Psychology

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Chapter 1

Chapters

1.1 Overview

1.2 Basics of Psychology

Psychology describes the study of behavior and mental process. **Behavior** is related to outward or overt actions and reactions and the **mental process** as an internal, covert activity of our minds. Psychology can be divided in the following *elements* :

- Motivation

- Perception

- Attitudes

- Personality

- Learning

Furthermore, psychology has also three *subdivisions*. The **Social Psychology** deals with how individuals operate in groups. The **Industrial Psychology** deals with how the individual operates in the workplace and the **Organizational Psychology** deals with how the individual operates in the organization.

Fundamentally, psychology can be divided in two different psychologies. The **Scientific Psychology** is a process based approach, which is not concerned with individuals but group norms. On the other hand, **Humanistic Psychology** predicts behavior based on common culture, values, language, development and attitudes.

1.3 The Science of Psychology

Fundamentally, psychology has four goals: *Description, Explanation, Prediction, Control* . During the years, diverse methodologies has been developed, such as **Structuralism** , which focuses on the structure or basic elements of the mind,

Functionalism , which deals with how the mind allows people to adapt, live, work and play, the **Gestalt Psychology** which represents the "good figure" psychology and **Behaviorism** , which is the science of behavior that focuses only on observable behavior (must be seen and measured).

Another important methodology is **Psychoanalysis** which is the theory and therapy based on the work of Sigmund Freud. Freud states that there is an unconscious mind into which we push (repress) all of our threatening urges and desires and these repressed urges created nervous disorders.

1.4   Perspectives of Psychology

There are seven modern perspectives of psychology.

1. The **Psychodynamic perspective** , which is the modern version of 'Psychoanalysis', focuses on the development of sense of self and the discovery of other motivations behind a person's behavior than sexual motivations.

2. The **Humanistic perspective** helds the view, that people have a free will, the freedom to choose their own destiny. It emphasizes the human potential, the ability of each person to become the best person he or she could be.

3. The **Biopsychological perspective** , attributes human and animal behavior to biological events occurring in the body.

4. The **Cognitive perspective** focuses on memory, intelligence, perception, problem solving and learning.

5. The **Sociocultural perspective** focuses on the relationship between social behavior and culture.

6. The **Evolutionary perspective** focuses on the biological bases of universal mental characteristics that all humans share.

7. The last of the seven perspectives is the **Behavioral perspective**.

Furthermore, there are also different types of psychological professionals, which work with the various perspectives of psychology. The **Psychiatrist** is a medical doctor who has specialized in the diagnosis and treatment of psychological disorders. A **Psychoanalyst** is a psychiatrist who has special training in the theories of Sigmund Freud. A social worker with some training in therapy methods is called a **Psychiatric social worker**. Last but not least, the **Psychologist** is a professional with an academic degree and specialized training in one or more areas of psychology.

1.5   The Scientific Method

The **scientific method** is a system of gathering data so that bias and error on measurement are reduced. A scientific method has the following five steps:

1. Perceive the question

2. Form a hypothesis

3. Test the hypothesis

4. Draw a conclusion

5. Report your results so that others can try to replicate

1.6   Descriptive Methods

Descriptive Methods are three basic methods which help to describe situations.

The first method are **surveys** , where researchers will ask a series of questions. The advantage of conducting a survey is, that data from a large number of people can be collected. Unfortunately, people are not always accurate and honest in participating. A further disadvantage is, that a representative sample has to be ensured.

The second method is to execute a **case study** . It is a study in great detail about only one individual. On the one hand, it is possible to collect a tremendous amount of details. On the other hand, it is not applicable to other individuals.

The last method are **observations**, which can be divided in **naturalistic observations** and **laboratory observations**. Watching animals or humans behave in their normal environment is referred to as a **naturalistic observation**. The researcher can get a realistic picture of behavior. Throwbacks of this kind of observations are the *observer effect* (tendency of people/animals to behave differently from normal when they know they are being observed) and the *observer bias* (tendency of observers to see what they expect to see). **Laboratory observations** on the contrary watch animals or humans behave in a laboratory setting. Positive aspects of this observation are that the researcher has control over the environment and that he can use specialized equipment. A main disadvantage occurring from this is, that the artificial situation may result also in artificial behavior.

1.7   The Experiment

An **experiment** is a deliberate manipulation of a variable to see if corresponding changes in behavior result, allowing the determination of cause-and-effect relationships. The **Operational definition** is an experiment is the definition of a variable of interest that allows it to be directly measured. Two variables are used in an experiment. The **independent variable (IV)** is the variable which is manipulated by the experimenter. The **dependent variable (DV)** is the variable which represents the measurable response or behavior of the subject in the experiment. Furthermore, the experiment needs a **experimental group** which are subjects who are subjected to the independent variable and a **control group** which are subjects who are not subjected to the independent variable, but instead may receive a placebo treatment. The process of assigning subjects to

the experimental or control groups randomly, so that each subject has an equal chance of being in either group, is called the **random assignment** .

1.8   Ethics in the psychological research

Not to forget in a psychological research are also **ethics** .   Common ethical guidelines may for example include:

- Rights and well-being of participants must be weighed against the study's value to science

- Participants must be allowed to make an informed decision about participation

- Deception must be justified

- Participants may withdraw from the study at any time

- Participants must be protected from risks or told explicitly of risks

- Investigator must be debrief participants, telling the true nature of the study and expectations of results

- Data must remain confidential

1.9   Motivation

Motivation describes an inner state that energizes, activates, moves and directs out behavior towards goals and occurs when a need is aroused that the individual wishes to satisfy. It satisfies either **utilitarian** or **hedonic needs** . **Utilitarian needs** imply that we emphasize the objective, tangible attributes of products (e.g. fuel economy in a car). On the other side, **hedonic needs** imply that we emphasize the subjective and experiential aspects (e.g. self-confidence). Besides the utilitarian or hedonic needs, there are also other needs which play a role for the motivation. Such as **biological** vs. **learned needs** and **biogenic** vs. **psychogenic needs** .

Biological needs are based on the *drive theory* , which focuses on biological needs that produce unpleasant states of arousal. **Learned needs** are led by the *expectancy theory* , which suggests that behavior is largely governed by expectations of achieving desirable outcomes – positive incentives rather than pushed from within.

Biogenic needs indicate that people are born with a need for certain elements necessary to maintain life (e.g. food, water, shelter). Contrary to this, **psychogenic needs** are acquired in the process of becoming a member of a culture (e.g.status, power, affiliation).

1.10   Motivational conflicts

Motivational conflicts can be cause by different goals. There are amongst other two main goals which have an influence on the motivation. **"Positively valued goals"** , where consumers are motivated to approach the goal and will seek out products that will be instrumental in attaining it, and the **"Avoiding negative goals"** , where consumers are motivated to avoid a negative outcome structuring their purchases or consumption activities.

There are three types of motivational conflict. **Approach-approach** tells, that the organism is forced to choose between two different desirable stimuli. **Approach-avoidance** indicates, that the organism is attracted and repulsed by the same stimulus or situation and **avoidance-avoidance** points out that the organism is forced to choose between two different undesirable alternatives.

1.11   Theories of Motivation

Maslow's hierarchy of needs   **Maslow's hierarchy of needs** is a hierarchical approach which implies that the order of development is fixed. At the bottom of the *pyramid* are **Basic needs** which can be divided in *physiological needs* such as food,water or rest. Going upwards the *pyramid*, the next level are **Safety needs** such as security and safety. Thereupon follow **Psychological needs** . Those include *belongingness and love needs* (e.g. friends, intimate relationships) as well as *esteem needs* (prestige). The highest level of the *pyramid* are **Self-fulfillment needs** , which represent the achievement of one's full potential, also called the *self-actualization* .

Murray's psychogenic needs Theory   **Murray's psychogenic needs** include various needs such as needs which

- are associated with *inanimate objects* (acquisition, conservancy, order, retention, construction)

- reflect *ambition, power* (accomplishment and prestige)

- are connected with *human power* (dominance, deference, similance, autonomy, contrariance

- are *sado-masochistic* (aggression, abasement)

- are concerned with *affection between people* (affiliation, rejection, nurturance, play)

- are concerned with *social intercourse* (cognizance, exposition)

Freudian Theory   The **Freudian Theory** indicates that human behavior stems from a fundamental conflict between a person's desire to gratify his physical needs and the necessity to function as a responsible member of society. It can be divided into three internal systems. The **ID** , which is the immediate gratification, directing a person's psychic energy towards pleasurable acts without

regard to the consequences; the **SUPEREGO** , which is the person's conscience working to prevent the ID seeking selfish gratification; and the **EGO** , which is mediating between the other two.

Hertzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Theory   The **Hertzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Theory** comprehends factors related to the job itself, called **Motivation Factors** and factors related to the work environment, known as **Hygiene Factors** .

Motivation Factors can be:

- Achievement

- Recognition

- The work itself

- Responsibility

- Advancement

- Growth

Hygiene Factors can be:

- Supervision

- Working clothes

- Interpersonal relationship

- Pay and security

- Company policies/ administration

McClelland's acquired needs Theory   Due to **McClelland's acquired needs Theory** , needs for achievement, affiliation and power are learned or acquired from our environment. This can be for example be influenced by culture. Furthermore, it is stated that the need for achievement is learned when we are young. McClelland notes in his theory, that there is a **Trio of needs** which includes *power"" (individual's desire to control environment),* affiliation *(need for friendship, acceptance and belonging)* and achievement *(need for personal accomplishment; closely related to egoistic and self-actualization needs).*

Vroom's Expectancy Theory   **Vroom's Expectancy Theory** says that motivation is determined by how much people want a particular outcome and how likely they think they are going to get it. Therefore, there are four assumptions, which have to be considered.

- - Behavior is determined by the combination of forces within the individual and the environment.

- People make their own decisions about behavior.

- Different people have different needs, desires and goals.

- People make choices based on their perceptions of the extent to which behavior leads to desired outcome.

Mid-range Theories of Motivation   The **Mid-range Theories of Motivation** consists of the following components: the**Psychological Reactance** which describes the motivational arousal due to threat of behavioral freedom; the **Opponent Process Theory** which states extreme initial reactions may be followed by extreme opposite reaction, and the **Optimum Stimulation Level** which is the desire to maintain a certain level of stimulation that the consumer considers to be optimal.

Equity Theory by J.Stacy Adams   Regarding to the **Equity Theory by J.Stacy Adams** , people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they receive for performance. Equity is the individual's belief that he is being treated fairly relative to the treatment of others.

1.12   Perception

Perception is the process by which physical sensations such as sights, sounds and smells are selected, organized and interpreted. The eventual interpretation of the stimulus allows it to be assigned meaning. The stages of a perceptual process are:

1. **Primitive categorization** , the stage in which the basic characteristics of a stimulus are isolated

2. **Cue check** , the stage in which the characteristics are analyzed in preparation for the selection of a schema

3. **Confirmation check** , the stage in which the schema is selected

4. **Confirmation completion** , the stage in which a decision is made as to what the stimulus is

Various stimulus can have different impact.

- **Vision**: marketers rely heavily on visual elements in advertising, store design and packaging. Colors are rich in symbolic value and cultural meanings and can be critical spurs to sale

- **Smell**: odors can stir the emotions or have a calming effect, they can invoke memories or relieve stress

- **Sound**: can affect people's feelings and behaviors

- **Touch**: tactile cues can have symbolic meaning

- **Test**: can contribute to our experiences of many products

Furthermore, two different **sensory thresholds** can be defined. The **absolute threshold** , which is the minimum amount of stimulation that can be detected on a sensory channel; and the **differential threshold** , which is the ability of a sensory system to detect changes or differences between two stimuli - the issue of when or if a change will be noticed is relevant to many marketing situations.

Consumers are often in a state of sensory overload, exposed to too much information and are unable or unwilling to process all of the information at their disposal. **Perceptual selectivity** occurs when people attend to only a small portion of the stimuli that they are exposed to.

There are several perceptual principles for organizing stimuli. The **Gestalt psychology**, where people derive meaning from the totality of a set of stimuli rather than form any one individual stimuli. The **Principle of closure** , where consumers tend to perceive an incomplete picture as complete, filling in the blanks based on previous experience. The **Principle of similarity** , where consumers tend to group together objects that share similar physical characteristics. And the **Figure ground principle**, where where one part of the stimulus will dominate while others recede into the background.

Meanings can be interpreted in different ways:

- *Priming*: where consumers assign meaning based on the set of beliefs held

- *Symbolic consumption*: where the meanings attached to the act of consuming the goods, for example trendiness, wealth, femininity, etc.

- *Stimulus Ambiguity*: where consumers project their own experiences and aspirations to assign meaning

- *Stimulus organization*: where people relate incoming sensations to imagery of other sensations already in memory based on fundamental organization principles

'*Symbolism* **plays an important role in interpretation.** *Semiotics* examines the correspondence between signs and symbols and their role in the assignment of meaning. Products are given meanings by their producers and we rely on advertising to work out what those meanings are. Advertising serves as a kind of culture/consumption dictionary.

Semiotic principles says that messages have three basic components. The *lowest level*(the object or the product that is the focus of the message), the *middle level*(the sign or the sensory image that represents the unintended meaning of the object) and *top level* (the interpretant or the meaning derive).

Positioning strategy is a positional strategy is a fundamental part of a company's marketing efforts as it uses the different element of the marketing mix (product, price, place, promotion, etc) to influence consumers interpretation of its meaning. **Brand positioning dimensions** are amongst others: lifestyle, price leadership, attributes, product class, competitors, occasions, users and quality.

Stimuli have also **physical properties** , which are:

- *Intensity and size*: the more intensive or larger the stimulus, the more likely we are to notice, e.g. poster sites

- *Position*: we read from the left to the right – generally the upper part of the page and the left hand page gain more attention

- *Contrast*: e.g. color photograph on a black and white page

- *Novelty*:anything different from what we would normally expect

- *Repetition*: the greater the repetition the more likely we will remember

- *Movement*: our eyes are involuntarily attracted to movement – thus television tends to be more stimulating than poster sites

Perceptual selectivity is a process whereby individuals actively select relevant stimuli form their surroundings. The determinants are external and internal factors. External factors can be for example*habit* – we become used to stimuli from experience, something familiar will be notice immediately. Internal factors may include *needs and interests* (we'll be more likely to notice things of interest to us), *motives* (the stronger the need the more likely we are to notice things of interest and ignore unrelated stimuli, e.g. we'll pay more attention to stimuli we are interested in) or *expectations* (what we expect to perceive is based on familiarity – past experience – thus something unexpected is more likely to be noticed) *Selective attention* says that we pay attention to things that interest us or reinforce our opinion. And *selective exposure'* states that we avoid any information that may be contradictory to our beliefs and attitudes – sometimes we'll seek out supportive information if our beliefs have been attacked. *Selective reception* indicates that in some cases we'll be motivated to follow advice to avoid unpleasant situations – e.g. fear appeals. It is also to block large quantities of information from conscious awareness, which is known as **perceptual blocking**.

The **patterning** or **organization** of stimuli is called **Gestalt** . Gestalt school claims that the process of perceptions is innately organized and patterned. Gestalt is the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. People do not view stimuli as separate components but organize them in to a recognizable pattern. Perceptual selectivity lets us see lines but perceptual organization lets us see words. Gestalt encompasses three principles:*Figure* (stimuli must contrast to be noticed; learning affects which will be perceived as background and figure for example words on page), *grouping* (individual groups stimuli together so they form a unified picture) as well as *closure* (organization of stimuli to form a complete picture)

Important short-cuts for **social perception** are:

- *Stereotyping* – a broad generalization

- *Halo-effect* – brands of clothes

- *Projection* – attribute our own feelings to others

- *First impressions* – last!

- *Perceptual screening* – filter out what we don't like

1.13   Attitudes

Attitudes are learned predispositions to respond in a consistent way with respect to a given object. **Attitude objects** can be can be people, products, placed, ideas, issues, behavior, etc. Attitudes:

- are *learned* – through information, through direct experience or some combination of two

- are *predispositions to respond* – they aren't observable but they can be measured

- are *consistent* – positive or negative – e.g. think of something you like/ don't like

Having attitudes can have a number of reasons. **Instrumental**reasons, which say that we are motivated towards rewarding objects e.g. attitudes to lotto; the **ego defense**reasons, which states that we are motivated to sustain our self-concept e.g. our attractiveness, skills; **value expression** reasons, which indicated that we express opinions that reflect self attitude e.g. attitudes to political parties, causes or ideas; and **knowledge** reasons, which show that attitudes provide coherence and direction to our experience e.g. our attitudes to study, work, saving money,...

Components of attitude can be:

- *Cognitive* (beliefs about the object e.g. "I believe it is important to recycle")

- *Affective' (positive or negative emotional reaction to the object e.g. "therefore I like products that come in recyclable packaging")*

- *Conative* (intended or actual behavior e.g. "so I will buy brand X not brand Y")

Attitudes can be also measured with different scales. The **semantic differential scale**uses bi-polar adjectives. It allows the construction of product positioning profiles. The **staple scale** uses a single criterion or key word and instructs the respondent to rate the object on a scale. It is slightly more complex than the semantic differential. And the **Likert scale** is based on a number of evaluative statements, respondent is asked to indicate level of agreement/disagreement.

Attitudes can also be changed. If buyers have a negative attitude to the product, the marketer may attempt to change this. This may require for example changing the product (e.g. improved features) or changing communication about the product (e.g. giving the product a new image). There are two different types of change; **pre-purchase attitude change** and **post-purchase attitude change** . The **pre-purchase attitude change** considers four strategies based on Fishbein:

1. Changing the relative evaluation of attributes

2. Changing brand beliefs

3. Adding attributes to the brand

4. Changing beliefs about competitors brands

The **post-purchase attitude change** includes the **cognitive dissonance** which occurs when the individual receives new information about a belief or attitude that is in conflict with the original belief or attitude. These conflicting thoughts are prime factors that induce consumers to change attitude so that they will be consistent with actual purchase behavior.

1.14   Personality

Personality is the supreme realization of the innate individuality of a particular living being (Carl Gustav Jung). It describes those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to his environment. It reflects individual differences and is consistent and enduring.

Personality traits are characteristics. They show how one person differs from another and tend to be consistent and enduring. Personality traits are often used in perso.nality tests. Marketers try to relate products to traits so that consumers will identify with them.

Due to *Cost and McCrane*, the **personality structure** consists of five factors: *Emotional stability (Neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness* and *conscientiousness* .

1.15   Theories of Personality

Sigmund Freud   The **Theory by Sigmund Freud** is a psychoanalytic theory of personality. It says that there are unconscious sexual drives at the heart of human motivation and personality. The personality consists of three interacting systems: **ID** , **EGO** and **SUPEREGO** . Furthermore, he proposed five stages of personality development.

1. **Oral stage** (the infant first experiences contact with the outside world through the mouth)

2. **Anal stage** (primary source of pleasure for child is process of elimination)

3. **Phallic stage** (child discovers sex organs –attraction to parent of opposite sex – crisis – how this is resolved affects future relationships and relationship with authority)

4. **Latency stage** (sexual instinct lie dormant from age of 5 until adolescence – no important personality changes take place here)

5. **Genital stage** (individual develops sexual interest)

The strengths of this theory are, that Freud developed the first comprehensive theory of personality. Many personality theorists have deemed it necessary to

point out where there theories differ from correct weaknesses in Freud's work. Disadvantages of Freud's theory are, that many Freudian ideas appear in the literature that predates Freud's work or many of his hypotheses are not testable. Moreover, Freud relied heavily on case study data for evidence which was extremely biased. A lot of Freud's followers broke away from the group because Freud refused to take into account the experiences that happened after 6 years of age and how they may influence personality.

Carl Jung – Jungian personality types **Carl Jung's theory** indicates, that personality types are based on psychological dimension, which are:

- *Sensing – intuiting* (how you feel about things)

- *Thinking – feeling* (decision styles)

- *Extroversion – introversion* (social setting)

- *Judging – perceiving* (differentiation ability)

Neo-Freudian Theorists **Neo-Freudian Theorists** , are theorists who did not accepts Freud's assertion that personality was primarily instinctual. They believed, that social relationships were fundamental to the formation and development of personality. The Neo-Freudian theorist *Alder* viewed humans as seeking to attain rational goals in an attempt to reduce feelings of inferiority. *Sullivan* stated that people look to establish significant and rewarding relationships with others in an effort to reduce tension.

Karen Horney   The theory about personality by **Karen Horney** is focused on child-parent relationships which she believed led to 3 possible personality types:

- *Compliant* – move towards others

- *Aggressive* – move against others

- *Detached* – move away from others

This research has shown that there is indeed a relationship between these types and particular brand purchases.

Trait Theory   The **Trait theory** is using qualitative measures to assess personality type. For example, typical traits that marketers seek to measure include: *Innovativeness* (receptiveness to new experiences), *susceptibility* (to interpersonal influence), *Materialism* as well as *ethnocentrism* (receptiveness to foreign made products).

Catell (Raymond Catell) The **Catell theory** by Raymond Catell distinguishes **emphasized personality traits** and **surface and sources traits**. **Surface traits** are readily apparent (e.g. in a social setting). **Source traits**, on the other hand, are deeper and require analysis. Traits testing/analysis is commonly applied in the recruitment process. Various specific traits may be required or desired by employers, such as out-going, empathy with people for a salesperson or attention to detail, meticulous for an accountant.

1.16 Personality and Marketing

Traits are also used in marketing purposes. Researchers have examined various traits in attempts to explain a link between personality and behavior. Much research has been done on the trait innovativeness which has been linked to new product adoption. Base on the time of adoption of new products, various **adopter categories** can be specified:

- *Innovators (2,5%)* – venturesome, willing to take risk, outward looking, communicative, involved in many networks of people

- *Early adopters (13,5%)* – enjoys the prestige and respect that early purchasing brings, they tend to be opinion leader who influence others

- *Early majority (34%)* – have status within their social class, are communicative and attentive to sources of information

- *Late majority (34%)* – less cosmopolitan and less responsive to change, tend to be less well off, older and belong to lower socio-economic groupings

- *Leggards (16%)* – price conscious, suspicious of novelty and change, conservative in behavior and low level of income

Another term used in marketing is **Brand Personality**. Since 1960s marketers have examined ways of linking personality and branding. Some research studies indicated that some consumers choose brands as carefully as they would choose friends. By interpreting the personality of brands, consumers felt more comfortable buying particular brands. Often marketers will research personalities associated with brands.

1.17 The Self

The Self is a relatively new concept that regards people and their relationship to society. It takes the idea that each human life is unique, rather than a part of a group and it accepts the notion that the self is an objective to be pampered. The Self is divided into an inner, private self and an outer, public self.

The **self concept** refers to the beliefs people hold about their attributes and how they evaluate these qualities. The self concept consists of different components: **self esteem** and the **real and ideal selves** . The **self esteem** is the positivity of a person's self concept. Self esteem advertising attempts to change product

attitudes by stimulating positive feelings about the self. The **real and ideal selves** are consumers who are actual standing on some attribute to some ideal. The ideal self is a person's conception of how he/she would like to be. The actual self is the more realistic appraisal of the actual qualities held.

People can have also **multiple selves** and many different social roles. People act differently depending in the situation they find themselves in. The self has many different components or role identities and only some of these may be active at any given time.

Another term, used in the self is **symbolic interactionism** . It stresses relationships with other people and it plays an important part on forming the self. It maintains that people exist in a symbolic environment where the meaning attached to any situation or object is determined by the interpretation of these symbols.

Moreover, the **looking glass self** is a process of imagining the reactions of other towards us. The desire to define ourselves operates as a sort of psychological sonar, taking readings of our identity by bouncing signals off others and trying to project the impression they have about us.

The **consumption and self-concept** states, that products exists, which shape the self – "you are what you consume". The linked **self product congruence** says, that consumers demonstrate consistency between their values and the items purchased. Self image congruence models predict that products will be chosen when their attributes match some aspect of the self.

The **extended self** says, that the use of props and settings used by consumers to define their social roles becomes part of their selves. There are four levels of the extended self:

1. **Individual level**: inclusion of many personal possessions in self definition, e.g. cars, clothing

2. **Family level**: includes a consumer's residence and its furnishings

3. ⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚⬚**Community level**: the neighborhood or town form which consumers belong

4. **Group level**: attachments to certain social groups can be considered part of self

Also **gender** is playing an important role in the self concept. Sexual identity is an important component of a person's self concept. People often conform to their culture's expectations about how those of their gender should act. Every society crates a set of expectations regarding the behavior appropriate for men and women and communicates these.

Female roles: social changes, such as the increase in women in the workplace has led to a change in the way women are regarded by men, the way they regard themselves, and the products they choose to buy

Male roles: the "new man" is allowed to be more compassionate and to have closer relationships with other men. The more sensitive side of their nature is evolving and becoming an issues for marketers

Often used for marketing purposes is the **body image** . The **ideal** is what many consumers are motivated to match up to. The **size** is crucial in respect to the body image. For example, the pressure to be slim is continually reinforced by advertisers and by peers. Many people perceive a strong link between self-esteem and appearance and some exaggerate this connection even more and sacrifice greatly to attain what they consider to be a desirable body image. This is called an **image distortion**.

Face-ism was covered in the researches of *Archer et al.* in 1983 and *Schwartz and Kurz* in 1989. *Archer et al. (1983)* found that when 1,750 visual images from newspapers and magazines of men and women were analyzed, the depictions of women gave greater importance to the body. *Schwartz and Kurz (1989)* found that this can influence people to think that women are only important for their physical appearance, while the male facial prominence signifies ambition and intelligence

1.18   Learning

A broader definition of **learning** states, that learning is is a process through which individuals assimilate new knowledge and skills that result in relatively permanent behavior changes. A more narrow definition says, that **learning** is consistent with education – takes place at school, college.

For any learning to occur, certain basic elements must be present: *Motivation* , *cues* , *response* as well as *reinforcement.*

Some learning may be based on a **simple stimulus-response model** . A **stimulus** can be for example an advert, a **response** can be therefore the purchase. If the stimulus is sensed (**perception**) we can then observe if there is a response e.g. special offers in a supermarket

1.19   Theories of Learning

Learning theories can be generally divided into three groups: **behaviorist theories** , **cognitive theories** and **social learning theories** . **Behaviorist theories** indicates that learning is a function of experience (classical & operant conditioning). **Cognitive theories** emphasize on the significance of the role of experience, the development of meaning and the use of problem solving as well as the insight as the sources of learning central to the individual. **Social learning theories** say that individuals do not learn just by doing, but also by watching others and repeating their actions.

Behavioral Learning

- *Classical conditioning*: Conditioned learning occurs when a stimulus that is paired with another stimulus that elicits a known response serves to produce the same response when used alone (demonstrated by Ivan Pavlov)

- *Instrumental conditioning*: Learning occurs in a controlled environment in

which individuals are rewarded for choosing appropriate behavior (demonstrated by B.F. Skinner)

Cognitive learning   **Cognitive learning** is based on mental activity (problem solving). It involves complex mental processing of information. Cognitive learning can be subdivided in **Insight learning** (by Kohler) and **latent learning** (by Tolman). Due to **Insight learning** , solutions to problems can be arrived at by looking at the bigger picture. It can be applied to the human problem solving. **Latent learning** says, that we all have a hidden ability to solve problems.

The **memory** plays an important part in cognitive learning. At the beginning of memory is the **sensory store** . Our senses(eyes, ears,...) receive information and transfer it to the brain. Then, the information is synchronized and perceived as a single image, in a single moment in time. It is difficult to make a lasting impression unless the receiver chooses to process more information. This information can be then stored in the **short term store** or the **long term store** . In the **short term store** the information is held and processed for a brief period. For this information to be remembered it must be **rehearsed** and **encoded** and then it is transferred to the long term store. **Rehearsal** requires, that information is held in short term storage for encoding to take place. **Encoding** means selecting a word or image and using it to represent an object. The **long term store** is the "filling system" in the brain whereby we can remember large amounts of information. All of the information is organized in files and it will be recognized and deleted as more information is processed. In general, an information may be stored **episodically** or **semantically** . An **episodic storage** is in the order in which it happened e.g. watching a film (beginning-middle-ending). The **semantic storage** is around a concept e.g. the plot of the film (suspense, mystery). Of course, **forgetting** is also part of the memory. This can happen because an information is no longer relevant, because of overload or because of interference (e.g. competitors ads).

Learning can be also **improved** . By **rehearsal** (regular rehearsal is important, otherwise large amounts are quickly forgotten), **Mneumonics** (short hand devices such as the *4 Ps* or the *3 Cs*) or **depend learning** (i.e. in the situation where the learning occurred).

Observational Learning   **Observational learning** occurs when people watch the actions of others and the reinforcements they receive for their behaviors. This type of learning can be a complex process as people store these observations in their memory and use it at a later date to guide their own behavior.

1.20   Conflict and Stress

1.21   Conflict

A **conflict** is disagreement among two or more individuals, groups or organizations. Both too much or too little conflict within an organization/group can be dysfunctional. An optimal level of conflict can be beneficial to the group/organi-

zation. There is a relationship between conflict and performance.

A conflict can have different causes and can be therefore also separated in particular conflicts. The **Interpersonal conflict** refers to that different people have different goals/ attitudes/ perceptions. This can be seen for example in *personality clashes*, which means that two people distrust each other's motives or dislike each other. Also different beliefs or perceptions about how the group should proceed/carry out this work can be regarded as an *interpersonal conflict*. An '*Inter-group conflict*can occur for example between the Marketing Department and the Production Department in an organization. This can happen due to organizational causes such as poor management, leadership or scheduling of work or different goals e.g. marketers spending on an advertising campaign vs. accountants who want to reduce costs. Moreover, also **Inter-organizational conflict** can naturally occur in form of competition.

1.22 Managing conflict

A conflict can be managed through **stimulation** , **control** and **resolving** or **elimination** . **Stimulating** a conflict means amongst others to increase the competition between individuals or group; to bring outsiders in to "shake up things" or to change established procedures. By **controlling** a conflict we mean for example to expand the resource base (e.g. funding); to enhance the coordination of interdependence; to set supra-ordinate goals or to try to match the personalities and work habits of employees to avoid conflict. To **resolve** or **eliminate** a conflict, one can convince the conflicting parties to compromise or to bring conflicting parties together to confront and negotiate the conflict.

1.23 Stress

Stress can be an outcome of conflict. It is an individual's adaptive response to a stimulus that carries excessive psychological or physical demands. Stress generally follows a cycle referred to as the **General Adaption Syndrome** , which has three stages: *Alarm* , *resistance* and *exhaustion*. Furthermore, an optimal stress level can lead also to motivation, excitement and innovation. A too little stress level can cause lethargy and differences. A too high stress level, on the other side, can result in emotional and psychological damage.

Chapter 2

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2.1 Text

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