Chapter One

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The datum of scientific psychology is behaviour. This is not as simple as it sounds. In the first place, there are many levels of behaviour, ranging from simple one to very complex.

A point of great importance is that acts or behaviors are processes that are stretched out over time. They refer essentially to the changes in state of an organic system from one point in time to another. Psychology can not really ask questions about the structure of behaviour as physics asks about the structure of matter or of an atom. Rather, it asks about the changes that have occurred in an organism over time. Behaviour can be overt-external and more or less directly observable or covert-internal, and not directly observable. The word 'Behaviour' itself is overt, but its causes may be hidden. Such phenomena as thoughts, feelings, or emotions are unobservables in themselves and are only inferred from some behaviour actually observed.

Certainly, behaviour is the primary datum. But it is those processes behind overt acts that really represent the main interest of most psychologists. Historically, mental processes of man were the main concern of the study, but the fundamental concerns and basic goals has been changed, however, psychology today is chiefly concerned with why people behave. Thus, psychologists are interested in such topics as the nature of personality, attitudes and beliefs, the physical basis for behaviour, how we know our world and ourselves, learning, the evaluation of people, and the motivation of the individual and the group. Each of these topics relate to how and why people behave as they do.

Contemporary interest in instinct resides in the work of the ethologists and in the study of certain patterns of behaviour, like hoarding, migration, sex, parental,
and filial behaviour. The ethologists find relatively fixed kinds of behaviour, which they call instinctive, and attempt to understand the factors which release energy for the performance of these and other acts. They, thus, combine the two major meanings of instinct i.e., unlearned behaviour and energy.

Current theories of drive are embedded in general theories of behaviour which stress the role and nature of learning in behavioral problems. Drive theories stress either the energizing functions or goal determining functions of the drive states.

Contemporary interest in emotion shows two major facets. One is that emotion activates behaviour, and this probably reflects, at least indirectly, the urge concept of instinct. The other facet is the emphasis on affective enjoyment or pleasure in setting up motivational forces.

Theories in social psychology have tended to be concerned with the motives for social behaviour and with the social control of conduct. All these models try to explain conduct or behavior - what its causes are and the factors which control it. In general, behavior is seen as serving the needs of the organism in some sense.

In Hindu system, behaviour is considered as a function of sensory organs of sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste and other organs of action, viz. speech, hands, feet, excretory, and generative organs. Function of the sense and action organs are controlled by 'vivek' (discriminating wisdom) through manas (mind). The Kathopnishad explains the relation between these as:

"Know the self (atman) to be master of the chariot, and the body to the chariot. Know the discriminating intellect to be the charioteer, and the mind to be reins. The sense are the horses and the objects of senses the paths. When the self is yoked with the mind and the senses, the wise call it the enjoyer. One whose mind is always unrestrained and has not discrimination, his senses are uncontrollable like the vicious horses of a charoteer. But one whose mind is always
under control and has correct understanding, his senses are controllable like the horses of a charioteer which are disciplined. But who so is devoid of a discriminating intellect, possessed of an unrestrained mind and is ever impure, does not attain that goal but goes to mundane life. But whose is possessed of a discriminating intellect and a restrained mind, and is ever pure, attains that goal from which he is not born again. " (1-3.3 to 1-3.4).

Above philosophical passage throws light on two aspects: the first aspect is related to the behaviour and the second is to the success of the behaviour. It explains that our organs are fascinated by their objects. Indian philosophy also assumes that desire (kama), wrath (krodha), affection (moha), avarice (lobha), fear (bhaya) and envy (irsya) are the six enemies that capture the mind. Interaction of captured mind and fascinated functions of organs generate various physical and psychological needs. However, at concrete level, needs are generated either by physiological process of organs or by demands of some external factors. Our organs tend to satisfy needs by involving in their loving objects. In other words, objects are attractive goals for the organs. Vivek or discriminating wisdom (DW) has a control over the functions of the organs. DW analyses whether emerged need is rational, and whether a specific course of action is rational to achieve the rational goal. It also assumes that DW exercises its control through mind. If an evaluation by the DW is correct and rationale in actual sense, success is in hand. If it is for ever that all needs of an actor are satisfied then ultimately he becomes free from the need (kamana), and thus, from birth (life). If it is for ever that any need of the actor is not satisfied, and he (the actor) remains needy, then he goes to mundane life.

Vivek uses analytical ability of intellect (called budhee) and knowledge in the evaluations and analysis. Above philosophical interpretation exhibits following ideas:

1. Necessities are the root-causes of all behaviours.
2. Selection of a behaviour that can satisfy a specific need depends on the attractiveness of the behaviour.

3. A person tends to act an attractive behaviour or a behaviour that is related to an attractive goal. But DW continuously evaluates the rationals of necessity and behaviour, and as a result, attraction of the goal is moderated, and decision to do or not to do the specific course of action is taken.

This explanation is philosophical in nature but seems to be logical intuitive and practical. Singh (1997) attempted to define vivek or discriminating wisdom operationally. He also attempted to explore the functions of the DW. The objective was to know (i) how and in which sense people use the concept of 'vivek', and (ii) what they evaluate by vivek before deciding to involve in an action. In the study, three groups of 30 students, 25 teachers and 25 employees of different institutions/organizations were interviewed individually. For this purpose an interview schedule was prepared that consisted of three parts: Part "A", "B" and "C". Part A was for students while part B and C were for teachers and employees, respectively. There were two questions in common for all the three parts. The questions were (i) What do you mean by the concept "VIVEK"? and (ii) whether you evaluate any thing by using of your VIVEK before deciding to do a work, and if so, what do you evaluate?

Five additional questions were given in part 'A' whereas seven questions in part 'B' & 'C' each were added. One example to each of the additional questions are: what do you evaluate at the time when you decide in the evening to go to play or to stay at home for your home work? (in part A), what do you evaluate at the time when you decide to teach or not to teach a specific lesson at a specific time (in part B), and what do you evaluate at the time when you decide to participate or not to participate in a strike of your trade union (in part C). The interview schedule is given in appendix - 1.
Content analysis of the subjects' responses indicated that all subjects use their 'VIVEK' in the procedure of making decision. Though the concept of 'VIVEK' was used variedly by different people, the obvious consistency was observed in their responses. Singh (1997), on the basis of the responses, defined 'Vivek' as an understanding, an analytical mental ability that evaluates all positive and negative influences of the objects (for self and others), situations, working procedure and obstacles and impediments. Vivek is generally employed for all types of behaviours except habitual and emotionally toned behaviours. However, it controls and regulates habitual behaviours, emotions, moods and mind.

Content analysis also revealed 25 evaluative dimensions that are considered by Vivek. These are as under:

1. Necessity of the behaviour
2. Need for the others
3. Beneficial/harmful for self in future
4. Importance of the work
5. Beneficial/harmful for self
6. Beneficial/harmful for others
7. Right/wrong
8. Appropriate/inappropriate
9. Moral/immoral
10. Good/bad
11. Like/dislike
12. Interesting/not interesting
13. Useful/useless
14. Violent/non-violent
15. Whether follow social norms
16. Whether others like
17. Importance of the instigator/person concerned
18. Social approval
19. Ability
20. Suitability of the time/situation
21. Effective working/control over the procedure
22. Knowledge
23. Facilities available
24. Difficulties

On the basis of nature of the above contents Singh (1997) assumed that all 25 dimensions might be classified into 4-5 broader dimension viz, needs and valence of behavior and goal of the behavior, attitude towards the behavior, social norms and social approval regarding the behavior, and difficulties, abilities, expectations, and control.

Singh (1997) continued his work to identify the hidden factors of DW on empirical basis. He further studied 300 subjects of different age, sex and occupation. A tool consisting of 9 families and 9 service related situation was prepared. Each situation represented a problem pertaining to taking decision with a question what and how much one considers before taking a decision in the situation. The question was followed by 28 evaluative dimensions each of which was presented with a six point rating scale ranging from 'very much' to 'not at all'. Subjects had to read the situation carefully and to mark their responses on the rating scale. Factor analyses of the responses for family and service related situations and their sum identified four factors viz, subjective norms and social concern, control belief, valence and attitude. A brief description of these factors is presented below:
I. SUBJECTIVE NORM AND SOCIAL CONCERN:

There were seven variables found to be associated with the factor of subjective norm and social concern loading of the variables, communality, percentage of explained variance along with eigen value are given in Table 1.

TABLE NO. 1: Loading of the variables on subjective norm and social concern factor, communality, percentage of explained variance and eigen value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Need for others</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td>.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Beneficial /harmful for others</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td>.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Violent/non-voilent</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td>.964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Whether follows social norms</td>
<td>.917</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Whether others like</td>
<td>.883</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Importance of the instigator</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or person concerned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Social approval</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of variance 78.20
Eigen Value 5.472

The relation of these variables with that of the only subjective norm and social concern is quite obvious. Eigen value of the second factor is less than even .50 All the variables have social concern. The identified factor is different from that
of Ajzen and Fishbien's (1980) subjective norm, who explained it as a belief about how other people will view one's performance of the behaviour. Again, these contain an expectancy element (will this significant other be more or less likely to approve of me if I perform this behaviour?) and a value element, referred to as the 'motivation to comply' (how much do I value this significant other's approval?).

This belief seems to be equivalent to the multiplied value of the significant person and its fondness for the alternative. On the other hand, subjective norm and social concern factor identified by Singh (1997) included not only the important others but liking of the common members of one's society and social approval. It also included the consideration of other's needs, and benefit Violent vs non-violent was also found to be associated with subjective norm being known that violence has negative concern in society. It has negative social implication, and thus, its significant loading on the factors is quite natural.

II. BELIEF OF CONTROL:

There were 10 variables which had significantly high loadings on the above cited factor (i.e., belief of control). Loading of the variables, communality and eigen value are the factors shown below in the table 2.

**TABLE NO 2**: Loading of variables on control belief factor, communality. Percentage of explained variance and eigen value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Self ability</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td>.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Suitability of the time/situation</td>
<td>.902</td>
<td>.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Effective working/control over the procedure</td>
<td>.893</td>
<td>.797</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This factor resembles the 'perceived control' of Ajzen (1991) which required significantly the resources and opportunities as well as the context of choosing behavioral alternatives.

As Ajzen (1991) has explained that perceived control is believed to be developed on the basis of past experiences and second hand informations. Belief of control also considers the prerequisite resources (self ability, effective working / control over procedure, knowledge, difficulties, far / near, cost of work), opportunities (suitability of time / situation) and expectation about success, facilities and difficulties.

iii. VALENCE OF THE WORK :

Four variables were brought into association with the factor valence. The loading of variables on the factor, communality, percentage of explained variance and eigen value of the factor are put forth in table 3.

TABLE NO. 3 : Loading of the variables on the factor valence of the work,
communality percentage of explained variance and eigen value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Necessity of the work</td>
<td>.862</td>
<td>.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Importance of the work</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Beneficial/harmful for self in present</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Beneficial/Harmful for self in future</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>percentage of variance</td>
<td></td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eigen value</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Actually the concept of valence is the similar to concept of Lewin's (1953) valence. Valence is very important factor responsible for behaviours in the field theory of Lewin (1953) and expectancy modal of Vroom (1964). Intensity of the valence of a behavioral alternative depends on the intensity of the need to be satisfied by the behaviour. Need is an internal factor while valence is external factor. According to the field theory, valence is a characteristic of external environment. There will be more than one alternative related to the one's need, and intensity of the different valences would be different and, hence, valence has an important role in selection of alternatives. Further more, the important point in the study of Singh (1997) who holds the view that necessity, importance of work, advantages in the present situation are important determinants of the intensity of valence. Singh (1997) further remarks that not only the beneficence of the work in present but also in future is very important that determine the valence of the work/alternative.
IV. ATTITUDE:

The fourth identified factor was attitude. Seven variables were associated with this factor. Factor loading of the variables on the attitude factor, communality, percentage of explained variance and eigen value are presented in table 4.

TABLE NO : 4 Loading of the variables on attitude factor, communality, percentage of explained variance and eigen value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. N.</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Right/wrong</td>
<td>.890</td>
<td>.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Appropriate/inappropriate</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td>.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Moral/immoral</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Good/bad</td>
<td>.928</td>
<td>.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Like/dislike</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td>.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Interest/lack of interest</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Useful/useless</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>.826</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of Variance : 80.100
Eigen Value : 5.604

The identified factor of attitude is similar to the concept of planned behaviour theory of Ajzen (1991). Attitude towards an object is most important factor in selection of alternatives.

According to Ajzen (1991), attitude refers to the degree which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the attitude object. Fishbien and Ajzen (1975) explained that attitudes developed reasonably from the beliefs people hold.
about the object of attitude.

These are the four factors of discriminating wisdom. Though, discriminating wisdom involves various dimensions on the basis of which one can evaluate whether one should participate in a particular behaviour, studies on decision making reveals that people differ on the use of various dimensions of DW. Actually, the work of discriminating wisdom is to decide specific course of actions. In other words, its function is decision making. People do not use all types of evaluations, and thus, commit errors. As a result, outcome of alternatives vary over time and situation. Existing literature indicates that different persons have different orientations while evaluating different alternatives.

Evaluation of all aspects of an alternative falls into the category of rational decision making. But at many times, evaluation of all aspects of an alternative is not possible due to various reasons. Dietz and Stern (1995) presents a bounded rational model of choice that accommodates individual values and social influences in a process of preference construction. It incorporates the postulation of the subjective expected outcomes, referenced to personal values, but it, presumes that individuals assess sharply truncated lists of relevant options, outcomes, and values and apply a classification logic rather than a calculative one. The model treats cognitive heuristics and various forms of social influence as determinants of selection of the truncated lists, and it treats moral norms as classification rules activated when certain actions and outcomes become salient.

Grunert (1989) studied household investment and revived multiattribute decision theories focusing on their under line construct which included attributes, attribute values, familiarity, strength of relationship. Siderelies, Brothers and Rea (1995) tested assumptions about the sequences of boating activity, destination lake, and launching facilities in a sample of 498 registered boat owners. A decision to participate in the specialized activity was dependent on an individual's decision factors and no lake characteristics.
In the process of evaluation, students consider external influence, availability of financial aid and internal influences (Diamond, 1992), advice of friends, advice of teachers, prospect of learning a job, academic reputation and reasonable cost (Smith & Mathews, 1991), good examination result and good learning facilities (West, Varlaam & Scott, 1991) at the time of selecting their school for further studies. Parents consider some other factors like personal attention, strong curriculum and small classes (Tanner & Griffeth, 1991), discipline, good examination result, quality of teachers, distance from home, pupil-teacher relationship and types of schools (i.e. single sex and mixed sex) (West & Varlaam, 1991; Hunter, 1991) in selection of schools for their children.

Olszewski-Kubilius, (1995) examined factors, including gender, race, ability, previous educational experiences, interests, and parental attitudes, influencing the choices between math, science, and verbal oriented courses of 656 11-16 yrs old gifted students. Male subjects were more likely to select math and science courses over verbal ones. Parental attitudes and previous educational experiences influenced the selection of a math class over a verbal course. Parental attitudes and race influenced the selection of a science course over a verbal course. The importance that parents place on mathematics and science for the subject's future had the most powerful influence over subject's selections compared to other variables and appears to offset negative attitudes that might prevent girls from selecting math courses.

Tanaka, (1996) investigated goals related to choices of easy, intermediate, and difficult tasks with 187 preschool children (aged 54-76 mo). Subjects choose an easy task when their goals are to receive a favourable estimation by others (estimation goal), an intermediate task when they are interested in the task (task goal), and a difficult task when their concerns were focused on the value of success (value of success goal).

identifies issues in need of greater attention, and assesses the potential strengths
and limitations of contemporary choice models for making policy impact assessments.
They suggested that studies must consider the following issues: (1) different forms
of decision making processes, (2) the individual's choice of physician, (3) geographic
distribution of physicians, and (4) choice constraints in populations.

In respect of contraceptive use, young unmarried girls evaluate partners influences,
salience of pregnancy, positive side effect of contraceptive oral pills (Weisman, Plichta,
Noothansan, Chase, et. al. 1991), perception of pregnancy risk, knowledge of
reproductive biology, knowledge of contraceptive options (Reschersky & Genrer,
behavior, as part of a 5-wave panel design of diaphragm and pill users from New
York City. 525 women (201 diaphragm and 324 pill users; aged 14-46 yrs), who
came to 1 of 10 family planning clinics to obtain birth control, were examined on
hazard functions and self-reported, nonside-effect based reasons for contraceptive
switching. Results show that hazard rate increased in the initial weeks and then
gradually declined over time, approximately 45% of diaphragm and 70% of pill users
had switched after 5 months, and clinic experiences were found to alter survivorship
trends.

Researches indicate that purchasing is a complex behaviour includes evaluation
of functional, conditional, social, emotional, and epistemic use of material (Shefu,
motivated true variety-seeking purchasing behavior from extrinsically motivated derived
behavior, and examined motivating product category level factors. A representative
sample of 1,000 Dutch households reported their use of 4 different products, over
a 15-week period. The intensity of brand, switching and the underlying motives
for switching behavior were assessed through 7 major predictor variables: need
for variety, involvement, perceived differences between brands, hedonic features, strength
of preference, and purchase frequency and history. Over all, results indicated that
category-level variables did affect variety seeking intensity, both as main effects
and in interaction with individual needs for variety.

Moore and Dolsharsky (1989) examined brand choice in relation to price discount, and familiarity of the brand. They hypothesized that a deep price discount produces a decrease in the desirability of the discounted brand under choice conditions involving unfamiliar brand and/or a discount store. Subjects with full time job viewed photographs of 4 brand of shirts, and were asked to choose which they would buy. Size of price discount, familiar vs unfamiliar brand and discount vs department store were the independent variables. Results support the assumptions that the desirability of a discounted unfamiliar brand does not continue to increase as the size of the price discount increase.

It is not true for all product categories. Separate variables are important in decision making regarding their purchasing. Hoyer and Cobb (1988) conducted two studies in which 227 shoppers (aged 23-25 yrs) completed a mail questionnaire and 175 age-matched shoppers were interviewed on the point of purchase regarding their choice behaviour across 19 non-durable product categories. Results indicated considerable variation in choice both with subjects and across decision contexts. Performance/satisfaction was the most popular decision heuristic. Overall price was a chosen tactic for certain product categories such as facial tissues. Under condition of heavy advertising, subjects were less likely to use price tactic, and as the number of brand in category increased, subjects were less likely to use a price than performance decision tactics.

Separate sets of factors were identified by Eckman, Damhorst and Kadolph (1990) involved in the two purchase (of garment) process phases, i.e., interest phase and trial phase. The most important criteria subjects used to evaluate a garment were related to aesthetics. Comparison of responses of subjects who purchased and primary effects in the two stages of the purchase. During the interest phase colour/pattern styling, and fabric were most critical in influencing selection of garments from display racks. Fitness styling and appearance were more important in determining rejection or adoption of the garments during the trial phase.

Effect of alternative (brand) awareness on choice for a common and repeat purchase product was analysed by Hoyer and Brown (1990). Results showed
that brand awareness was a dominant choice for heuristics among awareness group. Their subjects experienced in the purchase of peanut butter and were asked to make a series of decisions regarding a brand choice. Subjects with no brand awareness tended to sample more brands and selected the high-quality brand. On the final choice significantly more often than the subjects with brand awareness. It indicates the awareness of brands leads to limited search.

Mellers & Cooke (1996) designed to determine the way in which both context and task influence preference measurement. Subjects evaluated apartments described by monthly rent and distance to campus using 2 different task in 2 different global contexts. With the task hold constant, preference orders for the same pair of apartments reversed in the 2 different contexts. With the context hold constant, preference orders for the same pair of apartments reversed in the 2 tasks. Out of 25 apartments common to all 4 conditions, the preference rank of the apartment that was most expensive and closest to campus ranged from the 28th to the 80th percentile. It is argued that the global context influenced the scale values and the task influenced the weights of the attributes.

Yamagishi (1996) examined cognitive processes that underlie positive and negative valence effects. (VEs) in 187 college students by using a focus shift model (FSM). The FSM postulates that choice options are represented as sets of desirable and undesirable features. Positive and negative VEs reflect the differences in subjective weighting depending on valence of judgments. Three experiments showed that systematic positive VEs were observed in the domain of gains, whereas negative VEs were observed in the domain of losses. Estimates of subjective weights showed that VEs occurred when subjects heavily weighted desirable features in preferred options and undesirable features in less preferred options. Patterns of subjective weighting for VEs were consistent with the FSM.

A critical analysis of Singh (1997) and above studies indicates that people have different orientations at the time of evaluations of different alternatives. It may be concluded that people differ on discriminating wisdom orientations. On the basis of different dimensions of evaluations one can be classified for his wisdom orientation.
Above description is hypothetical, and has to be empirically tested. The present study, therefore, was designed to explore the discriminating wisdom orientations, and to prepare a scientific measure to assess individual differences regarding wisdom orientations.

The present research included its two parts. Part I included the study to examine (i) whether discriminating wisdom is an enduring characteristic, (ii) whether factors of the wisdom are normally distributed, and (iii) whether subjects would show any wisdom orientation. Part II was based on the results of part I. It was assumed that wisdom orientation is a normally distributed psychological attribute and thus, it could be measured. The second study, therefore, was an attempt to develop a psychological tool to measure the wisdom orientations. A brief description of both the parts is given in chapter two and chapter three.