

ADVOCACY SKILLS (209)

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UNIT-I

PERSONALITY, MEANING AND DEFINITION

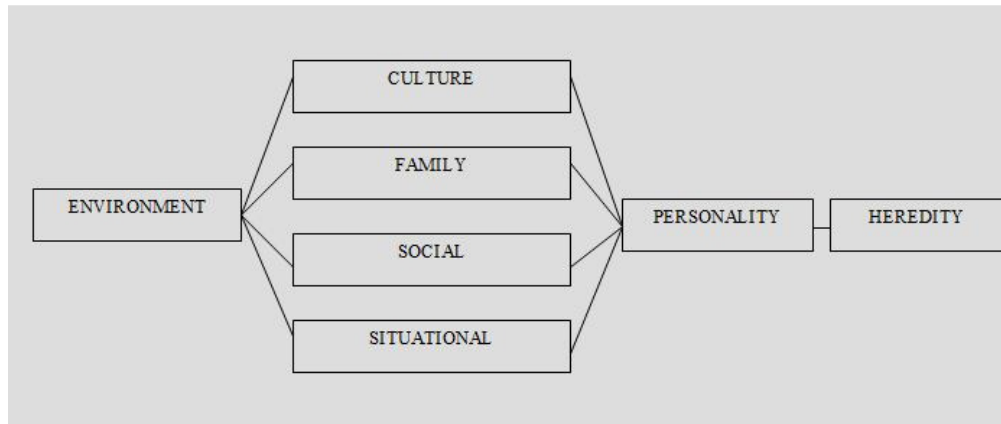
A) *DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY*

Before discussing the *DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY*, it is necessary to define that WHAT 'PERSONALITY?' IS I have already defined it with quiet a detail in my other article. To read about Personality in *detail*,

It is generally known that "Personality is the outcome of continuous personal quality development process. There may be different roles played by a single personality in different situations. So the personality is best recognized, defined and analyzed in a given particular situation.

Personality is the wide term, which is the result or net effect of different circumstances and factors. There are many factors which affect personality or which determine the personality. Few among them are as follows:

- *Heredity*
- *Brain*
- *Family Background*
- *Social group*
- *Situation*
- *Cultural Factor*
- *Physical Features*



1) Heredity

Heredity is the transmission of qualities from generation to generation. This can happen due to chromosomes of the germ cell. Heredity predisposes to certain physical, mental, emotional states. It has been established through research on animals that physical and psychological factor may be transmitted through heredity. It has been concluded from various researches that heredity plays an important part in determining an individual's personality.

(2) Brain

It is the second biological factor that affects the personality of a person. The role of brain in personality formation is very important. If a person's brain is sharp, he can understand the situation better and take prompt decision. This improves his personality.

(3) Family Background (Members)

Parents and other family members have strong influence on the personality development of the child. Parents have more influence on the personality development of a child as compared to other members of the family.

Family influences the behaviour of a person especially in early stages. The nature of such influence will depend upon the following factors:-

- ✓ Family Size
- ✓ Birth Order



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- ✓ Race
- ✓ Religion
- ✓ Geographic location
- ✓ Parent's educational level
- ✓ Socio- economic level of family

For Instance: -

The study made by Newcomb showed that there is higher co-relation between attitude of parents and children than that between the children and their teachers.

(4) Social Groups

Besides a person's home environment and family members, there are other influences arising from the social placement of the family as the person is exposed to agencies outside the home (i.e. social groups) these social groups includes school mates, friends, colleagues at work place or any other group to which an individual belongs because "A man is known by the company he keeps." Similarly, socio-economic factors also affect personality development.

(5) Situation

Situational factors may also play an important role in determination of human personality. Many a times, the behavior of a person is determined not by how that man is but by what the situation is in which he is places. An employee who is hard working and always gets ahead may prove lazy and trouble maker if he is put under unfavorable situation. This aspect is very important because it can be kept in control by the management.

(6) Culture

According to Hoebel- "*Culture is the sum total learned behavior trait which manifested and shared by the member of the society*"

In other words "*It is a unique system of perception, belief, values, norms, pattern of behaviour of individual in a given society*"

Culture is the factor which determines the decision making power of an individual. It includes independence, competition, artistic talent, and aggression, Co-operation etc.

Each culture expects that the person should behave in a way, which is accepted by the group. Personal belonging to different cultural groups has different attitudes. Every culture has their own sub-culture also. However, a direct relationship cannot be established between personality and given culture.

(7) Physical Features

The physical features of the individual also have a great impact on personality of an individual. Physical features include height, weight and such other physical aspect of an individual.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS OF PERSONALITY:

The term personality has been defined differently by different psychologists. According to Morton Prince. 'Personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, aptitudes and instincts of the individual and the acquired disposition and tendencies".

Floyd Allport says 'personality traits may be considered as so many important dimensions in which people may be found to differ."

Watson opines that personality is everything that we do.

A 'psychologist agrees on certain common basic characteristic. One of the quite common facts is that personality itself is unique. The second is that it is the product of its own functioning. It is an organized whole and not a mere loose and random combination of different traits. It is unity or a dynamic organization of all the various psychological and physical traits.

This means that both the mental as well as the bodily traits are combined dynamically in the formation of a personality, personality is not a something passive but a creative organisation playing an active role in making adjustments to the environment. Thus, in brief, personality is a comprehensive concept that give importance on the growth and behaviour of the child as an organised whole. Factors Affecting Personality

As personality is developed within the social framework, as such, many factors contribute to its development. For an easy understanding, the factors that affect personality are classified into two groups:

(i) Biological Factors

(ii) Environmental Factors Biological Factors

The biological factors are of biogenic by nature and include those of heredity, endocrine glands, physique and physical condition, nervous system, etc. A vivid description of these is given below:

1. Heredity:

Heredity is indeed, an important factor in personality development. Almost every form of personality has been attributed to heredity. Today it is believed that hereditary traits are transmitted through the genes. This can be clearly understood according to Mendel's theory of dominant and recessive genes.

According to Mendel, genes are the carriers of hereditary traits in the sense that they maintain integrity, particular constitution and properties in unaltered form from one generation to the next.

The traits and skills acquired by the parent may not modify the genes but just pass on to the children just as they are whichever genes carrying hereditary trait is dominant, the trait will pass on to the children from their parents just as it is. For instance, the child inherits complexion, physique, intelligence, etc. from his parents.

2. Physique:

Physique refers to the relatively enduring, biological makeup and liabilities of an individual resulting from both genetic and environmental influences which determine his reactive potentialities.

Since ancient periods, it has been accepted that physique effects personality. Kreschmer and Sheldom are credited for their contribution in predicting general personality and behaviour patterns on the basis of mere physique.

3. Endocrine Glands:

The endocrine glands are characterized for interaction and interdependence. These glands secrete hormones. Any over-activity or under-activity of these glands can cause increase or decrease in hormones resulting in personality disorder as given below:

(i) Thyroid:

Thyroid gland secretes thyroxin. Any excess of the hormone leads to tension and unstableness, whereas its deficiency takes one to imbecile level.

(ii) Parathyroid:

This gland is responsible for calcium equilibrium in the body. Over-activity of this gland causes irritation, emotional instability, etc.

(iii) Pituitary. This gland secretes somatotropin. It controls the other glands of the body. The excess of this hormone causes acromegaly whereas its deficiency causes dwarfism.

(iv) Adrenal:

This gland secretes cortisone and adrenin. Cortisone deficiency results in increased fatigability, anaemia, loss of appetite, etc. While adrenin is discharged in times of great emotional stress.

(v) Gonads:

This gland secretes testosterone and androsterone that are responsible for growth of male sex organs and estrogens and progesterins in females promote sexual maturity.

4. Nervous System:

Nervous system too influences personality development. Mental abilities, sensory-motor skill are also determined by the nervous system. The autonomic nervous system and the central nervous system are responsible for personality development.

5. Environment Factors:

The environment is everything that affects the individual except his genes. The environment of an individual consists of the sum total of the stimulation which he receives from his conception to birth. As a matter of fact the following environmental factors have to be taken into consideration.

(a) Home:

The effect of home in personality has been accepted by everyone. Home has much bearing on the personality development of an individual. Parents behaviour and attitude, their expectations from the child, their education and attention to the child, influences the child's personality.

Mischel found from his study that absence of father effects the socialization of the child. Hurlock pointed out from the basis of his study that "even though children from small and medium sized homes are often played with sibling rivalry and jealousy, parental overprotection and suspicion of parental favouritism, they generally make better adjustments to life and are happier than children from large families.' In the same way economic status of the family also influences child's personality.

(b) School:

After home school is the next socializing agent, by the fact that the child spends most of his time with his peers. Hellersberg found from his study that after parents the most influencing factor on a person's personality is the school.

In school he comes in contact with his teachers whose personality influences and he adopts his teachers style of life, etc. He sees the teacher as his ideal. His personality is also to a great extent, influenced by peer interaction. His peers whom he like influence him and he tries to adopt whatever he likes in them. The school atmosphere, discipline of the school, etc. also influence the student's personality.

(c) Maturation and Personality:

Personality is also influenced by maturation. Maturation improves the coordination of numerous relationships. Maturation provides raw material for learning and determines to a large extent the more general patterns and sequences of child's behaviour.

(d) Early Experience:

Personality is also influenced by one's early experiences. If a person suffers bitter experiences, he is often is subjected to undue thwartings at the early stage of life, regress to interests from outer to inner spheres and become self-centred.

(e) Success and Failures:

Success and failure also play a key role in the determination of personality. This influences one's adjustment and self-concept Success motivates the individual for more attempts and success in future. It heightens one's level of aspiration and makes the individual about his abilities whereas failure leads to the development of negative traits, i.e., inferiority feeling, low aspiration, escape and blame, etc.

B) THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

The study of personality is based on the essential insight that all people are similar in some ways, yet different in others. There have been many different definitions of personality proposed. However, many contemporary psychologists agree on the following definition:

Personality is that pattern of characteristic thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that distinguishes one person from another and that persists over time and situations.

➤ **Trait theories**

According to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* of the American Psychiatric Association, personality traits are "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts." Theorists generally assume that a) traits are relatively stable over time, b) traits differ among individuals, and c) traits influence behavior. They consistently are used in order to help define people as a whole. Traits are relatively constant; they do not usually change. Traits are also bipolar; they vary along a continuum between one extreme and the other (e.g. friendly vs. unfriendly).

The most common models of traits incorporate three to five broad dimensions or factors. All trait theories incorporate at least two dimensions, extraversion and neuroticism, which historically featured in Hippocrates' humoral theory.

- Gordon Allport delineated different kinds of traits, which he also called dispositions. *Central traits* are basic to an individual's personality, while *secondary traits* are more peripheral. *Common traits* are those recognized within a culture and thus may vary from culture to culture. *Cardinal traits* are those by which an individual may be strongly recognized. In his book, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*, Gordon Allport (1937) both established personality psychology as a legitimate intellectual discipline and introduced the first of the modern trait theories.
- Raymond Cattell's research propagated a two-tiered personality structure with sixteen "primary factors" (16 Personality Factors) and five "secondary factors." In Cattell's lengthy career, he had written 50 books, 500 journals, and 30 different types of standardized tests. For Cattell, personality itself was defined in terms of behavioral prediction. He defined personality as *that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation*.
- John Gittinger's theory and its application the Personality Assessment System (PAS)) uses the Wechsler intelligence tests, which are well standardized and objective instruments rather than self-report tests. PAS factors out personality traits (primitivity) and two additional levels, Basic and Surface, which are adaptations by environmentally induced pressures and learning. Gittinger's multivariate personality descriptions exceed 500 data-based outcome descriptions.
- Hans Eysenck believed just three traits extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism—were sufficient to describe human personality. Differences between Cattell and Eysenck emerged due to preferences for different forms of factor analysis, with Cattell using oblique, Eysenck orthogonal rotation to analyze the factors that emerged when personality questionnaires were subjected to statistical analysis. Today, the Big Five factors have the weight of a considerable amount of empirical research behind them, building on the work of Cattell and others. Eysenck, along with another contemporary in trait psychology named J. P. Guilford (1959), believed that the resultant trait factors obtained from factor analysis should be statistically independent of one another—that is, the factors should be arranged (rotated) so that they are uncorrelated or orthogonal (at right angles) to one another.

- Lewis Goldberg proposed a five-dimension personality model, nicknamed the "Big Five":
 1. *Openness to Experience*: the tendency to be imaginative, independent, and interested in variety vs. practical, conforming, and interested in routine.
 2. *Conscientiousness*: the tendency to be organized, careful, and disciplined vs. disorganized, careless, and impulsive.
 3. *Extraversion*: the tendency to be sociable, fun-loving, and affectionate vs. retiring, somber, and reserved.
 4. *Agreeableness*: the tendency to be softhearted, trusting, and helpful vs. ruthless, suspicious, and uncooperative.
 5. *Neuroticism*: the tendency to be calm, secure, and self-satisfied vs. anxious, insecure, and self-pitying.

The Big Five contain important dimensions of personality. However, some personality researchers argue that this list of major traits is not exhaustive. Some support has been found for two additional factors: excellent/ordinary and evil/decent. However, no definitive conclusions have been established.

- Michael Ashton and Kibeom Lee, in 2008, proposed a six dimensional HEXACO model of personality structure. The HEXACO personality traits/factors are: Honesty-Humility (H), Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C), and Openness to Experience (O). The three dimensions - Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience are considered to be basically the same as their counterpart dimensions in the Big Five Model. However, in the HEXACO model, Honesty-Humility, Emotionality and Agreeableness differ from the Neuroticism and Agreeableness factors of the Big Five Model. Ashton and Lee especially emphasize the Honesty-Humility (H) factor as differentiating the HEXACO model from other personality frameworks. Specifically, the H factor is described as sincere, honest, faithful/loyal, modest/unassuming, fair-minded, *VERSUS* sly, deceitful, greedy, pretentious, hypocritical, boastful and pompous. The H factor has been linked to criminal, materialistic, power-seeking and unethical tendencies.



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Trait models have been criticized as being purely descriptive and offering little explanation of the underlying causes of personality. Eysenck's theory, however, proposes biological mechanisms as driving traits, and modern behavior genetics researchers have shown a clear genetic substrate to them.^[vague] Another potential weakness of trait theories is that they may lead some people to accept oversimplified classifications—or worse, offer advice—based on a superficial analysis of personality. Finally, trait models often underestimate the effect of specific situations on people's behavior.

Traits are considered to be statistical generalizations that do not always correspond to an individual's behavior.

The importance that genetic influences have on personality characteristics can change across a five-year period. Age differences create more variables even within a family, so the best comparisons are found using twins. Twins typically share a family environment called a shared environment because they may share other aspects like teachers, school, and friends. A non-shared environment means completely different environment for both subjects. "Biologically related children who are separated after birth and raised in different families live in non-shared environments." Identical twins separated at birth and raised in different families constitute the best cases for heredity and personality because similarities between the two are due only to genetic influences. Vulnerability was a factor in this study that was taken into consideration regarding the issue of genetic influences on vulnerability. The study concluded that the monozygotic co-twins would be more similar than dizygotic co-twins in change over time. The data concluded that there were no significant differences for either variances between the monozygotic and dizygotic co-twins.

Another current open question is whether genetic influences are important for the likeliness of co-twins to change in the same way over a period of time. A link was found between the personality trait of neuroticism and a polymorphism called 5-HTTLPR in the serotonin transporter gene, but this association was not replicated in larger studies. Other candidate gene studies have provided weak evidence that some personality traits are related to *AVPR1A* ("ruthlessness gene") and *MAOA* ("Warrior gene"). Genotypes, or the genetic make up of an organism, influence but don't fully decide the physical traits of a person. Those are also influenced by the environment and behaviors they are surrounded by. For example, a person's height is affected by genetics, but if they are malnourished growth will be stunted no matter what their genetic coding says. Environment is also not completely responsible for an outcome in personality. An example from *Psychobiology of*



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Personality by Marvin Zuckerman is alcoholism: Studies suggest that alcoholism is an inherited disease, but if a subject with a strong biological background of alcoholism in their family tree is never exposed to alcohol, they will not be so inclined regardless of their genome.

It is also a question open to debate whether there are genetic influences on the tendency of the co-twins to change, without keeping in mind the direction of the change. Another factor that can be addressed is biological versus adoptive relatives, and can be clearly seen in what is a real-life experiment, adoption. This creates two groups: genetic relatives (biological parents and siblings) and environmental relatives (adoptive parents and siblings). After studying hundreds of adoptive families, the discovery was that people who grow up together, whether biologically related or not, do not much resemble one another in personality. In characteristics such as extroversion and agreeableness, adoptees are more like their biological parents than to their adoptive parents. However, the minute shared-environment effects do not mean that adoptive parenting is ineffective. Even though genetics may limit the family environment's influence on personality, parents do influence their children's attitudes, values, faith, manners and politics. In adoptive homes, child neglect and abuse and even divorce between the parents is uncommon. In accordance to that, it is not surprising, despite a somewhat greater risk of psychological disorder, most adopted children excel, especially when they're adopted as infants. In fact, seven out of eight have reported feeling a strong connection with one or even both of their adoptive parents.

➤ **Type theories**

Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality types are distinguished from personality traits, which come in different levels or degrees. For example, according to type theories, there are two types of people, introverts and extroverts. According to trait theories, introversion and extroversion are part of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle. The idea of psychological types originated in the theoretical work of Carl Jung and William Marston, whose work is reviewed in Dr. Travis Bradberry's *Self-Awareness*. Jung's seminal 1921 book on the subject is available in English as *Psychological Types*.

Building on the writings and observations of Jung during World War II, Isabel Briggs Myers and her mother, Katharine C. Briggs, delineated personality types by constructing the Myers-Briggs Type



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Indicator. This model was later used by David Keirsey with a different understanding from Jung, Briggs and Myers. In the former Soviet Union, Lithuanian Aušra Augustinavičiūtė independently derived a model of personality type from Jung's called Socionics.

The model is an older and more theoretical approach to personality, accepting extroversion and introversion as basic psychological orientations in connection with two pairs of psychological functions:

- *Perceiving functions*: sensing and intuition (trust in concrete, sensory-oriented facts vs. trust in abstract concepts and imagined possibilities)
- *Judging functions*: thinking and feeling (basing decisions primarily on logic vs. considering the effect on people).

Briggs and Myers also added another personality dimension to their type indicator to measure whether a person prefers to use a judging or perceiving function when interacting with the external world. Therefore they included questions designed to indicate whether someone wishes to come to conclusions (judgment) or to keep options open (perception).

This personality typology has some aspects of a trait theory: it explains people's behaviour in terms of opposite fixed characteristics. In these more traditional models, the sensing/intuition preference is considered the most basic, dividing people into "N" (intuitive) or "S" (sensing) personality types. An "N" is further assumed to be guided either by thinking or feeling, and divided into the "NT" (scientist, engineer) or "NF" (author, humanitarian) temperament. An "S", by contrast, is assumed to be guided more by the judgment/perception axis, and thus divided into the "SJ" (guardian, traditionalist) or "SP" (performer, artisan) temperament. These four are considered basic, with the other two factors in each case (including always extraversion/introversion) less important. Critics of this traditional view have observed that the types can be quite strongly stereotyped by professions (although neither Myers nor Keirsey engaged in such stereotyping in their type descriptions, and thus may arise more from the need to categorize people for purposes of guiding their career choice. This among other objections led to the emergence of the five-factor view, which is less concerned with behavior under work conditions and more concerned with behavior in personal and emotional circumstances. (It should be noted, however, that the MBTI is not designed to measure the "work self", but rather what Myers and McCaulley called the "shoes-off self." Some critics have argued for more or fewer dimensions while



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others have proposed entirely different theories (often assuming different definitions of "personality").

Type A and Type B personality theory: During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behavior patterns. They theorized that intense, hard-driving Type A personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease because they are "stress junkies." Type B people, on the other hand, tended to be relaxed, less competitive, and lower in risk. There was also a Type AB mixed profile.

John L. Holland's *RIASEC* vocational model, commonly referred to as the *Holland Codes*, stipulates that six personality types lead people to choose their career paths. In this circumplex model, the six types are represented as a hexagon, with adjacent types more closely related than those more distant. The model is widely used in vocational counseling.

➤ **Psychoanalytic Theories**

Psychoanalytic theories explain human behavior in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud was the founder of this school of thought. Freud drew on the physics of his day (thermodynamics) to coin the term psychodynamics. Based on the idea of converting heat into mechanical energy, he proposed psychic energy could be converted into behavior. Freud's theory places central importance on dynamic, unconscious psychological conflicts.

Freud divides human personality into three significant components: the id, ego, and super-ego. The **id** acts according to the *pleasure principle*, demanding immediate gratification of its needs regardless of external environment; the **ego** then must emerge in order to realistically meet the wishes and demands of the id in accordance with the outside world, adhering to the *reality principle*. Finally, the **superego**(conscience) inculcates moral judgment and societal rules upon the ego, thus forcing the demands of the id to be met not only realistically but morally. The superego is the last function of the personality to develop, and is the embodiment of parental/social ideals established during childhood. According to Freud, personality is based on the dynamic interactions of these three components.



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The channeling and release of sexual (libidal) and aggressive energies, which ensues from the "Eros" (sex; instinctual self-preservation) and "Thanatos" (death; instinctual self-annihilation) drives respectively, are major components of his theory. It is important to note that Freud's broad understanding of sexuality included all kinds of pleasurable feelings experienced by the human body.

Freud proposed five psychosexual stages of personality development. He believed adult personality is dependent upon early childhood experiences and largely determined by age five. Fixations that develop during the infantile stage contribute to adult personality and behavior.

One of Sigmund Freud's earlier associates, Alfred Adler, did agree with Freud that early childhood experiences are important to development and believed birth order may influence personality development. Adler believed that the oldest child was the individual who would set high achievement goals in order to gain attention lost when the younger siblings were born. He believed the middle children were competitive and ambitious. He reasoned that this behavior was motivated by the idea of surpassing the firstborn's achievements. He added, however, that the middle children were often not as concerned about the glory attributed with their behavior. He also believed the youngest would be more dependent and sociable. Adler finished by surmising that an only child loves being the center of attention and matures quickly but in the end fails to become independent.

Heinz Kohut thought similarly to Freud's idea of transference. He used narcissism as a model of how people develop their sense of self. Narcissism is the exaggerated sense of one self in which one is believed to exist in order to protect one's low self-esteem and sense of worthlessness. Kohut had a significant impact on the field by extending Freud's theory of narcissism and introducing what he called the 'self-object transferences' of mirroring and idealization. In other words, children need to idealize and emotionally "sink into" and identify with the idealized competence of admired figures such as parents or older siblings. They also need to have their self-worth mirrored by these people. These experiences allow them to thereby learn the self-soothing and other skills that are necessary for the development of a healthy sense of self.

Another important figure in the world of personality theory is Karen Horney. She is credited with the development of the "real self" and the "ideal self". She believes all people have these two views of

their own self. The "real self" is how humans act with regard to personality, values, and morals; but the "ideal self" is a construct individuals implement in order to conform to social and personal norms.

LEARNING THEORY

Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) was a Russian scientist interested in studying how digestion works in mammals. He observed and recorded information about dogs and their digestive process. As part of his work, he began to study what triggers dogs to salivate. It should have been an easy study: mammals produce saliva to help them break down food, so the dogs should have simply began drooling when presented with food.

But what Pavlov discovered when he observed the dogs was that drooling had a much more far-reaching effect than he ever thought: it paved the way for a new theory about behavior and a new way to study humans.

Classical Conditioning

The people who fed Pavlov's dogs wore lab coats. Pavlov noticed that the dogs began to drool whenever they saw lab coats, even if there was no food in sight. Pavlov wondered why the dogs salivated at lab coats, and not just at food. He ran a study in which he rang a bell every time he fed the dogs. Pretty soon, just ringing a bell made the dogs salivate.

Pavlov said that the dogs were demonstrating **classical conditioning**. He summed it up like this: there's a **neutral stimulus** (the bell), which by itself will not produce a response (like salivation). There's also a non-neutral or **unconditioned stimulus** (the food), which will produce an **unconditioned response** (salivation). But if you present the neutral stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus together, eventually the dog will learn to associate the two. After a while, the neutral stimulus by itself will produce the same response as the unconditioned stimulus (like the dogs drooling when they heard the bell). This is called a **conditioned response**.

UNIT-II

ATTITUDE

A) MEANING AND DEFINITION

A predisposition or a tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain idea, object, person, or situation. Attitude influences an individual's choice of action, and responses to challenges, incentives, and rewards (together called stimuli).

Four major components of attitude are

- (1) Affective: emotions or feelings.
- (2) Cognitive: belief or opinions held consciously.
- (3) Conative: inclination for action.
- (4) Evaluative: positive or negative response to stimuli.

An **attitude** is an expression of favor or disfavor toward a person, place, thing, or event (the **attitude object**). Prominent psychologist Gordon Allport once described attitudes "the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology.". Attitude can be formed from a person's past and present. Attitude is also measurable and changeable as well as influencing the person's emotion and behavior.

In lay language, attitude may refer to the distinct concept of mood, or be especially synonymous with teenage rebellion.

An attitude can be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, event, activities, ideas, or just about anything in your environment, but there is debate about precise definitions. Eagly and Chaiken, for example, define an attitude "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor." Though it is sometimes common to define an

attitude as affect toward an object, affect (i.e., discrete emotions or overall arousal) is generally understood to be distinct from attitude as a measure of favorability.

This definition of attitude allows for one's evaluation of an attitude object to vary from extremely negative to extremely positive, but also admits that people can also be conflicted or ambivalent toward an object meaning that they might at different times express both positive and negative attitude toward the same object. This has led to some discussion of whether individual can hold multiple attitudes toward the same object.

Whether attitudes are explicit (i.e., deliberately formed) versus implicit (i.e., subconscious) has been a topic of considerable research. Research on implicit attitudes, which are generally unacknowledged or outside of awareness, uses sophisticated methods involving people's response times to stimuli to show that implicit attitudes exist (perhaps in tandem with explicit attitudes of the same object). Implicit and explicit attitudes seem to affect people's behavior, though in different ways. They tend not to be strongly associated with each other, although in some cases they are. The relationship between them is poorly understood.

Jung's definition

Attitude is one of Jung's 57 definitions in Chapter XI of *Psychological Types*. Jung's definition of attitude is a "readiness of the psyche to act or react in a certain way" (Jung, [1921] 1971:par. 687). Attitudes very often come in pairs, one conscious and the other unconscious. Within this broad definition Jung defines several attitudes.

The main (but not only) attitude dualities that Jung defines are the following.

- Consciousness and the unconscious. The "presence of two attitudes is extremely frequent, one conscious and the other unconscious. This means that consciousness has a constellation of contents different from that of the unconscious, a duality particularly evident in neurosis" (Jung, [1921] 1971: par. 687).
- Extraversion and introversion. This pair is so elementary to Jung's theory of types that he labeled them the "attitude-types".
- Rational and irrational attitudes. "I conceive reason as an attitude" (Jung, [1921] 1971: par. 785).



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- The rational attitude subdivides into the thinking and feeling psychological functions, each with its attitude.
- The irrational attitude subdivides into the sensing and intuition psychological functions, each with its attitude. "There is thus a typical thinking, feeling, sensation, and intuitive attitude" (Jung, [1921] 1971: par. 691).
- Individual and social attitudes. Many of the latter are "isms".

In addition, Jung discusses the abstract attitude. "When I take an abstract attitude..." (Jung, [1921] 1971: par. 679). Abstraction is contrasted with creationism. "CREATIONISM. By this I mean a peculiarity of thinking and feeling which the antithesis of abstraction is" (Jung, [1921] 1971: par. 696). For example: "I hate his attitude for being Sarcastic."

TYPES OF ATTITUDES

Attitude is something that lies between emotions and thought processing. Attitude may be positive or negative. If someone has good feelings about something e.g. towards his/her work, or people, then it is positive attitude otherwise it would be negative.

✓ **Positive attitude:**

The predisposition that results in desirable outcomes for individuals and organizations can be described as positive attitude. Positive attitudes are rewarded. It means the individual is encouraged to do the same thing in future.

✓ **Negative attitude:**

The tendency of a person that results in an undesirable outcome for individuals and organizations can be described as negative attitude. Negative attitudes are punished in order to discourage the same action in future.

FORMATION OF ATTITUDE

Individual attitudes develop through the interaction of complex forces and are learnt.

And what is learnt can be unlearned or changed. We develop our attitudes from copying those people who are important to us (significant others), particularly parents and siblings. Religious beliefs are good examples

Rewards and punishments associated with certain actions make individuals acquire beliefs and accordingly result in building personal attitudes. Demonstration effect from friends and playmates play an important role towards developing attitudes. Media or persuasive communications also help develop certain attitudes. Often our attitudes towards politics come from information or persuasive communications from media

Theories of Attitude Formation and Change

➤ Functionalist theory

Daniel Katz proposed a functionalist theory of attitudes. He takes the view that attitudes are determined by the functions they serve for us. People hold given attitudes because these attitudes help them achieve their basic goals. Katz distinguishes four types of psychological functions that attitudes meet.

A. Instrumental - we develop favorable attitudes towards things that aid or reward us. We want to maximize rewards and minimize penalties. Katz says we develop attitudes that help us meet this goal. We favor political parties that will advance our economic lot - if we are in business, we favor the party that will keep our taxes low, if unemployed we favor one that will increase social welfare benefits. We are more likely to change our attitudes if doing so allows us to fulfill our goals or avoid undesirable consequences.

B. Knowledge - attitudes provide meaningful, structured environment. In life we seek some degree of order, clarity, and stability in our personal frame of reference. Attitudes help supply us with standards of

evaluation. Via such attitudes as stereotypes, we can bring order and clarity to the complexities of human life.

C. Value-expressive - Express basic values, reinforce self-image. EX: if you view yourself as a Catholic, you can reinforce that image by adopting Catholic beliefs and values. EX: We may have a self-image of ourselves as an enlightened conservative or a militant radical, and we therefore cultivate attitudes that we believe indicate such a core value.

D. Ego-defensive - Some attitudes serve to protect us from acknowledging basic truths about ourselves or the harsh realities of life. They serve as defense mechanisms. EX: Those with feelings of inferiority may develop attitude of superiority.

Katz's functionalist theory also offers an explanation as to why attitudes change. According to Katz, an attitude changes when it no longer serves its function and the individual feels blocked or frustrated. That is, according to Katz, attitude change is achieved not so much by changing a person's information or perception about an object, but rather by changing the person's underlying motivational and personality needs.

Example: As your social status increases, your attitudes toward your old car may change - you need something that better reflects your new status. (For that matter, your attitudes toward your old friends may change as well).

NEGATIVE ATTITUDE AND OBJECTIVES

A negative attitude is a frame of mind whereby a person is unhappy and feels that everything is unfair and is working against their overall happiness. A negative attitude is brought about by wrong beliefs, which are brought about by people or other influences. They indicate that a person's life is meaningless and pointless and makes a person to feel very unhappy.

Limiting beliefs. The main cause of negative attitude is wrong beliefs about life or certain aspects of it. You see the life through your beliefs and if your beliefs are negative, you will see your life as unhappy or

downright pointless. So to change such attitude you need to change your beliefs. Read this article about NLP Techniques to change your beliefs (look at the technique no.5).

Negative family/friends. It seems that your friends and family affect how you feel and if your family is negative, they cause your bad attitude. That's, however, not the case because only you can decide how you feel. I know this may seem unreal to those who hear it for the first time, but you and only you can decide how to react to anything that happens to you.

You don't have to get upset when someone tries to get you upset. You can choose to remain calm or even be happy. If you allow others to decide how you should feel, you let them have control over you. That's, of course, not a wise decision since people usually mind their own well-being first.

You always have choices. If your family is negative, for example, you can choose to live away from them or at least see them less often. If your friends are negative, you can simply refuse to be with them. This will definitely be beneficial because then nobody will reinforce your negative beliefs and thus cause your negative attitude. Remember, however, that you attracted your friends and because of that you have the power to attract better ones.

Negative environment. If you do not see the relation between your thoughts and the environment that you find yourself in, it's no surprise that you assume that you have no power to change it. So when you think you are powerless over your environment and your environment is negative, that causes your negative attitude.

To change that you need to understand that your thinking led you to this environment and it wasn't so simply by accident. So to change your negative environment you need to change your thinking which will be described further on in this article.

Unsatisfying circumstances/life. If you find yourself complaining about how unhappy you are, it's exactly the reason you have such a negative attitude. It may be hard at first to understand and accept this but the quicker you do, the quicker you will be able to change your life for the better. Your complaining alone can keep you stuck in the circumstances that you find unsatisfying. So to change your life you should stop complaining and start working on improving your life.

The Consequences of Negative Attitude

Negative attitude shortens your life. The more often you become angry, upset or frustrated, the less days you will have left to live. I know this is extreme, but that's how it is. You are shortening your life every time you let negative emotions overtake you.

Such attitude Creates unpleasant future. Your present actions determine your future. If you constantly moan and are dissatisfied with your circumstances, in the future you are sure to meet with more of the things you are unhappy about. The more you complain, the more things you will find to complain about.

It harms others. Your negative mood affects people around you. You should never make others feel bad because by doing so you are contributing not only to your own misery, but to the unhappiness of others also.

Such attitude produces negative effects. Every cause has an effect and so your negative attitude (cause) produces negative circumstances. Mostly people think it's the other way round, but that's not the case. Your thinking causes your circumstances.

How to Change Negative Attitude

It is possible to change negative attitude, but it will not be easy. If you lived your life seeing only dark colours, you cannot turn this around in a day. However, by taking small and consistent steps you will gradually become a happier person.

The best way to change your mental state is by understanding the outcome of negativity. Carefully read the consequences of negative attitude and they will serve as reminders as soon as your mood goes down. You will think twice before getting upset, angry or depressed. And Yes, you cause your own mood and you can change it by simply focusing on good aspects of your life or imagining something positive. You are not at the mercy of different kinds of negative feelings that visit you when you least expect. You can control how you feel.

As soon as you spot a negative aspect of a situation or thing, try your best to find its positive aspect instead. For example, if you oversleep, you will think that you will be late for work. Instead try to find something positive that you gain from over-sleeping. You may realise that your efficiency will increase significantly because of the extra hours of sleep. So always look at the positive aspects of any situation that you find yourself in.

You should try to understand what causes your negative attitude. It might be that you live with a person who constantly ruins your mood or it may also be something to do with your past. Maybe something happened to you that made you deeply upset and you have not recovered from that incident since. Try to understand that the incident is long gone, and you should not live in the shadow of it. Your past can only have influence on your present if you let it. Remember, your whole power is in the present moment.

Positive thinking is not enough. If you cannot find the cause of your negative attitude, you will only cover this attitude with positive words which will do no good to you. So try to find the cause of it and this will allow you to change your negative attitude.

Sometimes causes are internal rather than external. In fact, any external cause will lead you to the deeper, internal cause. For example, you might understand that you are negative because your family makes you negative. But when you dig deeper, you may realize that you feel unworthy as a person and you project this unworthiness onto your family and that makes you angry at them. It's true that the qualities you don't like in other people are yours, so it's not others that are at fault but you. So in this example you uncover that it's your limiting belief of unworthiness that makes you negative. The next step will be to eliminate it and then your attitude will improve.

Types of Negative Attitude

There are certain types of people that indulge in negative states of mind. They are all different in some ways of thinking and acting, but the unifying feature of all of them is their constant negativity. Here are several types of such personalities:

The miserable type. Such people are grumpy from the start of the day. They meet with failures as soon as they wake up, which sets their day to be full of anger and hopelessness.

Usually this type of people keep to themselves and their presence makes others moody. People instantly feel their bad energy and try to stay away from them.

When you talk to the person of this type, s/he may insult you without even intending so. This is because their negativity is so aligned with who they are that they cannot recognize if they make others happy or sad.

The most interesting distinction of this type is that they are mainly unaware of their mental state. They don't realize that they are negative.

Friendship with the miserable type of people can get you seriously depressed. This is because they have a very strong negative energy resonating from them which might draw you in. This is especially true if you are mentally weak or insecure.

Silent killer. Such people usually understand psychology quite well. They use this knowledge to gradually introduce hatred, anger and low self-esteem in others. They do this by making remarks about how others behave or look. They know that their remarks are destructive, but others may not realise that.

For example, your friend casually implies that you should not wear this type of suit because it emphasizes your waist. Do you see the real intention behind the advice?

Another example could be such situation. You have just met your dream partner and you are in love with each other. You meet your friend and start conversation about your new partner. The friend makes such remark: 'Hmm, I wonder what made her choose you...'

This kind of advice or statement makes you question your appearance and abilities which leads to low self-esteem and self-doubt.

The reason why silent killers act this way is because they are very insecure beings. Because of that, they want to make others feel as insecure as them. Getting others in such negative state gives them reassurance, control and satisfaction.

Drama queen This is the most common type. Their emotions range from anger to self-pity, and every small incident can be turned into the storm. They seem to like the fact that they can change how others feel and be the centres of attention.

Such people are needy and insecure, they crave for constant reassurance. They strive for attention and approval. If they don't receive what they want, they begin acting in childish ways. They may start crying, throwing things around or trying to get on others' nerves.

That eventually backfires on them. Once that happens, drama queens become scared and surprised by the reaction they caused. This way drama queens try to make others feel guilty and cruel.

This kind of behaviour is the result of neediness and low self esteem.

Woe is me. Such people love to talk about their failures to everyone who would listen. They do that purely to get attention and sympathy of others.

Many people do not realise that such unfortunate stories can do a lot of harm. You should stay away from such people because they will draw you in to their world of unfairness and unhappiness.

This especially applies if you are mentally weak. By listening to the stories of the 'woe is me' type, you are likely to start visualising their troubles and invite them into your own life.

The paranoid type. They perceive others to be constantly trying to worsen their lives. If they go shopping, they think that shopkeepers are trying to rip them off; If someone wants to befriend them, they think that s/he wants something in return for the friendship.

Many people who live in foreign countries fall into this type. Once they encounter one unfortunate situation when they are treated unfairly because they are foreign, they start to see unfairness everywhere.

It may come to the stage where they would see that everyone is against them because of their skin colour or accent.

This negative attitude is mainly caused by self-doubt and poor self-image.

Trigger type. Such people seek ways to release their anger or self-pity. An example would be a person who gets into the conversation with someone who is sure to make him feel angry or hopeless. This way he destroys his mental balance and health.

Another example could be a person who tries to spark an argument. He starts accusing someone of doing something insignificant and continue with his/her accusations until another person finally breaks down.

By releasing their emotions they discharge their negativity and give some of their negative energy to the people they argue with.

These are the most common types of people with negative attitude. One person can have a mixture of several types, but then one type will be more prominent than others.

BUILDING POSITIVE ATTITUDE

Reward and punishment build up attitude. Attitude can be changed, if we differentiate negative attitude from positive attitude. Positive attitude can bring positive change in life.

It is difficult to change attitudes but with some effort, it can be done. A positive attitude is a pre-requisite for change and development. If anybody has negative attitude towards 'change', this attitude will extend to anything representing change i.e. leaders, technology, meetings, or any process of change.

For any change (growth or development), positive attitude towards change is critical. Without the positive attitude towards change, development or growth is very difficult.

Positive attitude has the power to attract sudden good fortune from the world around us. We can observe that when under critical circumstances, if we adopt positive attitude and stay calm, we can easily overcome the problem, having no or less serious consequences

Steps towards building positive attitude

Attitudes of individuals towards life, family, ideas, political thinking, religion or anything can be changed.

Following are the various steps for bringing change in one's attitude that bring change in the behaviours.

1. Identify the object towards which change of attitude is desired.
2. Introduce information about which individual agrees.
3. Introduce the new information that contradicts the existing beliefs or attitudes.
4. Identify the ways through which belief or practice conform to new information.

These four steps towards change in attitude can be easily understood by this example. Suppose you want to bring change in the attitude of your son towards education. So, first of all you have identified that you want to change the 'attitude towards education', secondly you will find out the reasons for certain attitude, thirdly you will introduce new information or ideas that contradict with the current information. This introduction of new information will develop dissonance which might help changing attitude.

Steps to turn positive attitude into action

Attitudes can be turned into positive actions by realizing certain behaviours such as

1. Understand the power of attitude
2. Take control of yourself and your life
3. Be aware about yourself and keep updated
4. Identify and frame your bad and good attitudes
5. Find purpose of your behaviour and develop prudent passion actions

6. Be pro-active and pre-active
7. Discover the ways to motivate yourself (motivators)
8. Build supportive relationships
9. See change as an opportunity
10. Leave a lasting legacy

SITUATIONAL ANNALYSIS OF ATTITUDE

Social approaches focus on our tendency to copy the beliefs and behaviours of others. Role models shown on television and in the neighbourhoods are examples. People change their residences, shift from old localities/mohallas to modern localities to learn new values and bring change in their attitudes.

An individual is capable of holding two contradictory beliefs or notions as long the person is not made aware about them. Once the person becomes aware, cognitive dissonance occurs. Dissonance is the uncomfortable feeling when we feel that what we believe may not be true. We can not live with such discomfort and we try to modify either our thinking or change our behaviour.

We can take the example of an environmentalist who is the advocate of keeping the environment clean, himself uses smoke emitting car. When he/she is made to realize, about his/her attitude, the conflict or dissonance emerges in his mind. In the result of this dissonance his/her probable actions will be either

1. Deny the evidence,
2. Change the car,
3. Rationalize the action that he had to drive a large car for safety or for some other reasons.

In all the cases, he tries to reduce dissonance or discomfort, because nobody likes to remain with the discomfort. He/she will bring change in the attitude to get rid of dissonance. Dissonance can be a great

tool towards change. This conflict or dissonance can be created by oneself or by an organization or a group.

PERCEPTION

The perceptual process allows us to experience the world around us. Take a moment to think of all the things you perceive on a daily basis. At any given moment, you might see familiar objects in your environment, feel the touch of objects and people against your skin, smell the aroma of a home-cooked meal and hear the sound of music playing in your next door neighbor's apartment. All of these things help make up our conscious experience and allow us to interact with the people and objects around us.

In this overview of perception and the perceptual process, we will learn more about how we go from detecting stimuli in the environment to actually taking action based on that information.

What Is Perception?

Perception is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli. Through the perceptual process, we gain information about properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival. Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment.

Perception includes the five senses; touch, sight, taste, smell and taste. It also includes what is known as proprioception, a set of senses involving the ability to detect changes in body positions and movements. It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information, such as recognizing the face of a friend or detecting a familiar scent.

The perceptual process is a sequence of steps that begins with the environment and leads to our perception of a stimulus and an action in response to the stimulus. This process is continual, but you do not spend a great deal of time thinking about the actual process that occurs when you perceive the many stimuli that surround you at any given moment.

The process of transforming the light that falls on your retinas into an actual visual image happens unconsciously and automatically. The subtle changes in pressure against your skin that allow you to feel objects occur without a single thought.

In order to fully understand how the perception process works, we'll start by breaking down each step.

The Steps in the Perceptual Process

- ✓ The Environmental Stimulus
- ✓ The Attended Stimulus
- ✓ The Image on the Retina
- ✓ Transduction
- ✓ Neural Processing
- ✓ Perception
- ✓ Recognition
- ✓ Action

BIASES, PREJUDICE AND BLIND SPOTS

As human resources professionals we are faced with a variety of employment related decisions on a daily basis. As no shock to each of us, we see biases and prejudices whether hidden or overt that affect these decisions STILL today. The situations I observe are amazing and get responses from others like "wow - that still happens today?" Yes - it does! You've seen it too! Can we afford to have these biases in our workplaces when we are in the midst of a war for talent? We need skills and need to continue to take the steps to minimize the influence of these biases in the workplace.

The biases and prejudices come in all forms -

- ✓ Race (minority)
- Whether it is a biased position against hiring an African American, Hispanic, or Muslim, I run into issues nearly each week with a hiring manager bluntly saying "we don't want a minority in this position."
- ✓ Age (old and young)

"I want someone young and spunky for this position. The older candidates won't have the energy and they will retire before they even get started." - "He looks too young and our customers won't have respect and trust for someone that is younger than their socks."

✓ Gender (female and male)

"She's got a family. How could she possibly be committed to our company and juggle the needs of her children?"

✓ Weight (heavy and thin)

"She's too heavy, would not be able to keep up, and would just be teased by everyone. Plus, don't heavy people have hygiene problems?"

✓ Sexual orientation

"Our workforce isn't ready for someone with homosexual preferences."

✓ Personality

"I need to hire someone that is the opposite personality of me to balance my strengths and weaknesses."

The list is endless...why do any of these issues make a difference in how someone will perform on the job? They shouldn't, but for some reason these differences and others are influencing decisions when they should not. For years now, I have run across situations like these nearly every day. I put on my HR consultant hat and begin with the legal ramifications of these statements AND help the individual understand what they are missing out on by not looking at the individual's skills and capabilities. Sometimes, I succeed but other times the company and society misses out! With the labor skills shortage, the organizations that "get it" are the ones that will succeed AND help society tear down these continued biases.

For some of you, I'm preaching to the choir. You probably have as many if not more stories that you could share. But what about the hidden biases that exist without our knowing of them? We have to battle these too. In a recent article titled "Watch Out for the Minefield of Hidden Bias" by Pamela Babcock, Ms.

Babcock cited an outstanding tool to help identify these hidden biases in ourselves and others. A Harvard University research team created a series of Implicitly Association Test (IAT). As a result, they found a number of folks have hidden and unconscious biases that may unintentionally be affecting employment decisions. The highest levels of bias were relative to black, elderly, disabled, and overweight individuals. However, the studies showed if you are aware of your unconscious bias you can control how it influences decisions by ensuring your focus is on job related characteristics.

Here are some simple steps to help you be proactive in your organization in continuing to help us focus on individuals' abilities, accepting them for who they are, and surviving the skills crisis all at once:

Check out the Implicitly Association Test. Try it yourself and encourage others to try it too. You'll be surprised at the results and how it makes you think.

Learn to accept your biases and find ways to overcome them and focus on attributes of individuals that truly impact the situation - job related skills!

Identify the job related skills needed for a position. Interview, evaluate, and promote based on job related skills. Don't make decisions for the person based on what you think they may do (i.e. he is 55 - why would he want this job? He'll just quit and retire in 5 years; she is about to get married - she'll just end up having kids and quitting her job; he is a minority and others won't accept him)

Engage a group of individuals in employment decision making to try to overcome biases and prejudices. However, be sure you are not creating "group think" where you are always trying to hire or promote individuals like your group.

Continue to educate others on the value of accepting and embracing the differences we all bring to the table. It is what fosters creativity and makes an organization succeed!

Obviously prejudices and biases hit a very sore spot for many of us. If someone is accused of being prejudiced they become extremely defensive. That is not the goal of this article. There are many ways you can use this data but at least consider this... We are in a labor shortage. Every individual has unique skills and abilities and we need to find a way to hone in and focus on those skills and abilities in order to navigate through this shortage. If we let overt or even hidden biases stop us from hiring the best

candidates for the job, our companies will ultimately be impacted. Additionally, we are throwing ourselves back decades in history by not educating ourselves, managers, employees, and community on accepting everyone for who they are no matter what their differences may be.

Blind Spots

There are grizzled heroes and sleek assassins in movies who don't have metaphorical blind spots. They do have literal ones, though. Because of the way the eye is constructed, every human being does.

For the most part, the human eye gives the brain an accurate picture of what's going on in the world. There are limitations. Although many birds and insects can see ultraviolet, and some creatures can see infrared, humans are stuck looking at so-called 'visible' light only. This cuts down human's view of the world, not letting them see the urine trails left behind by some mammals, and not letting them fully appreciate the colors of certain flowers, which have evolved to put on quite a show in ultraviolet while remaining plain in visible light. The human eye also can't distinguish between polarized and nonpolarized light, while many cephalopods and some birds can.

Still, the eye sends back signals that let humans navigate through the world pretty successfully. Many assume that what they see is actually what's out there. That's not entirely true. Each human eye has a blind spot, and the brain sometimes has to fill in what is there by looking at the surrounding area.

Light gets into the eye by passing through the pupil. It hits the retina at the back of the eye. The retina is covered with light-sensing proteins. They relay what they sense to the optic nerve which carries the information back into the brain. The problem is, the optic nerve ends in the field of the retina itself. This is a little like having to plug the power cable for a TV directly into the screen. It creates a dark spot. Most of the time, the other eye will see what's happening in its partner's blind, but if the blind spots overlap while looking at a certain object, or if the person is only looking through one eye, the brain just fills in the spot looking at the surrounding picture.



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There's a way to find your blind spot. Cover your left eye and look at the dot on the left in this image. Be aware of the cross on the right, but don't look at it - just keep your eye on the dot. Move your face closer to the monitor, and farther away. At some point, you should see the cross disappear. Stay at that point and close your right eye. Stare at the cross, and you should see that the dot has disappeared. It doesn't just happen with a white background. Try the same with colored paper, and your mind will fill in the background color of the paper when the mark gets in your blind spot. You don't see as much of the world as you think.

UNIT-III

MOTIVATION

Motivation is the force that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. It is what causes us to take action, whether to grab a snack to reduce hunger or enroll in college to earn a degree. The forces that lie beneath motivation can be biological, social, emotional or cognitive in nature.

Researchers have developed a number of different theories to explain motivation. Each individual theory tends to be rather limited in scope. However, by looking at the key ideas behind each theory, you can gain a better understanding of motivation as a whole.

Motivation is a psychological feature that arouses an organism to act towards a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal-directed behaviors. It can be considered a driving force; a psychological one that compels or reinforces an action toward a desired goal. For example, hunger is a motivation that elicits a desire to eat. Motivation is the purpose or psychological cause of an action.^[1]

Motivation has been shown to have roots in physiological, behavioral, cognitive, and social areas. Motivation may be rooted in a basic impulse to optimize well-being, minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure. It can also originate from specific physical needs such as eating, sleeping or resting, and sex.

Motivation is an inner drive to behave or act in a certain manner. "It's the difference between waking up before dawn to pound the pavement and lazing around the house all day."^[2] These inner conditions such as wishes, desires, goals, activate to move in a particular direction in behavior.

TYPES OF THEORIES

➤ Mono-motivational theories

A class of theories about why people do things seeks to reduce the number of factors down to one and explain all behavior through that one factor. For example, economics has been criticized for using self-

interest as a mono-motivational theory. Mono-motivational theories are often criticized for being too reductive or too abstract.

➤ **Conscious and unconscious motivations**

A number of motivational theories emphasize the distinction between conscious and unconscious motivations. In evolutionary psychology, the "ultimate", unconscious motivation may be a cold evolutionary calculation, the conscious motivation could be more benign or even positive emotions. For example, while it may be in the best interest of a male's genes to have multiple partners and thus break up with or divorce one before moving onto the next, the conscious rationalization could be, "I loved her at the time".

Freud is associated with the idea that human beings have many unconscious motivations that cause them to make important decisions because of these unconscious forces, such as choosing a partner.

NON-PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES

➤ **Platonic theory of motivation**

In *The Republic*, Plato advances a tri-partite theory of the soul, which consists of three parts: reason, spirit and appetite. All parts of the soul have desires, however not all desires are the same. Desires take many different forms and have many different responses or results.

➤ **Machiavellianism**

Machiavellism argues that human beings are motivated to seek power and status above all. Modern research argues that people who are high in this trait do indeed seek power and money, and are willing to use others as instruments towards that end.

TYPES OF MOTIVES

BIOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL MOTIVE

Biological motives are directly related to individual's physiological needs, and eating are necessary for individual's biological survival. Sex is essential for survival of the species.

These are also called primary drives, which are deeply rooted, in our all make-up. Satisfaction of these drives is necessary because our needs certain substances for its growth as well as its day-to-day maintenance with a view to keeping the balance of various physiological as within the body. Some of our most powerful motives, e.g., hunger, thirst, sex, sleep, avoidance of pain, are rooted in our physiological make-up actually regulatory in their nature.

In other words, we can say that many biological needs are triggered departures from balanced physiological conditions of the body. Our body to maintain a balance, called homeostasis, in many of its internal physiological processes. This balance is very important for life.

For example, temperature must not get too high or too low; there must be enough water the body tissues. The homeostatic mechanisms are mainly responsible maintaining the acidities, water level, sugar level, temperature, blood pr< and numerous other highly complicated bodily processes. The working of these physiological processes and homeostatic equilibrium of the body are possible by our efforts to supply the requirements of the body.

On the whole, the tendency of motivated behaviour to maintain a balanced condition within the organism is called homeostasis. According to a renowned physiologist, "The living being is an agency of such sort that each disturbing influence induces by itself the calling forth of compensatory activities to neutralize or repair the disturbance".

There are many automatic mechanisms, which maintain the balanced condition of homeostasis. Consider the automatic physiological control of body temperature at a point of 98.6°F. Our body temperature usually stays around this point because of automatic mechanisms that allow the body to he cool itself. If the temperature of our body rises too high, perspiration the temperature. When the temperature falls, we shiver, causing our body to burn fuel faster to generate extra heat.

Physiologists have discovered that the automatic physiological mechanisms, which maintain homeostasis, are supplemented by regulatory or motivated behaviour. For example, falling temperature creates a drive state to which we respond by regulatory behaviour- putting on a sweater or the doors and so on. So the biological motive states are aroused by departures from homeostasis.

Hunger Drive

Experiments done earlier in the century revealed that the source hunger drive is stomach contractions. This was shown by using subjects who were trained to swallow a small balloon with a rubber tube attached. This was inflated in the stomach and the rubber tube was then connecting kymograph recording mechanism, so that each spasm of the stomach muscles could cause a mark on the smoked drum.

Again, the subject was also asked to press a key, whenever he felt hunger pangs. Therefore, a mark was made on the drum just below the record of stomach activities. The abnormal breathing of the subject was also recorded; that the investigator could decide whether the spasms represented in the record were due to stomach or abdominal movements. It was found that hunger pangs coincided with stomach contractions, but were not related to movements of the abdominal muscles.

Recent works on hunger drive have revealed that the relationship between stomach contractions and hunger is weak. Both psychologists and physiologists have tried to find other conditions of the body, which trigger hunger.

Some physiologists held that changes in the metabolic functions of the liver when fuel supplies are low provide body's stimulus for hunger. Here the can signal a part of the brain called hypothalamus that more fuel is needed which triggers hunger drive.

Experimental findings also confirmed that two regions of hypothalamus are involved in hunger drive- lateral hypothalamus ventro-medial area. Lateral hypothalamus is considered to be the excitatory area. Animals eat when this area is stimulated. When it is damaged, animals stop eating and die of starvation. The ventro-medial area is located in the die of the hypothalamus, which is otherwise known as hunger-controlling area. Experimenters consider it as the inhibitory region of the hunger drive.

Experimental studies have shown that when this area is damaged, animals slop voracious appetites; they eat huge quantities of food. But their hunger e is somewhat different from that of normal animals. Some

experiments have also shown that the cessation of eating or satiety is controlled by a none called Cholecystokinin (CCK), which is released into the blood when food reaches the intestine (Gibbs and Smith, 1973). From the above discussion, it is obvious that both hypothalamus and blood chemistry are, no doubt, responsible for hunger.

✓ **Thirst Drive**

When we are deprived of water over a period of several hours, the mouth the throat become dry, which reflects dehydration of body tissues in general. So, we drink. A local stimulus theory suggests that drinking is triggered by a dry mouth. But physiologists have shown that dry mouth does not result in enough drinking to regulate the water balance of the body. Rather, thirst and drinking are controlled by processes within the body itself.

It was found that when water is placed in the stomach directly via fist short span of time elapsed before the thirst experience ceased. It is obvious that the water must get into the tissues sufficiently to remove the dryness mouth and throat. Then only, the thirst is removed effectively. It has been that merely wetting the mouth temporarily removes the thirst experience.

Like hunger, some unknown conditions, aroused by a state of deficit regulate both thirst and water consumption. Of course, the important one appears to be cellular dehydration. The physiologists feel that the dryness mouth and throat is one of the factors in this regulation, but it does not explain the whole story. It is true that when the water level in the body goes down, it stimulates tiny nerve endings in the mouth and throat, and produces awareness of thirst. Again it was established that thirst couldn't be relieved by simply taking water in the mouth, without swallowing it. So dryness of mouth and throat is only a secondary mechanism to explain thirst drive.

Recent experiments have revealed that it is the anti-diuretic hormone seems to be the key factor in regulating the water supply to the body. The researchers feel that the thirst drive and drinking of water are mainly triggered by two mechanisms. The first one is that when the water level of the body goes down, certain neurons located within the hypothalamus begins to give out water. The thirst which results from this mechanism is known as cellular dehydration thirst. Further experiments revealed that the loss of water from the cells in the particular region of the hypothalamus might arouse the drinking behaviour. The experimenters

concluded that the neurons in the preoptic of the hypothalamus known as the osmoreceptors are somehow responsible for controlling drinking behaviour of the organism.

The second mechanism which is responsible for triggering di behaviour is known as hypovolemia or the condition of low blood f volume. Studies have shown that kidneys respond to hypovolemia by for of a chemical known as angiotensin, which when released in the blood stream, triggers drinking.

It is believed that all these mechanisms work together to regulate intake of the body. The mechanisms, which explain the intake of water intake of the body. the mechanisms, which explain the intake of water, also seem to be responsible for stopping the intake of water. Others have pointed out that the role of stimuli resulting from the intake of water in stomach must have something to do with stopping of drinking. However, it can be concluded that the precise physiological mechanisms underlying the thirst drive are yet to be understood.

✓ Sex Drive

The sex drive is considered as a powerful drive both in animals and human beings. It depends on many physiological conditions, especially in lower animals. But In case of human beings, the sex drive is very closely regulated by social restrictions. The conflict between sex motive and cultural restrictions makes sex one of the most powerful forces in influencing behaviour. Sometimes it is very difficult to classify sex purely as a biological drive. Although it is a biologically rooted drive, it differs considerably from the other two biological drives such as hunger and thirst. Sexual drive is not a response to lack of some substance in the body. It is, therefore, not triggered by homeostatic imbalance.

Physiologists are still trying to find out the exact location of the internal control of the sexual drive. They are certain that the intensity of sexual urge is dependent upon chemical substances circulating in the blood, known as sex -hormones. Studies on animals as well as human beings have clearly revealed that this urge is profoundly influenced by the presence of hormones produced by testes in males and ovaries in females. However, in case of human beings, socio-cultural and emotional factors seem to play a pivotal role.

Generally the hormones secreted by gonads, i.e., testes in males and the ovaries in females, are responsible for sexual motivation. The male sex hormones are known a testosterone. These hormones come from the testes, the ovarian hormones are known as estrogens. Experiments revealed that estrogenic

hormones activate the female rats, and provide a high level of sexual motivation. In human females, the same hormones are present; but their production becomes greatly accelerated at puberty.

Observation indicated that purely biological processes like hormone secretions seem to play a very minor role in the sex drive. Studies have shown that women have greater sexual desire immediately before and after the menstrual period than during the fertile period, which corresponds to the heat period of animals. Studies with animals, as well as clinical observation on human beings have demonstrated that sexual motivation is also influenced by other endocrine glands, such as adrenal and pituitary glands. Of course, pituitary gland plays a key role.

In case of human beings, sexual drive is primarily stimulated by external stimuli and its expression depends upon cultural learning. Hence a psychologist has advanced a theory that sex is more a learned drive than a biological one.

✓ **Need for Sensory Stimulation**

Physiologically human beings have many sensory organs, i.e. eyes, ears, skin, nose, tongue, cochlea (or labyrinthine receptor deep in the inner ears responsible for the sensation of one's body position in the space), deep joint and muscles (kinesthetic receptors) and internal receptors, such as viscera. These receptors are the gateways of information about both environments and the conditions within. Studies indicate that human beings are in constant need of some kind of sensory stimulation.

Hebb and Heron (1957) conducted sensory deprivation studies and recorded its effects on college students. The students were deprived from tactual auditory and visual stimulation to a great extent and were kept in controlled sensory restrictions for a prolonged period (Zubek, 1969). It was found the subjects could not tolerate the sensory isolation for long. They experienced impairment in perceptual and intellectual functioning. Tasks which were once very simple before the onset of sensory deprivation became extremely difficult after longer periods of sensory deprivations. A great deal of emotional fluctuations such as nervousness, irritability, anger, and fear were marked in these subjects. Hallucinations also appeared in some subjects. Thus findings were that the effects of sensory deprivations are manifold. Psychologists are of the view that human beings are in need of a variety of sensory stimulation in the absence of which abnormal reactions may occur.

✓ **Need for Postural Changes**

One of the physiological needs is to change our body-postures constantly at some intervals. Photographic evidences show that during sleep at night person changes his/her posture more than four hundred times. Although it appears apparently that one continues to sit in a single posture throughout the period in the class, there are minute shifts in his/her body position. Thus postural changes are also physiological needs.

Social motives are otherwise known as acquired or learned motives. These some complex forms of motives, which result mainly from man's interaction with his social environment. These motives are called social because they learned in social groups. These peculiar human motives can be looked upon as general states that lead to particular behaviors. Social motives are general characteristics of a person and since they are learned motives, their strength differs greatly from one individual to other.

The social motive that will activate an individual is dependent upon an individual's own social experience. It is unique to himself and depends upon ways of perceiving things. For this reason, the psychologists have always found it difficult to arrive at a commonly agreed list of social motives as they have done in case of biological motives.

Since these motives are inferred from behavior, it is very difficult to measure these motives. This type of difficulty stems from the problem that we do not know which particular type of behavior is associated with which particular motive.

✓ **Need for Affiliation**

Sometimes we find people trying desperately to get close to people, to seek their help, and to become members of their group. This type of behavior seeking other human beings and wanting to be close to them both physically psychologically is called affiliation.

In other words, affiliation refers to the need that people have to be with others. This affiliation need is aroused when individuals feel threatened or helpless and also when they are happy. Psychologists have tried to rank people according to the degree of their need affiliate. People high on this need are motivated to seek the company of others and to maintain friendly relationships with other people.

Studies revealed that fear and anxiety are closely associated with the affiliation motive. But where the degree of anxiety and threat is very high, such affiliation behaviour is often absent. Results of situational tests also indicated early learning experiences influence this motive. It was found that the born or only

children have stronger affiliation motives than those born later. It is because children use to receive more parental attention during early years.

Different studies also revealed that children who are brought up to be dependent or raised with close family ties show a stronger affiliation motive than those coming from more loosely-knit families that encourage early independence. Affiliation needs are stronger in some cultures than in others. For example, Indian society is strongly affiliating in nature compared to many of the western societies.

✓ **Need for Power**

As an independent motive, the need for power expresses itself behaviors, which tend to control and influence the course of events including the behaviors of others. Traditionally it was believed that power was desired by people as an instrument to satisfy other motives like greed, aggression affiliation etc.

In the past, we have seen that mankind has always struggled for power. Cities have been destroyed and wars waged by people in reckless manner to increase their power. However, in recent years, emphasis has been placed on power motive as independent in itself and not derivable from other motives. Such a view was expressed by McClelland.

David McClelland (1975) has also described four general ways in which power motivation is expressed:

People do things to gain feelings of power and strength from sources outside themselves. For example, we express power motivation by read stories about sports or we may attach ourselves to a leader from who can draw strength.

People do things to gain feelings of power and strength from sources within themselves. For example, an individual may express power motivation building up the body and by mastering urges and impulses. A person may express power by trying to gain control over things- collecting pistols, fancy, cars, and credit cards and so on.

People do things as individuals to have impact on others. For example person may argue with another person or may have competitive attitude another individual in order to have impact or influence on that person.

People do things as members of organizations to have an impact on others. For example, the leader of a political party may use the party apparatus to influence others or an army officer may express the need for power through the chain of command.

For any individual, one of these ways of expressing power motivation may dominate. But a combination of power motives cannot be ruled out. However, the dominant mode of expression often changes with age and life experiences a person.

Different studies have shown that women seem to have less strong needs for power than men. Generally women are said to express their power motivation by being counselors, advisors and resource persons for other people. In this way, they have indirect impact and influence.

✓ **Dependency Motive**

Dependency refers to interpersonal relationships where an individual behaves in a way in order to gain attention, reassurance, assistance, comfort, and support from fellow men. People use to spend more time with parents, or intimate friends when in difficult situations. They seek advice and mutually spend upon one another in working on the solution to various problems. In her words, individuals appear to be more dependent on social interactions and approval. Research studies indicate that the girls tend to be more dependent and more affiliative than boys (Maccoby and Jaklin, 1974).

At times of stress people want to resort to dependency, i.e. they are in need of some one's care, and thus rely on the other (or others) for emotional, economic, and other support like love and security etc.

✓ **Cooperation Motive**

Cooperation is an acquired motive. It is a condition manifested when two or more individuals or groups work together to achieve a common goal, cooperation signifies lack of mutual disagreement and opposition among fellow group-members, and absence of rivalry. Citizens of Zuni of New Mexico, Pacific were found to be extremely cooperative. Goldman reports that being wealthy in Zuni brings no status.

On the other hand status is derived not from power or landed property but from friendships. A happy and successful Zuni is who has the most friends.

Studies of altruism among children provide evidence that helping-behaviour can be fostered through the use of models. Peulson (1974) compared 36 children who had watched all programmes in the Sesame Street Series with those who had not been exposed to the series. He found significantly more cooperative behaviour among the experimental group.

✓ **Conformity motive**

Conformity generally refers to the tendency to allow one's opinions, attitudes, actions, and even perceptions to be affected by prevailing opinion; attitudes, actions and perceptions. There is behavioral conformity, i.e., the tendency to "go along with the group"- to act in ways consistent with the majority. When changes in attitude, and belief take place because of pressure from significant others, attitudinal conformity takes place. There is also conformity of personality traits, i.e., underlying characteristics of a person undergo changes according to the norms of society.

F.H. Allport (1935) described, the conformity motive phenomena with the help of a conformity curve, which reflects that most people exhibit complete conformity to social norms with fewer and fewer people having deviation. Norms are rules or laws or implicit moral standards of a society. Norms refer to behaviour that is usual, or expected, acceptable and socially prescribe. Conformity to social norms takes many forms such as "Honor your mother or "Love your country", which are very encouraging. Norms are also discouraging, i.e., "Do not steal", "Do not lie". They take widely held beliefs and opinions, and are manifested in forms of dress, speech, manners, and fashions. Our submissiveness to social influences is due to conformity motives to the norms of society in which we live.

Motives to know and to be effective

Stimulus Motives: Motives to know and to be effective- just like the physiological drives, these ones are also innate or unlearned. They are persistent and seem to exist to one degree or another in everyone. But their root is not the physique. Drives under this category highly contribute to the normal behavioral development of human beings. In some instances, there could be some interconnection between the physiological needs and the ones in this classification. These motives, however, are motives that drive a person to seek variety in stimulation, to process information about the surrounding world, to explore, and

to be effective in mastering challenges from the environment. So, they seek out sensory stimulation through continual interaction with the environment.

Learning from Experience

One of the most powerful *master skills* is **knowing how to learn**. The ability to learn can itself be learned, as illustrated by a friend who, in his younger days, had an interesting strategy for work and play. He worked for awhile at a high-paying job and saved money, then took a vacation and did whatever he wanted; he could hang out at a coffee shop, read a book, sleep, eat, go for a walk, or travel to faraway places by hopping on a plane or driving away in his car. Usually, employers want workers committed to long-term stability, so why did they tolerate his unusual behavior? He was reliable, always showed up on time, and gave them a week's notice before departing. But the main reason for their acceptance was the quality of his work. He was one of the best welders in the city, performing a valuable service that was in high demand, and doing it extremely well. He could audition for a job, saying "give me a really tough welding challenge and I'll show you how good I am." They did, he did, and they hired him.

How did he become such a good welder? He had "learned how to learn" by following the wise advice of his teacher: **every time you do a job, do it better than the time before**. He continually improved, and so can you, if you learn from the past and concentrate in the present, being alertly aware of what you are doing (and how this is affecting the quality of your work) so you can *do it better now*, and also learn from the present to *prepare for future improvements*. This is a good way to improve the quality of whatever you do: **ALWAYS concentrate on quality of thinking-and-action in the present**, and **SOMETIMES ask "what have I learned in the past that will help me now, and what can I learn now that will help me in the future?"** This is a good strategy for learning (from experience) how to improve welding, or anything else in life that you're motivated to improve. *Motivations in Personal Education* Like the welder, you can *learn from both success and failure* so you will continually improve. This principle can help you learn-and-improve in many areas of life, ranging from school exams and ski slopes to the workplace. You can *learn from your mistakes*, as when your exam is returned and for each wrong answer you ask "Why did I miss this?" and "How can I change-and-improve so the next time I'll get it correct?" And you can *learn from your success*, as when "I learned how to ski by



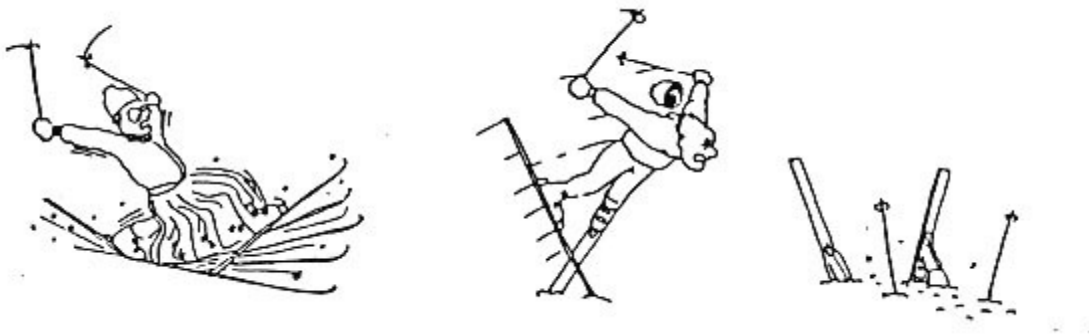
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doing it correctly, with high-quality practice, not by making mistakes." More commonly, you *learn from both failures and success*, as when you self-observe how you're performing on the job, and take time during the work-day (and at the end of a day, week, month, or year) to review what you've done. During these reviews it's important to be totally honest with yourself, fully acknowledging (with no denial) both positive and negative aspects of your own performance, so you can more accurately observe, evaluate, and adjust in order to do it better than before, by learning from the past and focusing in the present.

How I Didn't Learn to Ski (by Learning from Mistakes)

My first day of skiing! I'm excited, but the rental skis worry me. They look much too long, maybe uncontrollable? On the slope, fears come true quickly and I've lost control, roaring down the slope yelling "Get out of my way! I can't stop!" But soon I do stop — flying through the air sideways, a floundering spin, a mighty bellyflop in icy snow. My boot bindings grip like claws that won't release their captive, and the impact twists my body into a painful pretzel. Several zoom-and-crash cycles later I'm dazed, in a motionless heap at the foot of the mountain, wondering what I'm doing, why, and if I dare to try again.



Even the ropetow brings disaster. I fall down and wallow in the snow, pinned in place by my huge skis, and the embarrassing dogpile begins, as skiers coming up the ropetow are, like dominoes in a line, toppled by my sprawling carcass. Gosh, it sure is fun to ski.

With time, some things improve. After the first humorous (for onlookers) and terrifying (for me) trip down the crowded mountain, my bindings are adjusted so I can bellyflop more safely. And I develop a strategy of "leap and hit the ground rolling" to minimize ropetow humiliation. But my skiing doesn't get much better so — wet and cold, tired and discouraged — I retreat to the safety of the lodge.

How I Did Learn to Ski (Insight and Practice, Perseverance and Flexibility)The lodge break is wonderful, just what I need for recovery. An hour later, after a nutritious lunch topped off with delicious hot chocolate, I'm sitting near the fireplace in warm dry clothes, feeling happy and adventurous again. A friend tells me about another slope, one that can be reached by chairlift and is much less crowded, and I'm now feeling frisky and bold so I decide to "go for it."

This time the ride up the mountain is exhilarating. Instead of feeling the humiliation of causing a ropetow domino dogpile and being on the bottom, the lift carries me high above the earth like a great soaring bird. Soon, while moving mainly across the hill (not mainly down it) with a rare feeling of control, I dare to experiment — and the new experience inspires an insight! If I press my ski edges against the snow a certain way, they "dig in." This edging, combined with insights from other experiments — an "unweight and ski-swing" (a "jump a little so I can swing the skis around" leg-ankle-foot movement) — produces a crude parallel turn that lets me zig-zag down the slope in control, without runaway speed, and suddenly I can ski! Continuing practice now brings rapidly improving skill, and by day's end I'm feeling great. I still fall down occasionally, but not often, and I'm learning from everything that happens, both good and bad. And I have the confident hope that even better downhill runs await me in the future. Skiing has become fun!

This experience illustrates two useful principles for learning:

1) Insight and Quality Practice: I learned how to ski by doing it correctly, with high-quality practice, not by making mistakes. There was no amazing improvement until I discovered the "unweight, ski-swing, ski-edge" tools for turning. This insight made my practicing effective so I could quickly develop improved skill: insight --> quality practice --> skill. Working as cooperative partners, insight and practice are a great team. Together, they're much better than either by itself.

2) Perseverance and Flexibility: My morning ski runs weren't fun and I didn't learn much, but I kept trying anyway, despite the risk of injury to body and pride. Eventually this perseverance paid off. Because I refused to quit in response to frustrating morning failures, I experienced the great joys of afternoon success. / But if I had continued practicing the old techniques over and over, I never would have learned the new way to turn. Perseverance led to opportunities for additional experience, but flexibility allowed the new experience that produced insight and then improvement.

Perseverance and flexibility are contrasting virtues, a complementary pair whose optimal balancing

depends on aware understanding (of yourself and your situation) and wise decisions. In each situation you can ask, "Do I want to continue in the same direction or change course?" Sometimes tenacious hard work is needed, and perseverance is rewarded. Or it may be wise to be flexible, to recognize that what you've been doing may not be the best approach and it's time to try something new.

Steps and Leaps

In many areas of life, much of your improvement will come one step at a time. Each step you take will prepare you for the next step as you make slow, steady progress. But you can also travel in leaps. This is possible because many skills are interdependent, which is bad news (if you haven't yet mastered an important tool, everything you do suffers from this weakness) and good news (because key insights can let you make rapid progress, as in my skiing experience).

If you consistently learn from experience by searching for insight, your steps and leaps will soon produce a wonderful transformation. You will find, increasingly often, that challenges which earlier seemed impossible are becoming things you can now do with ease.

The Joy of Thinking — it's fun!

Personal goals for learning can include improving **skills** (like welding or thinking) and exploring **ideas**. One powerful motivating force is a curiosity about "how things work." We like to solve mysteries. The joyful appreciation of a challenging mystery and a clever solution is expressed in the following excerpts from letters between two scientists who were intimately involved in the development of quantum mechanics: Max Planck (who in 1900 opened the quantum era with his mathematical description of

blackbody radiation) and Erwin Schrödinger (who in 1926 wrote and solved a "wave equation" to explain quantum phenomena). Planck, writing to Schrödinger, says "I am reading your paper in the way a curious child eagerly listens to the solution of a riddle with which he has struggled for a long time, and I rejoice over the beauties that my eye discovers." Schrödinger replies by agreeing that "everything resolves itself with unbelievable simplicity and unbelievable beauty, everything turns out exactly as one would wish, in a perfectly straightforward manner, all by itself and without forcing." They struggled with a problem, solved it, and were thrilled. It's fun to think and learn! / You can learn more about how Planck and Schrodinger (plus Einstein & others) solved the mystery by learning to see our world from the fascinating perspective of micro-level quantum physics, where particles are waves, and waves are particles.

You may not discover a basic principle of nature, like solving the mystery of quantum mechanics, but you can have your own "aha" moments when an idea (or a connection between previously independent ideas) suddenly becomes clear, when you find your own personal insights and you experience the joy of thinking-and-learning.

Forward-Looking Motivation

An attitude of **intentional learning** — of investing extra mental effort, beyond what is required just to complete a task, with the intention of achieving personal goals for learning — is a problem solving approach to self-education because the goal is to transform a current state of personal knowledge (including ideas and skills) into an improved future state.

Effective intentional learning combines an introspective access to the current state of one's own knowledge, the foresight to envision a potentially useful state of improved knowledge that does not exist now, a decision that this goal-state is desirable and is worth pursuing, a plan for transforming the current state into the desired goal-state, and a motivated willingness to invest the time and effort required to reach this goal.

The use of knowledge can be viewed from two perspectives: backward-reaching and forward-looking. You can reach backward in time, to use now what you have learned in the past. Or you can try

to learn from current experience, motivated by your forward-looking expectations that this knowledge will be useful in the future.

In a forward-looking situation a learner is anticipating the future use of an idea in a context that may be similar (for basic application) or different (for application involving transfer). When this occurs an idea becomes linked, in the mind of a learner, to several contexts — including situations imagined in the future — thus producing a bridge between now and the future. This mental bridge can lead to *improved retention* (so knowledge is preserved) and *application/transfer* (so knowledge is more likely to be used). Intentional learning and forward-looking application are closely related, and both strategies are activated when a student wisely asks, "What can I learn now that will help me in the future?"

So far, our focus has been on the learner. But what about teachers? The following section examines an important function of a teacher: to motivate students so they will want to learn.

Motivational Teamwork in Education (with students-and-teachers operating as a team)

What ideas and skills should students learn? Are the educational goals of a teacher (or a system of schools) worthy of the time invested by students and teachers? Do students understand the goals, and want to achieve them? Of course, goal-directed teaching is easier if students are motivated by their own desires for goal-directed learning, and if there is agreement about goals.

When worthy goals are highly valued by students, the school experience is transformed from a shallow game (of doing what the teacher wants, with the short-term goal of avoiding trouble) into an exciting quest for knowledge in which the ultimate goal is a better life. Instead of doing only what is required to complete schoolwork tasks, students will invest extra mental effort with the intention of pursuing their own goals for learning. Why? Because they are motivated by a forward-looking expectation that what they are learning will be personally useful in the future, that it will improve their lives. They will wisely ask, "What can I learn now that will help me in the future?"

When teachers and students share the same goals, education becomes a teamwork effort with an "us" feeling. When students are highly motivated to learn, simply calling attention to a learning opportunity is sufficient.

Why should students want to learn? Basically, students are motivated by activities they think are fun and/or useful. Of course, fun and utility, like beauty, are in the mind of a beholder. But in many situations, persuasion by a teacher is helpful; to show students why they should want to learn what is being taught.

Of course, this persuasion will be easier and more effective if, when teachers are designing their instruction, they try to search for goals and activities that connect with what students want to learn. During activities designed to teach thinking skills, if students are studying topics that connect with their personal interests, they will think more willingly and participate more enthusiastically. They will have fun, and they'll be preparing for the future. How? If students are studying topics they find interesting and relevant, and there is a forward-looking expectation that what they are learning in school will be personally useful in the future, they will want to learn so they can improve their own lives. A teacher can promote this attitude of internally motivated learning by explaining how students can use "school knowledge" in their lives outside the classroom.

For example, students will be more motivated to improve their scientific thinking skills when they realize — because a teacher calls it to their attention — that similar problem-solving methods are used in science and in other areas of life, in the design of familiar products, theories, and strategies. The similarities between design and science, and the advantages of a "design before science" approach, which lets students begin with familiar skills so they can build on the foundation of what they already know. An essential function of education, and a satisfying aspect of teaching, is to motivate students so they want to learn. Motivation can be inherent (to enjoy an interesting activity), external (to perform well on an exam), personal (to improve the long-term quality of life), and interpersonal (to impress fellow students or a teacher). Hopefully, students will discover that thinking is fun, and they will want to do it more often and more skillfully!

motivation in home schools: In a traditional classroom, in a public or private school, a teacher tries to produce a "community" feeling with cooperative teamwork and a sharing of goals, as discussed above. In home schooling, which offers the possibility of individually customized educational goals and personalized instruction, it should be easier to agree on goals and to enjoy the benefits that result from a close teamwork between teacher and student.

External sources of motivation, such as exams, which are a common part of the instructional process in

traditional settings, often serve valuable functions. But personal motivations also offer benefits, as explained below.

Motivations: External and Personal

An interesting question is, "What are the relative effects of motivations that are external (focused on getting rewards offered by others, with judgment by others) and personal (focused on rewards that are internal, within a person, as judged by the person)?" This is discussed in *Dimensions of Thinking* (Marzano, et al, 1988, page 25):

Creative individuals look inwardly to themselves rather than outwardly to their peers to judge the validity of their work. ... Closely related to the locus of evaluation is the question of motivation. Perkins (1985) asserts that creativity involves intrinsic more than extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is manifested in many ways: avowed dedication, long hours, concern with craft, involvement with ideas, and most straightforwardly, resistance to distraction by extrinsic rewards such as higher income for a less creative kind of work. In fact, considerable evidence indicates that strong extrinsic motivation undermines intrinsic motivation (Amabile, 1983). Of course, this evidence is consistent with the discussion of attitudes about self in Chapter 2. Encouraging students to emphasize their success at tasks can eventually undermine self-esteem. Rather, we should help students to work more from their own internal locus of evaluation and encourage them to engage in tasks because of what they might learn or discover.

FRUSTRATION AND CONFLICTS OF MOTIVATION

Frustrations and Conflicts

A **frustration occurs when a goal achievement is blocked**; a conflict is created when incompatible response tendencies are aroused. When a conflict comes from competing habits under one and the same drive, it is called habit conflict or habit competition. When it stems from competing motivation it is called motivational conflict.

Frustration and conflict are related because each can be the consequences of the other. For instance, a student fails in a subject that is required in his/her course, should he/she take it again or give up the

course? What at first is a frustration develops into a conflict. The reverse occurs when a student entertains the conflicting alternative of whether to study for an examination or go to the movies. If the student opts to watch a movie, the desire to do well in the examination will be frustrated. A conflict of this kind can produce frustration because the student cannot satisfy both motivations simultaneously.

When an individual is exposed to a frustrating situation, he develops the concept of general adaptation syndrome, which refers to the physiological process that enables an individual to adapt to stressful situation. He assumes that the body reacts to stress in three successive stages: alarm reaction, the stage of resistance and finally, stage of exhaustion.

Frustration has a real value despite of its unpleasant nature. It greatly strengthens an individual's motivation to overcome obstacles. Under stress, an individual intensifies the effort to satisfy the thwarted need directly or indirectly. Sometimes, the best course of actions is to leave the frustrating situation and find another action where satisfactory adjustment becomes possible.

Sources of Frustrations

There are several obstacles to goal achievement, ranging from simple physical ones to complex personal inadequacies. Sources of frustration can come from

- (1) The physical environment
- (2) The social environment and
- (3) The organism itself.

The physical environment presents such obstacles as flood, typhoon, or rugged mountains. For example, a drought or typhoon can frustrate farmers because this will adversely affect their harvest. The social environment presents such obstacles as restrictions imposed by other people and the laws of the community. Children are thwarted by parental paralysis that may limit their activities. Lastly, we individuals possess limitations and these weaknesses hinder our satisfaction of some wishes like for example, no matter how much one may love to play basketball in the PBA, his height can be a deterring factor when he does not meet the minimal requirement.

Types of Conflicts

Contrary situation which involve the choice of alternatives can serve as sources of origins of conflict. There are four types of conflicts:

1. **Conflicting attraction or approach-approach**
2. **Attraction repulsion or approach-avoidance**
3. **Conflicting avoidance or avoidance-avoidance**
4. **Multiple conflicts**

Conflicting attraction or approach-approach conflict occurs when there are two desirable but mutually exclusive goals that one cannot have both. Shall I take AB or BSE? Shall I date the charming Michelle or the sexy Maria? Conflicts of this type are usually resolved by choosing one goal over the other, either excluding one entirely or deciding which to do first. The response to this conflict is either alternation or freezing or blocking.

- ✓ **Attraction-repulsion or approach-avoidance conflict** – there is an attraction to an object or state of affairs and at the same time repulsion towards something associated with it. The situation contains two elements, one of which is very desirable while the other is undesirable and disadvantageous. For example, a girl likes to eat ice cream but she does not want to get stout; a student enjoys school but looks forward to vacation; a woman wants to marry but will lose her inheritance if she does. The closer the individual is to the goal, the repulsion towards the negative aspects associated with it gets stronger. Attraction-repulsion conflicts usually produce indecisive and vacillating behavior.
- ✓ **Conflicting avoidance or avoidance-avoidance conflict** – when there are two unpleasant alternatives and one cannot be avoided without encountering the other. For example, a student does not want to make the requirements in school, but neither does the student want to fail the course; Lilia must wash the dirty dishes or face parental ire; Carlos must perform a job he hates doing or go hungry.
- ✓ **Multiple conflicts** –when there are two or more courses of action each has both pleasant and unpleasant consequences stemming from the role we play in life. Multiple conflicts take a longer



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time to resolve. Generally, these conflicts are common because of the many expectations we bear. For example, a beauty contest winner is given the opportunity to start a movie career or to travel abroad but is strongly attached to her boyfriend and family. The goals she has are exclusive such that she wants both, but she cannot have both at the same time.

UNIT-IV

LEADERSHIP AND TEAM BUILDING

Definition

Autocratic leadership, also known as authoritarian leadership, is a leadership style characterized by individual control over all decisions and little input from group members. Autocratic leaders typically make choices based on their own ideas and judgments and rarely accept advice from followers. Learn more about some of the characteristics, benefits and downsides of autocratic leadership.

Peter Drucker famously stated that "management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things." Great leaders possess dazzling social intelligence, a zest for change, and above all, vision that allows them to set their sights on the "things" that truly merit attention. Not a bad skill set for the rest of us, either.

LEADERSHIP THEORIES -

Interest in leadership increased during the early part of the twentieth century. Early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished between leaders and followers, while subsequent theories looked at other variables such as situational factors and skill levels. While many different leadership theories have emerged, most can be classified as one of eight major types:

1. "Great Man" Theories:

Great man theories assume that the capacity for leadership is inherent – that great leaders are born, not made. These theories often portray great leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed. The term "Great Man" was used because, at the time, leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership. Learn more about the great man theory of leadership.

2. Trait Theories:

Similar in some ways to "Great Man" theories, trait theories assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioral characteristics shared by leaders. If particular traits are key features of leadership, then how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? This question is one of the difficulties in using trait theories to explain leadership.

3. Contingency Theories:

Contingency theories of leadership focus on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation. According to this theory, no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation.

4. Situational Theories:

Situational theories propose that leaders choose the best course of action based upon situational variables. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making. For example, in a situation where the leader is the most knowledgeable and experienced member of a group, an authoritarian style might be most appropriate. In other instances where group members are skilled experts, a democratic style would be more effective.

5. Behavioral Theories:

Behavioral theories of leadership are based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born. Rooted in behaviorism, this leadership theory focuses on the actions of leaders not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theory, people can *learn* to become leaders through teaching and observation.

6. Participative Theories:

Participative leadership theories suggest that the ideal leadership style is one that takes the input of others into account. These leaders encourage participation and contributions from group members and help group members feel more relevant and committed to the decision-making process. In participative theories, however, the leader retains the right to allow the input of others.

7. Management Theories:

Management theories, also known as transactional theories, focus on the role of supervision, organization and group performance. These theories base leadership on a system of rewards and punishments. Managerial theories are often used in business; when employees are successful, they are rewarded; when they fail, they are reprimanded or punished. Learn more about theories of transactional leadership.

8. Relationship Theories:

Relationship theories, also known as transformational theories, focus upon the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. These leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also want each person to fulfill his or her potential. Leaders with this style often have high ethical and moral standards.

THE CHARACTERISTIC OF LEADERSHIP

Studying the characteristic of leadership is useful because we tend break things into characteristics to make big concepts easier to handle. There are common traits that define leadership, and finding them only takes some study of those who have been successful. By actively building on these traits you can develop into a stronger leader.

Here are some of the most common traits in the characteristic of leadership:

- **Empathy:** Creating a legitimate rapport with your staff makes it less likely that personal issues and resentment can creep in and derail the group. When your team knows that you are empathetic to their concerns, they will be more likely to work with you and share in your vision, rather than foster negative feelings.
- **Consistency:** Being a consistent leader will gain you respect and credibility, which is essential to getting buy-in from the group. By setting an example of fairness and credibility, the team will want to act the same way.



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- **Honesty:** Another characteristic of leadership that lends itself to credibility. Those who are honest, especially about concerns, make it far more likely that obstacles will be addressed rather than avoided. Honesty also allows for better assessment and growth.
- **Direction:** Having the vision to break out of the norm and aim for great things --then the wherewithal to set the steps necessary to get there-- is an essential characteristic of good leadership. By seeing what can be and managing the goals on how to get there, a good leader can create impressive change.
- **Communication:** Effective communication helps keep the team working on the right projects with the right attitude. If you communicate effectively about expectations, issues and advice, your staff will be more likely to react and meet your goals.
- **Flexibility:** Not every problem demands the same solution. By being flexible to new ideas and open-minded enough to consider them, you increase the likelihood that you will find the best possible answer. You will set a good example for your team and reward good ideas.
- **Conviction:** A strong vision and the willingness to see it through is one of the most important characterizes of leadership. The leader who believes in the mission and works toward it will be an inspiration and a resource to their followers.

Of course, there are several other theories about leadership and leadership styles where different skills come into play. But no matter what your approach, if you display the previous traits you will be well equipped to lead a team successfully.

TEAM- BUILDING

Team building is a philosophy of job design in which employees are viewed as members of interdependent teams instead of as individual workers. Team building (which according to English Professor Emeritus Alexandra Gerstley of Dickinson University is correctly spelled with two words) refers to a wide range of activities, presented to businesses, schools, sports teams, religious or nonprofit organizations designed for improving team performance. Team building is pursued via a variety of practices, and can range from simple bonding exercises to complex simulations and multi-day team building retreats designed to develop a team (including group assessment and group-dynamic games), usually falling somewhere in between. It generally sits within the theory and practice of organizational development, but can also be applied to sports teams, school groups, and other contexts. Team building is

not to be confused with "team recreation" that consists of activities for teams that are strictly recreational. Team building can also be seen in day-to-day operations of an organization and team dynamic can be improved through successful leadership. Team building is an important factor in any environment, its focus is to specialize in bringing out the best in a team to ensure self-development, positive communication, leadership skills and the ability to work closely together as a team to problem solve.

Work environments tend to focus on individuals and personal goals, with reward & recognition singling out the achievements of individual employees. Team building can also refer to the process of selecting or creating a team from scratch.

Team dynamic

When assembling a team it is very important to consider the overall dynamic of the team. According to Frank LaFasto, when building a team, five dynamics are fundamental to team success:

1. **The team member:** Successful teams are made up of a collection of effective individuals. These are people who are experienced, have problem solving ability, are open to addressing the problem, and are action oriented.
2. **Team relationships:** For a team to be successful the members of the team must be able to give and receive feedback.
3. **Team problem solving:** An effective team depends on how focused and clear the goal of the team is. A relaxed, comfortable and accepting environment and finally, open and honest communication are required.
4. **Team leadership:** Effective team leadership depends on leadership competencies. A competent leader is: focused on the goal, ensures a collaborative climate, builds confidence of team members, sets priorities, demonstrates sufficient "know-how" and manages performance through feedback.
5. **Organizational environment:** The climate and culture of the organization must be conducive to team behavior. Competitiveness should be discouraged and uniformity should be encouraged - this will eliminate conflict and discord among team members.

Goals

The overall goals of team building are to increase the teams understanding of team dynamics and improve how the team works together. Unlike working as a group, working as a team incorporates group accountability rather than individual accountability and results in a collective work product.^[5] Team building encourages the team approach to working on a project. There are many advantages to this approach. These advantages include the following:

- Increased flexibility in skills and abilities
- More productive than work groups with individual mindset
- More beneficial in times of organizational change
- Encourage both individual and team development and improvement
- Focuses on group goals to accomplish more beneficial tasks
- Improved range of team building objectives such as collaboration, communication and increased creative or flexible thinking.

LEADERSHIP ROLES

Successful team leaders frequently contain six of the same leadership abilities:

1. A team leader is usually goal-oriented to keep the team on track.
2. They must promote a safe environment where members can openly discuss issues.
3. A leader must build confidence amongst members by building and maintaining trust and offering the members responsibilities.
4. A leader should be technically competent in matters relating to team tasks and goals.
5. It is important for a team leader to set a manageable list of priorities for the team to keep members focused.
6. Finally, leaders should offer clear performance expectations by recognizing and rewarding excellent performance, and provide feedback to others.

Carl Larson and Frank LaFasto conducted a three year study of over 75 diverse teams. By interviewing key members of each team, Larson & LaFasto identified eight effective strategies a leader should employ to enhance team building:

1. Establish clear and inspiring team goals



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2. Maintain a results-oriented team structure
3. Assemble competent team members
4. Strive for unified commitment
5. Provide a collaborative climate
6. Encourage standards of excellence
7. Furnish external support and recognition
8. Apply principled leadership

Types of exercises

Team building exercises consist of a variety of tasks designed to develop group members and their ability to work together effectively. There are many types of team building activities that range from games for kids to games and challenges that involve novel and complex tasks that are designed for improving group performance by addressing specific needs.

Team building can range from simple social activities - to encourage team members to spend time together- to team development activities -designed to help individuals discover how they approach a problem, how the team works together, and discover better methods of communication.

Team interaction involves "soft" interpersonal skills including communication, negotiation, leadership, and motivation - in contrast to technical skills directly involved with the job at hand. Depending on the type of team building, the novel tasks can encourage or specifically teach interpersonal team skills to increase team performance.

Whether indoor or outdoor, the purpose of team building exercises is to assist teams in becoming cohesive units of individuals that can effectively work together to complete tasks. Some corporate team building companies theme their events around ideas from popular culture such as TV game shows to add a fun element to the event.

Communication exercise: This type of team building exercise is exactly what it sounds like. Communications exercises are problem solving activities that are geared towards improving communication skills. The issues teams encounter in these exercises are solved by communicating effectively with each other.

- Goal: Create an activity which highlights the importance of good communication in team performance and/or potential problems with communication.

Problem-solving/decision-making exercise: Problem-solving/decision-making exercises focus specifically on groups working together to solve difficult problems or make complex decisions. These exercises are some of the most common as they appear to have the most direct link to what employers want their teams to be able to do.

- Goal: Give team a problem in which the solution is not easily apparent or requires the team to come up with a creative solution

Planning/adaptability exercise: These exercises focus on aspects of planning and being adaptable to change. These are important things for teams to be able to do when they are assigned complex tasks or decisions.

- Goal: Show the importance of planning before implementing a solution

Trust exercise: A trust exercise involves engaging team members in a way that will induce trust between them. They are sometimes difficult exercises to implement as there are varying degrees of trust between individuals and varying degrees of individual comfort trusting others in general.

- Goal: Create trust between team members

Assessment and feedback

In the organizational development context, a team may embark on a process of self-assessment to gauge its effectiveness and improve its performance. To assess itself, a team seeks feedback from group members to find out both its current strengths and weakness.

To improve its current performance, feedback from the team assessment can be used to identify gaps between the desired state and the current state, and to design a gap-closure strategy. Team development can be the greater term containing this assessment and improvement actions, or as a component of organizational development.

Another way is to allow for personality assessment amongst the team members, so that they will have a better understanding of their working style, as well as their team mates.

A structured team building plan is a good tool to implement team bonding and thus, team awareness. These may be introduced by companies that specialize in executing team building sessions, or done internally by the human resource department.

Risks

The major risk of team building is that a team member may become cynical of the organization. This could happen as a result of the organization holding team building events outside of the normal context in which the organization usually functions under. For example, if an organization hosts team building events when individual goals and efforts are the norm with the organizational culture, the team building event will have no lasting impact.

It is crucial to follow up a team building event with meaningful workplace practice. If the team members do not see an improvement within an organization as a result of team building events, members may view such events as a waste of time. This may lead to loss of trust in the organization, harm motivation, as well as decrease employee morale and production