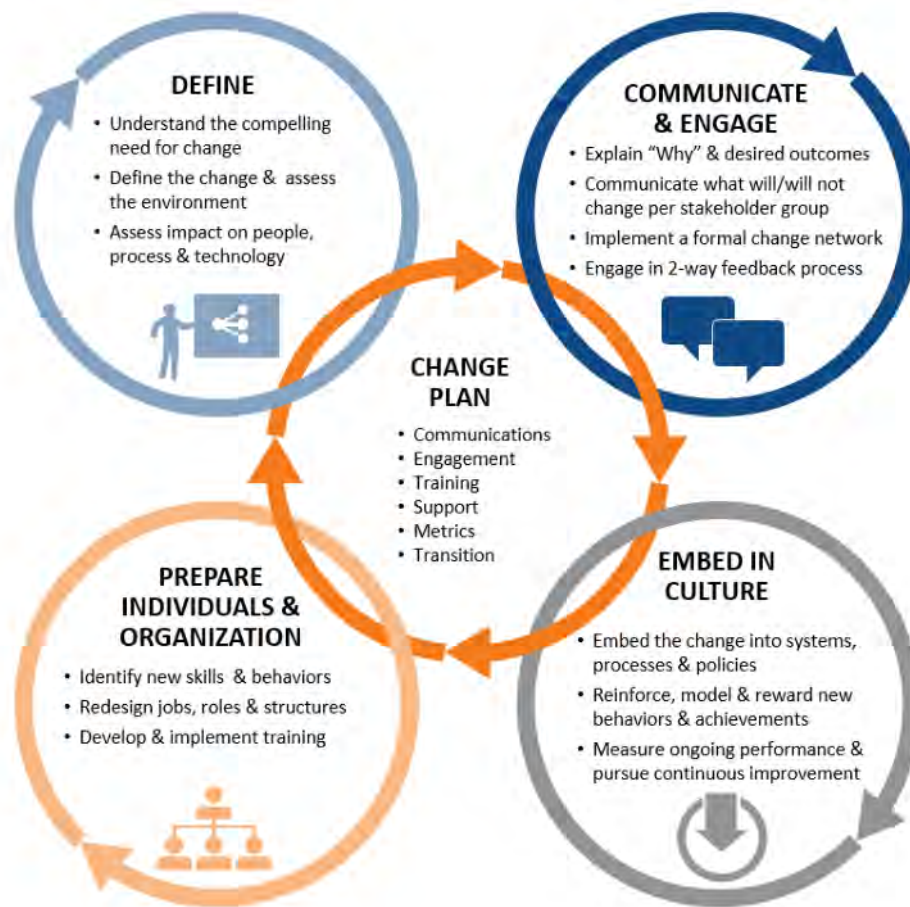


Image 6 - Change management framework (*Change Management | Organizational Excellence, U.Va., 2020*)

The ADKAR model is a goal-oriented, the most widely used change models in the world. It is effective tool for planning change management activities, equipping leaders facilitating change, and supporting employees throughout the change. Acronym represents the five tangible and concrete outcomes that people need to achieve for lasting change (Hiatt, 2006):

- Awareness of the need for change,
- Desire to support the change,
- Knowledge of how to change,
- Ability to demonstrate skills and behaviours,
- Reinforcement to make the change stick.



6 PSYCHOLOGY OF SELLING

6.1 Know customer's needs

Identify which needs your product/service meets and convince your prospects it will meet those needs better than anything else on the market. The primary customer needs are (Prater, 2018), (Tracy, 2006): 1) Money, 2) Security, 3) Being liked, 4) Status and prestige, 5) Health and fitness, 6) Praise and recognition, 7) Power, influence, and popularity, 8) Leading the field, 9) Love and companionship, 10) Personal growth, 11) Personal transformation.

Tracy (Prater, 2018), (Tracy, 2006) says the two main reason people buy or don't buy are desire for gain and fear of loss. Prospects either want to add more to their lives or are afraid of making a buying mistake. He (Tracy, 2006) cites a study showing desire for gain has a motivational power of 1.0, while fear of loss has a negative motivational power of 2.5. This means people are much more motivated by fear they'll lose something by not buying. So, tap into that emotion when possible and appropriate.

By increasing buying desire, reducing fear of loss, and emphasizing the ultimate benefit you'll make more sales and satisfy more customers.

6.2 Types of customers

In order to affect customers, we must estimate their behavior in advance. In this context we try to identify our customers according to their personality type. There are 3 basic categories of customers (Starzyczna, 2005):

- Customers with a clear idea of what and at what price they want to buy. We can show them a supplementary offer.
- Customers with no idea of purchase, they ask about possible purchase alternatives in advance. We try to address them and bring the timeliness of the purchase closer.
- Customers who are not interested in buying something. They pass only as spectators without specific current needs. The atmosphere of the store can convince them of their potential purchase.

Various personality types of buyers can be specified also in six basic buyers profiles (Tracy, 2006), (Prater, 2018):





- The apathetic buyer - Instead of trying to change this buyer's mind, save yourself the time and move on to someone more likely to buy.
- The self-actualizing buyer - They know exactly what they want. Make the most of these unicorn prospects and don't try to talk them into anything they haven't already set their hearts on.
- The analytical buyer - This buyer is self-contained and task-oriented. Slow down and be exact with these prospects. Be able to prove -- on paper -- everything you say, and be precise with each benefit to make it easier for them to buy.
- The relater buyer - This is a relationship-oriented buyer. They gravitate toward "helping" professions and like to be liked. To make the sale, focus on other happy customers, build a relationship, and don't rush them.
- The driver buyer - These buyers are direct, impatient, and concise. Get straight to the point with these buyers, because they're busy and preoccupied.
- The socialized buyer - This type of prospect is achievement-oriented. As soon as you reach an agreement, put it on paper and get a copy to them immediately.

In the literature (Filipová, 2010), (Vysekalová, 2004), (Jobber & Lancaster, 2001) we could find several classifications and typologies of customers. K.F. Gretz and S.R. Drozdeck distinguish customers according to the type of temperament into a leading type (sanguine, choleric) and subordinate type of customers (melancholic, phlegmatic). The leading type is decisive and independent. The subordinate type is indecisive and rather passive.

In addition, customers are divided into friendly and hostile. Usually we can know it immediately by their non-verbal manifestations. A friendly customer usually smiles, or has a certain helpfulness in the face. He/she is oriented towards others and is sensitive. The hostile customer is self-centered and insensitive and grim. By combining the previous types, we get 4 basic combinations of personal types of customers (Filipová, 2010):

- Leader-friendly type - is social, polite, respects the feelings of others, it is easy to communicate well with them.
- Leader-hostile type is sometimes referred to as a "dictator" (in extreme cases). He/she is aggressive, is always right. He/she is quarreling and very happy to show off. His/her person is often associated with conflict situations in stores.





- Subordinate-friendly type is sociable. He/she “goes with the crowd.” He/she is talkative, but indecisive. Often obeys the current trends in the field of fashion, diet, lifestyle.
- Subordinate-hostile type is considered a so-called bureaucrat, which always follows the regulations. He/she does not risk, does not step out from the crowd, but grumbles. He/she is distrustful, indecisive, but rather taciturn.

Understand which type of personality your buyer has, and tailor your approach for a more successful close. Listen attentively, pause before replying, question for clarification, paraphrase in your own words, and use open-ended questions.

6.3 Psychology of customer influencing

Some psychological rules are used in business negotiations (Vysekalová, 2004), (Berekoven, 1995). A customer who says no today can say yes after a while. It implicates that we do not lose hope of changing the customer's opinion. At one moment, people have one thought in mind only and one intention only. It is up to us to bring the customer to the direction we want during negotiations.

With appropriate questions we can detach or attract customer attention. Every external impulse gives rise to a certain idea, a certain wish, and at the end even the the energy that leads to action. Argumentation in several forms several times in a row can positively influence our partner's decision.

In addition to verbal argumentation, other forms are also appropriate, such as important references, leaflets, mock-ups, the possibility to take the product in hands, taste it, etc.

The customer must always have the possibility to choose. The customer must be persuaded, not forced.

The customer forgets the third solution. If the customer is faced with two options, then he/she forgets that there might be a third option, usually negative. For example: “Are you free on Monday or Wednesday?” This question seems to exclude the possibility not to meet at all.

It is necessary to find out as much information as possible about the person we should meet. Each person is different, so it is necessary to approach each person individually. From the



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following image we can see that there are different ways to approach different types of people.

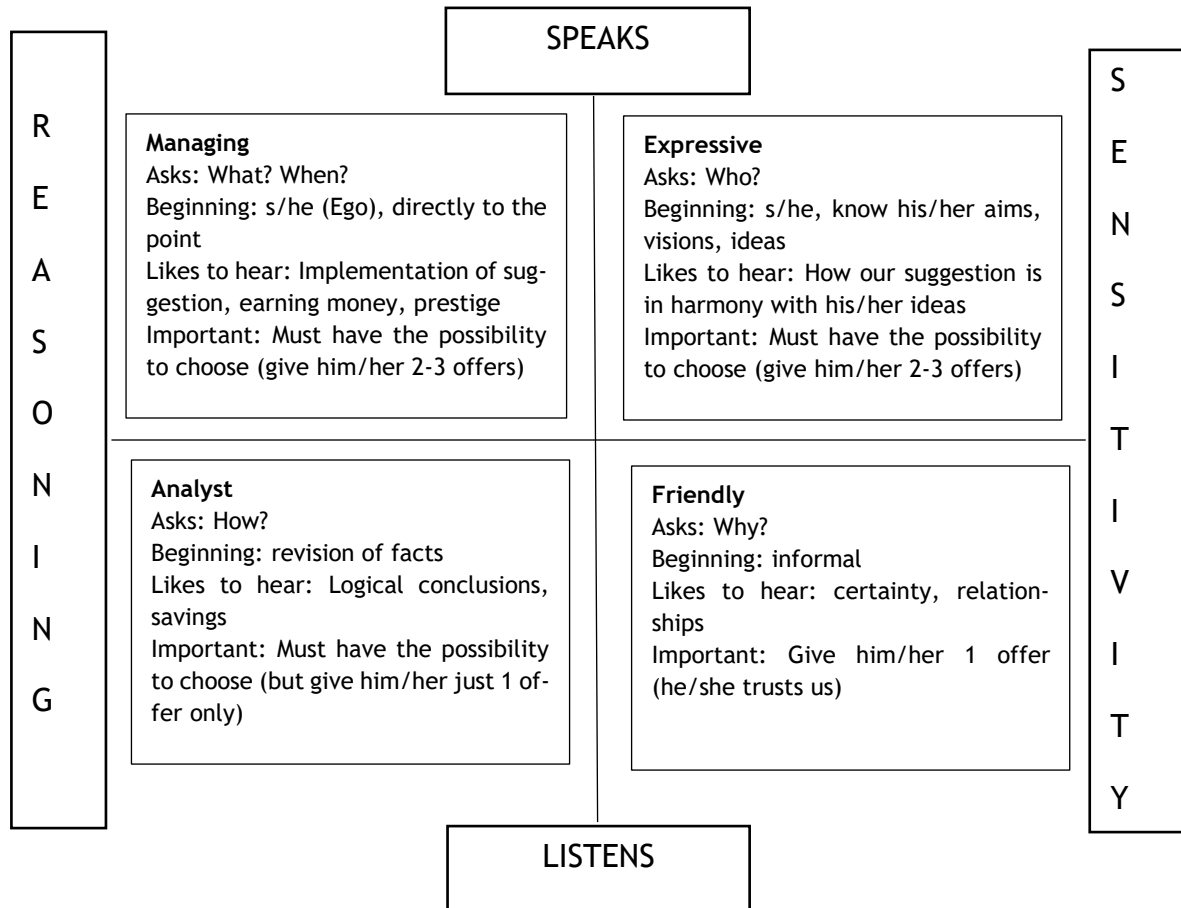


Image 7 - Communication cross

6.4 Psychological aspects of goods placement

The layout of the goods in the store, the characteristics of the goods and packaging, and the overall technology of operation of the business unit are very closely related to the behavior of customers. Expert studies in the field of customer behavior psychology have generated a number of findings (Cimlér & Zdražilová, 2007), (Starzyczna, 2005), (Vysekalová, 2004), (Berekoven, 1995):

- Customers walk mostly counter-clockwise, so we place the entrance and cash register according to that.



- Customers move around the store at a certain speed, initially walking fast, then slowing down and finally speeding up walking again.
- Regularly purchased goods are recommended to be displayed only at the opposite end of the entrance, which will force the customer to go through the entire store; in the entrance area the customer is not very focused on the purchase.
- 87% of customers are oriented (looking, reaching) to the right, the goods we want to offer are recommended to be placed on the right and goods bought regularly distributed to the left of the direction of the buyer.
- The main and the secondary streams of customer movement are created in the shop. customers prefer external roads (main streams), in the secondary streams (“dead center”) the frequency of purchase decreases by more than 50%; customers are not very interested in the assortment in the corners of the shop.

The offer can be highlighted with appropriate eye-catchers and lighting effects. Increased attention will be achieved by using displays - special promotional stands, delivered to the shops by manufacturers including goods (Starzyczna, 2005).

Placing goods directly on the shelf also has a psychological impact. The height of the product placement is decisive here. Goods can be stored at different heights: eye height, sight height, grip height, knee height. We can use these research findings to support the sale of a specific assortment of goods. Statistics captured the effect of changes in bands on sales growth or decrease in the following form (Starzyczna, 2005):

- moving goods up to the neighboring zone will increase sales by about 15-20%,
- moving the goods down to the neighboring zone will decline sales by approximately 15%;
- moving the goods up two zones will increase sales by about 30-50%,
- moving the goods down two zones will cause sales to fall by about 30-60%.





SUMMARY

In managerial psychology practice, the most important thing is to start by knowing yourself. For this purpose, there are the chapters 1, 2, and 3. Personality psychology describes the structure of personality and the most important implications to managerial practice. The chapter 2 introduces the phases of selfmanagement, that might be the core for your future self-development. Managerial work is very demanding, and often stressful. The chapter Mental hygiene brings you basic recommendations to keep you mentally fit. Mental and physical health is a closed system where one without the other cannot function in the long term.

The knowledge from all those chapters can be used towards subordinates or business partners or co-workers, as well. If you are able to analyze the personality of people you work with, you have a big advantage.

Further knowledge of managerial psychology can be applied in many areas of managerial activities. For the purpose of this university textbook I have chosen the most important areas: conflicts prevention and solving, elimination of work stress and its handling, management of change and typical human reaction to introduced change, and persuading customers to buy our product. You can find there many practical tips that can help you in your work. I wish you the knowledge of psychology in managerial work will help you reach your aims.



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List of Abbreviations

BC	Before Christ.
AD	Anno domini meaning after Christ.
OCEAN	Openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism.
CNS	Central nervous system.
N.U.T.S.	Ingredients of stress: novelty, unpredictability, threat to the ego, sense of control.



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LIST OF IMAGES

Image 1 - The OK matrix.....	9
Image 2 - Personality and different theories	12
Image 3 - Eysenck's characteristics of temperament types.....	17
Image 4 - The relation between stress and performance.....	36
Image 5 - Kübler-Ross grieving curve	44
Image 6 - Change management framework.....	46
Image 7 - Communication cross	50



EUROPEAN UNION
European Structural and Investment Funds
Operational Programme Research,
Development and Education





LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Stressors on the Social Readjustment Rating Scale	38
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EUROPEAN UNION
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Development and Education

