OXFORD
Your choice for success

IOP1501
PSYCHOLOGICAL PROCESSES IN THE WORK CONTEXT

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Details of the examination paper are as follows:

Duration : 2 hours

Composition: 80 multiple choice questions

Total marks: 80 marks (will be converted to a percentage)

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS SOUTHERN AFRICA

Scope of the IOP1501 May/June 2011 examination

1. **RELEVANT CHAPTERS FOR B & T (2009):**

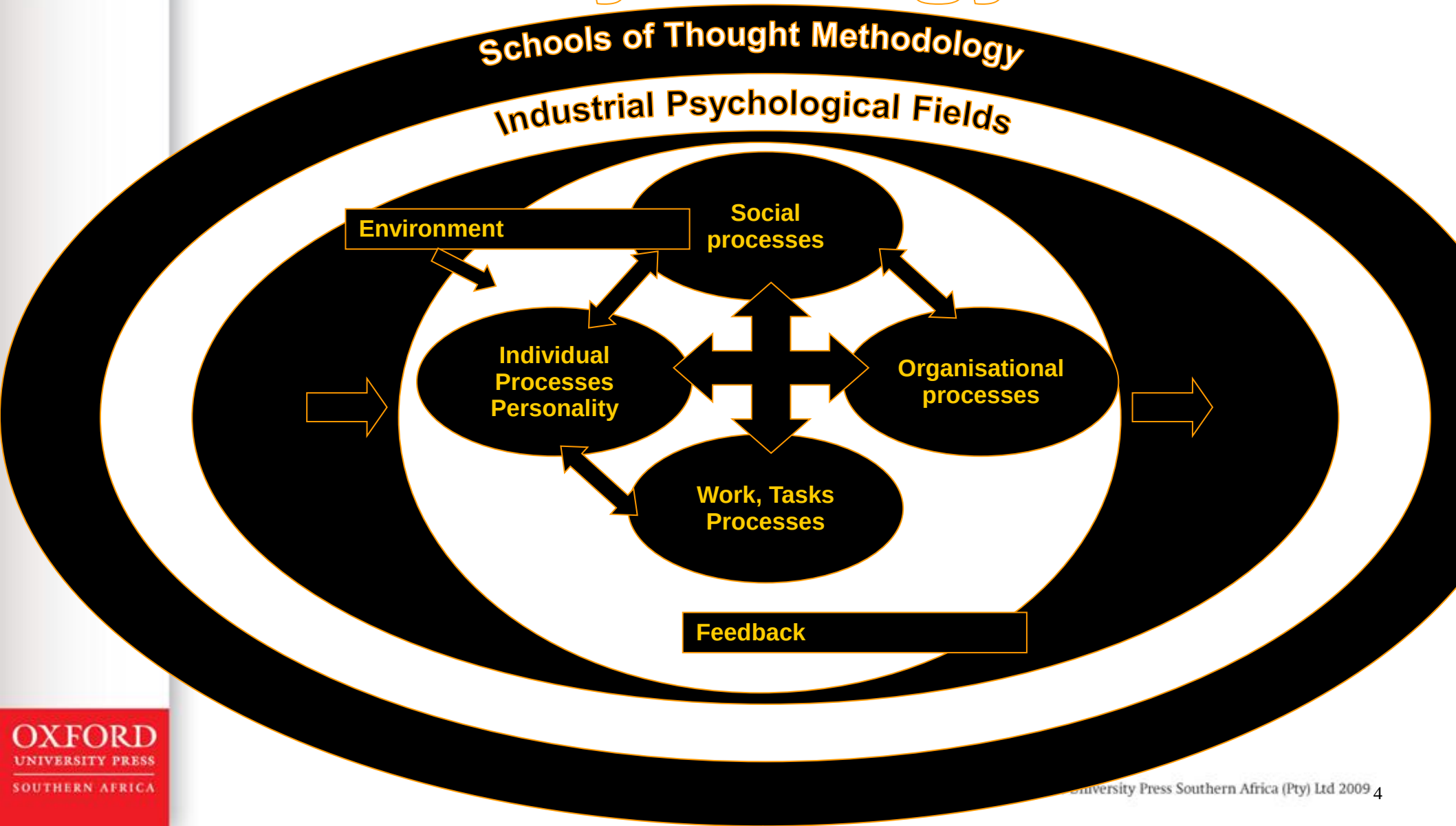
   1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9

   Chapters 2, 3, 10, 11, and 12 WILL NOT be included in your Oct/Nov 2011 examination

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS SOUTHERN AFRICA

Organisations as Open Systems

Psychology



Chapter 1

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES IN PSYCHOLOGY

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What are perspectives in general and what is work behaviour and why are they important?

- Describe the subject matter and the methods of the **eight** different **schools of thought** in psychology
- Explain the **main focus** of each school of thought
- Describe the **method/s** of each school of thought (where applicable)
- Describe the **essence** of meta-psychology
- Discuss the **main themes** of post-modern approaches.

What are SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT?

- Intellectual movements whose followers share more or less the same ideology
- Influenced by emerging and active views in science and culture
- Incorporate theoretical propositions on
  - What subject the matter of psychology should be
  - What methods should be used
- Different theoretical and methodological propositions for studying human beings
- Basis frameworks for construction of contemporary psychology.

STRUCTURALISM

- **Structuralism was greatly influenced by the work of *Wilhelm Wundt.***
- **The subject matter of structuralism was the *consciousness.***
- **By studying the structural elements of *conscious experience*, the structuralists tried to understand *sensation, attention, perception, reaction, feelings and emotion.***
- **Method - introspection (self-observation)**
- **Criticism: subjective nature of introspection and the omission of unconscious behaviour.**

What do you see?

What sensations are elicited when you are presented with a stimulus?

According to Structuralism, it is not whether you know or do not know the correct name of the stimulus tha is of importance, but rather the sensations which the stimulus concerned elicits from each person.

Structuralism (Wundt, Titchener)

The subject matter

- Analyse Consciousness into **basic elements**

Basic premise

- The whole is **equal** to sum of its parts – breaks the mind down into its most basic elements

Main objective

- Sought to identify the **components** of the mind

Method

- Introspection – self-observation of one's immediate experience of a stimulus

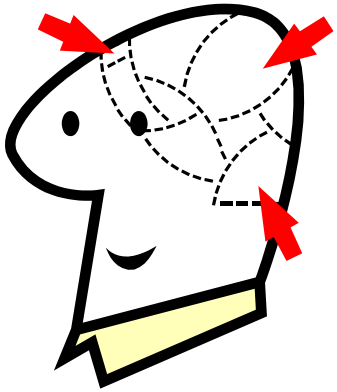
Identifying statement

- Human beings function similarly to **machines**
- Structuralism cannot be used on **children**
- Therapist trained in introspection must be **mature** in order to manage biases.

Functionalism:
A Conscious reaction to structuralism (James; Darwin)

The subject matter

- The **functions** of the **consciousness/the mind**



Basic premise

- How does the mind affect what people **do**?

Main objective

- The individual's **adaptation** to the environment.
- The role **emotions** play in **social adaptation.**
- **Evolution theory** and **individual differences.**

Method

- **Observation** tests, **animal** research and experiments with identical **twins**

Individual differences

- Studied through **heredity** and **mental abilities**

Identifying statement

- Attributes which influence adaptation are **common** for human beings and certain animals.

Behaviourism:
Nurture, not nature

- Behaviourist school of thought emphasises the **environment** (nurture), rather than innate **biological** predispositions (nature).

"Give me a dozen healthy infants, well-formed, and my own special world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take any one at random and *train* him to become any type of specialist I might select – doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant-chief, and yes, even beggar-man and thief…"

A quote by John B. Watson who is considered to be an important contributor to classical behaviourism, who paved the way for B. F. Skinner's radical or operant behaviourism.

Behaviourism:
First force in psychology (Watson; Pavlov)

The subject matter

- Observable behaviour

Basic premise

- Stimuli/events association basis of mental processes
- Behaviour can be predetermined by the control of environmental factors – **Tabula rasa**

Main objective

- Focus on Stimulus–response (S–R) approach
- Stimulus–organism–response (S–O–R) approach

Method

- Cognitive processes and social learning
- Observation/experiments

Identifying statement

- Environmental factors determine behaviour.

Gestalt psychology:
Developed as a reaction to structuralism (Wertheimer)

The subject matter

- Wholeness of experience – e.g. perception. The whole is **greater** than sum of its parts

Basic premise

- All aspects of human beings' experiential field are interrelated and perceived as a balanced, simplified and organised whole

Main objective

- Perception and problem-solving

Method

- Phi-phenomenon

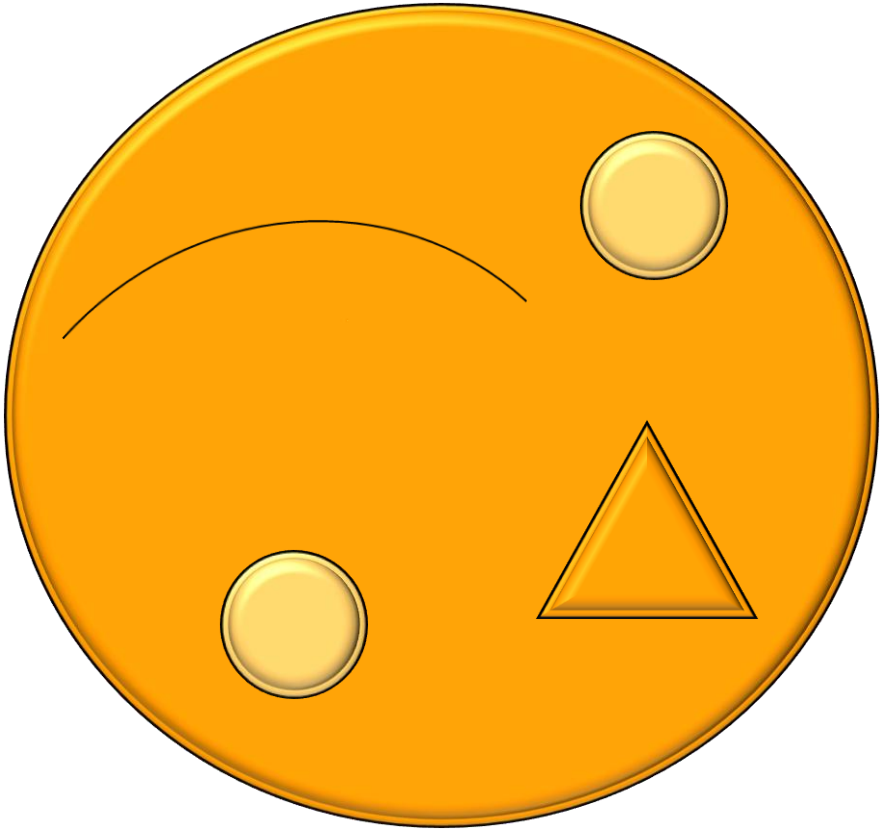
Example of a workplace gestalt application

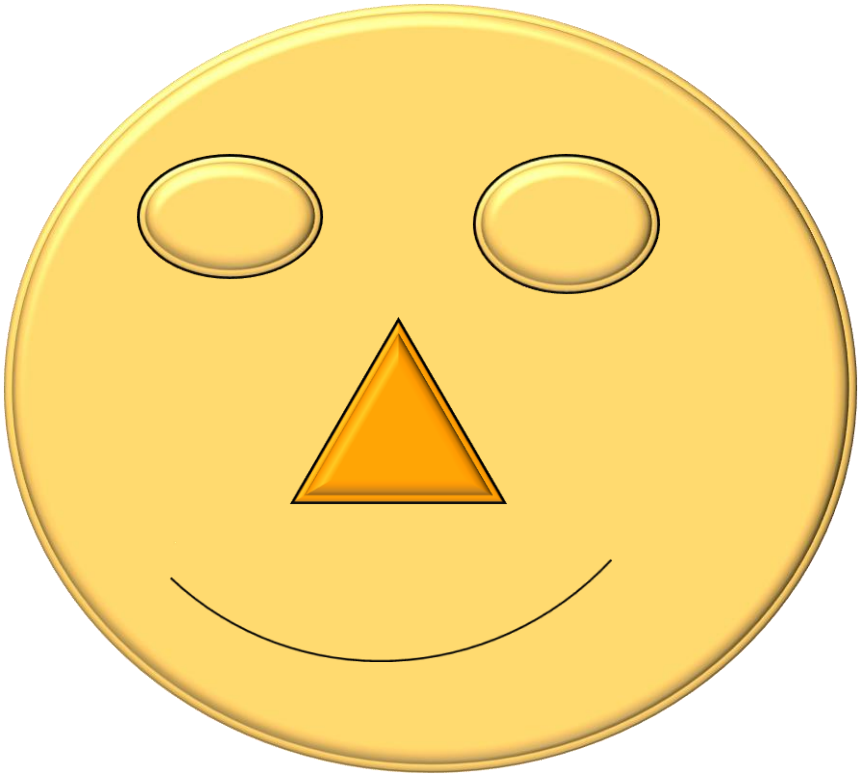
- Organisational culture as it is shaped by the perceptions that the members of an organisation have on its meaning.

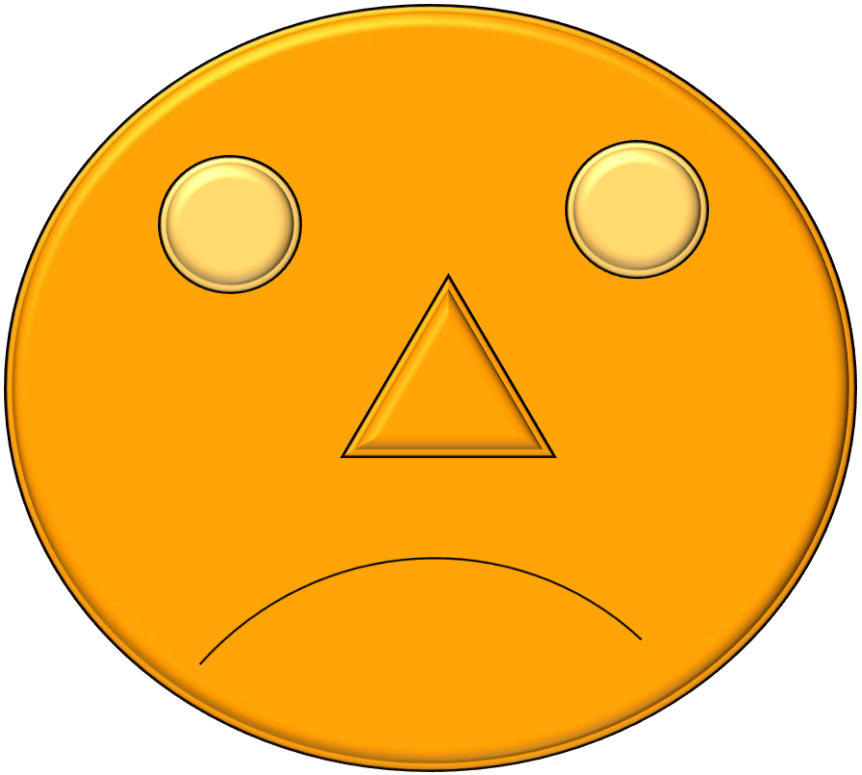
What do you see?

Do the individual parts of this whole make sense?

Gestalt Psychology argues that the elements of a system should work together for the survival/benefit of the whole.







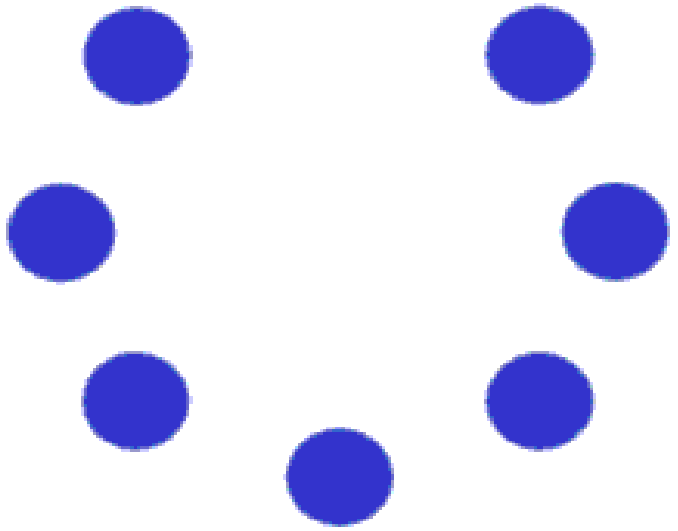
What do you see?

By merely re-arranging the elements of the system such that they are in viewed as a unit (happy or sad) the system (the faces) take form.

Can you now find sense in the meaning of the main assumption of the Gestalt?

The whole is MORE than the sum of its parts?

What do you see?



Is there really any movement?

This perception of movement in a stationary object, called the Phi phenomenon.

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

The Psychoanalytic school:
Second force in psychology (Freud)

The subject matter

- Role of the unconscious processes in mental functions/disorders

Basic premise

- Making sense of what seems not to make sense – i.e. there are no coincidences in life

Main objective

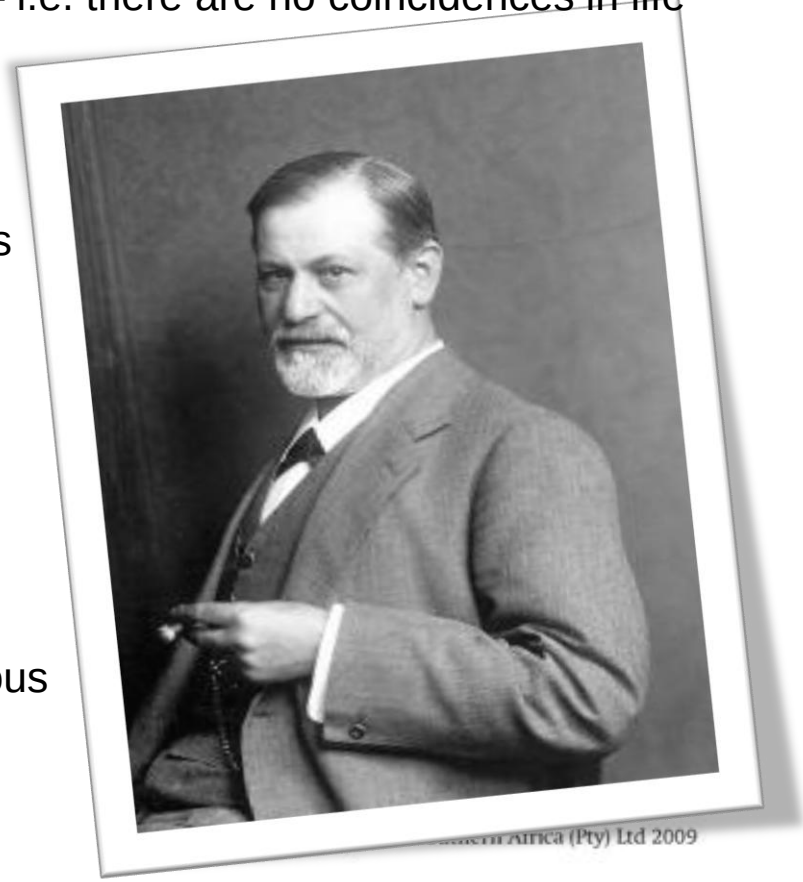
- Conflicts between structures and processes
- Behavioural dynamics and unconscious processes lead to deeper understanding of issues

Method

- Clinical observation – free association

Example of a workplace psychoanalysis application

- The study of behavioural dynamics and unconscious processes lead to a deeper understanding of organisational issues.



Humanist or phenomenology:
Third force in psychology

Reaction against behaviourism and psychoanalysis

The subject matter

- Focus on positive aspects of conscious mental activity

Basic premise

- Human beings strive for psychological growth, self-actualisation, autonomy and self-fulfilment

Main objective

- Focused on the person as a whole

Method

- Eidetic reduction
- Systematically reducing visual images which occur when recalling an event in one's mind to draw out the absolutely necessary and invariable components that make the mental object what it is

Example of workplace psychoanalysis application

- Hawthorne's experiments – influence of working conditions in on morale.

Cognitive psychology

The word **"cognitive"** is the Latin word meaning "to know" .

The subject matter

- Understanding information organisation in the mind

Basic premise

- Mind is seen as being similar to a computer
- Humans are regarded as problem-solvers

Main objective

- Perception is a process of knowing more than seeing
- Consciousness studied as a coherent structure

Method

- Analysis of information processing General Systems Theory.

Metapsychology:
Psychological perspectives

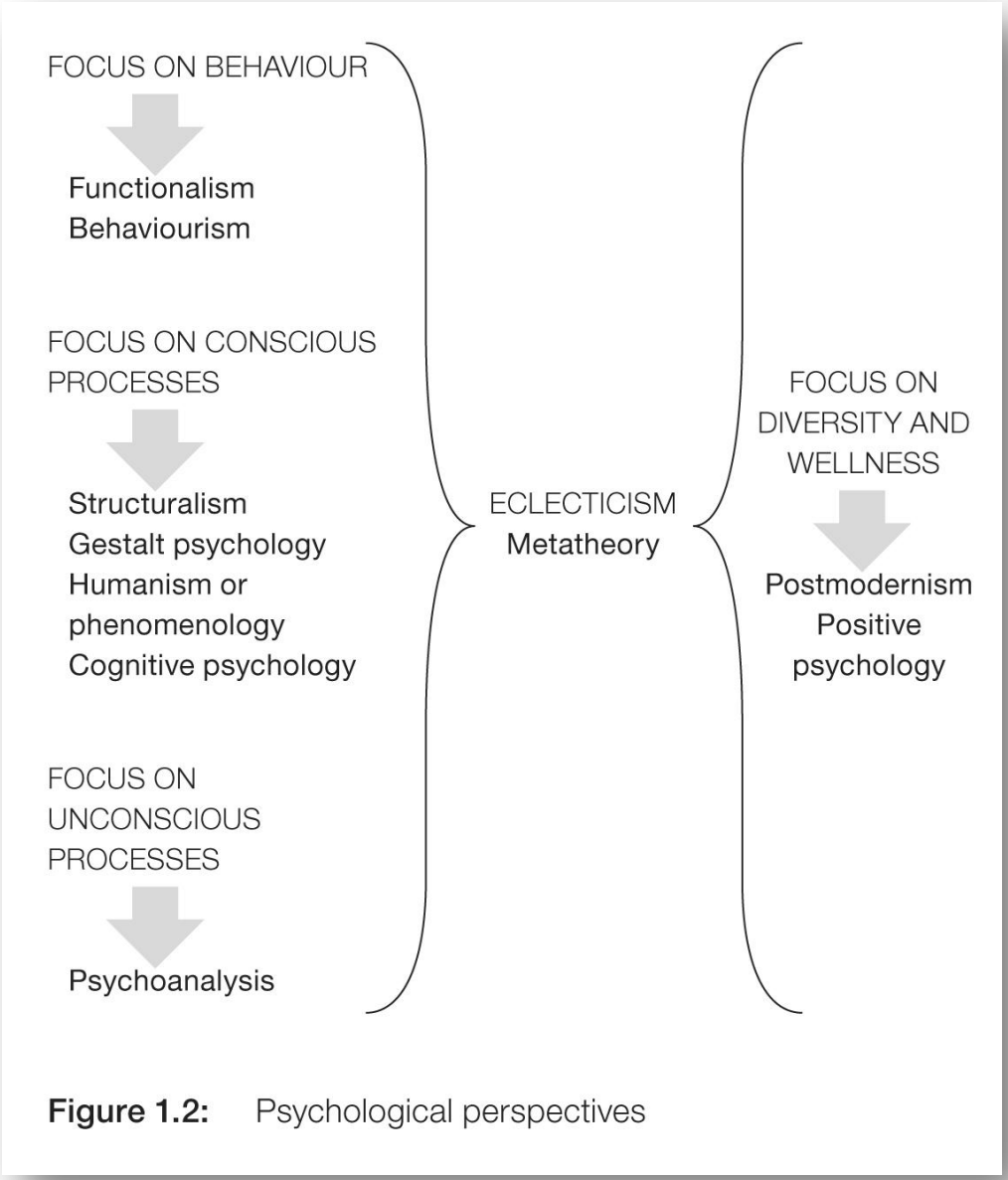


Figure 1.2: Psychological perspectives

Metatheories are integrative approaches that overcome the limitations of adhering to one particular theoretical point of view.

Metapsychology:
Deconstructionism

- Coined by French philosopher Jacques Derrida
- Reading of texts and finding new meaning in them
- Texts are unlimited networks of unlimited meanings
- Difference: What the text says and what it means
- Play of activities in which meanings of opposites can be overturned
- A construction process through reinterpretation of language theory.

Metapsychology:
Constructivism

- George Kelly
- Finding meaning through understanding how people construct their personal beliefs
- Developed through the individual's interpretation of external social and cultural factors
- Understanding of an individual's constructs through dialogue and shared meaning
- Constructs can change through meaning-making
- Dialogue is thus reciprocally influential.

Metapsychology:
Social constructionism

- Kenneth Gergen
- Emphasises social interaction in gaining knowledge and new meanings
- People do construct themselves and their knowledge can be reconstructed by deconstruction.

Positive psychology

The subject matter

- Optimum experience

Basic premise

- Positive subjective experiences facilitated by development of human strengths and virtues

Main objective

- Priority given to having capacity for goodness, morality, virtuous character

Method

- Analysis of information processing General Systems Theory
- A meta approach because it links aspects of different perspectives
- In South Africa positive psychology is alternatively called the “Science of Strengths”
- By developing strengths in workplace employees and managers can develop excellence in their distinctive talents.

Positive psychology:
Strengths that are related to various virtues

Virtues	Associated strengths
Wisdom	Creativity, curiosity, judgment/critical thinking, love of learning, perspective
Courage	Bravery, perseverance, authenticity, zest
Love	Intimacy, kindness, social intelligence
Justice	Citizenship/teamwork, fairness, leadership
Temperance	Forgiveness/mercy, modesty/humanity, prudence, self-control/self-regulation
Transcendence	Awe/appreciation of beauty and excellence, gratitude, hope, playfulness, spirituality

Table 1.1: Strengths that are related to various virtues
Source: Adapted from Peterson & Park, 2004

In summary:
The main focus of each school of thought

Structuralism	Focuses on sensations and perceptual experiences
Functionalism	Investigates functions of mental processes in adapting to the environment
Behaviorism	Concentrates on observable, measurable behaviours and not mental processes
Gestalt psychology	Emphasises perception: the whole is more than the sum of the parts
Psycho-analysis	Emphasises the unconscious mind
Humanistic psychology/ phenomenology	Emphasises inner-self and importance of subjective feelings
Cognitive psychology	Focuses on cognitive functions and reasoning
Metapsychology	Combination of concepts and methods from different schools – uses concepts in varied applications
Postmodernism	Broad cultural movement indicating the relativity in social meaning – things can always change
Deconstructionism	Reading texts, etc and finding new meaning in them
Constructivism	How people construct their own beliefs
Social Constructionism	Interaction in gaining knowledge and new meanings
Positive Psychology	Priority given to having capacity for goodness, morality, virtuous character

Chapter 4

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT ACROSS THE LIFE SPAN

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What does human development entail and why is it important?

- Describe the characteristics of human development
- Discuss different domains of human development
- Discuss the determinant of human behaviour
- Explain significance of critical periods in human development
- Describe career transitions and tasks
- Describe trends in people's career development.

What is human development?

Development is a sequence of age-related changes that occur as a person progresses from conception to death.

Human beings go through different types of changes:

- Physical development
  - Motor skills, bone structure, weight, etc.
- Cognitive development
  - Thought patterns and skills, problem solving, etc.
- Social development
  - Motional changes, personality, etc.

Why is the study of human development necessary?

- Development results in a repertoire of competencies
- Development studies enable people to determine schedule and norms showing what to expect of people
- Development provides continuity and identity in people's way of behaviour
- Study of development provides a description of change and continuity in behaviour
- Development psychology emphasises the importance of development on child and adulthood
- New knowledge of human development forces scientists and practitioners to rethink ideas about human development in general.

The general nature of human development

Transitions

- Progression through stages of development

Ageing

- Chronological increase in years & biological physical changes

Growth

- Increase in physical and biological structure & improvement in mental and psychosocial competencies

Maturity

- Integration of physical, cognitive, social, psychological (independence)

Readiness

- Level of sufficient maturity to benefit from learning or experiences.

Characteristics of human development

Hierarchical evolution of phases

- Ready for certain types of experiences – critical periods
- Pre-set by maturation of biological systems

Differentiation from general to particular

- Cortex discrimination & maturation

Increased complexity

- Integrates – e.g. need for complexity, challenge

Predictability

- Criteria for normality whereby individuals can be assessed.


Cycles of life

Domains of human development

Physical or biological domain

- Entails biological, motor and physical attributes

Cognitive development

- Progressive development of thought processes, mental abilities and capabilities.

Cognitive development:
Jean Piaget's principle of self-regulation

- How does an organism adapts to its environment?
- Behaviour is controlled through mental organisations called schemes
- Individuals use schema to represent the world and designate action
- Two processes are used by the individual in his/her attempt to adapt
  - Assimilation
    - New information and experiences are interpreted and integrated with the existing mental process
  - Accommodation
    - Cognitive processes are changed to handle new experiences.

Both of these processes are used throughout life as the individual increasingly adapts to the environment in a more complex manner.

Piaget's stages of cognitive development

STAGES AND AGES	CHARACTERISTICS
Sensory (birth - 2 years)	• Gains knowledge through looking at, touching, holding and manipulating objects • Develops co-ordinations, and sensory motor perception becomes more complex • Can distinguish between self and environment • Has little ability to distinguish symbols.
Pre-operations (ages 2-7 years)	• Learns through actions • Increasing able to remember and anticipate • Internalises the concrete world through language and visual images.
Concrete operations (ages 7-11 years)	• Child makes more progress in concrete thinking • Achieve insight into the views of others • Can handle problems more logically. For example, arithmetic equations can be solved with numbers, not just with objects.
Formal operations (from 11 years onwards)	• Makes use of abstract thought • Uses logical thinking and uses systematic and diverse approaches to problem-solving.

Cognitive development:
Schaie's theory

Acquisition stage: childhood & adolescence

- Person acquires progressively more complex ways of thinking

Achieving stage: young adulthood

- Involves problem-solving and decision making, through which the individual uses intellectual competencies to prepare career

Responsibility stage: adulthood

- Individual needs to be an independent thinker

Executive stage: middle adulthood

- Enables individuals through an increase knowledge to serve in responsible positions

Reintegrative stage: late adulthood

- Individual must use accumulated repertoire of intellectual skills to assess life and give meaning to what is in the past.

Domains of human development

Psychosocial development

- Progressive development of psychological an social behaviour – socialisation in humans

Career related task development

- Contribute to career choice at certain stages.

Determinants of human development

Heredity or genetic determination (etiology, causes)

- Many human similarities and unique behaviour are influences by unborn or genetic behaviour

Environment and learning

- Environmentally acquired behaviour are ingrained as a result of social and cultural learning

Interaction between person & environment

- Microsystem – the person in their living environment
- Mesosystem – interactions between elements of the microsystem
- Exosystem – outside the individual's immediate contacts
- Macrosystems – focuses on specific cultural and societal values.

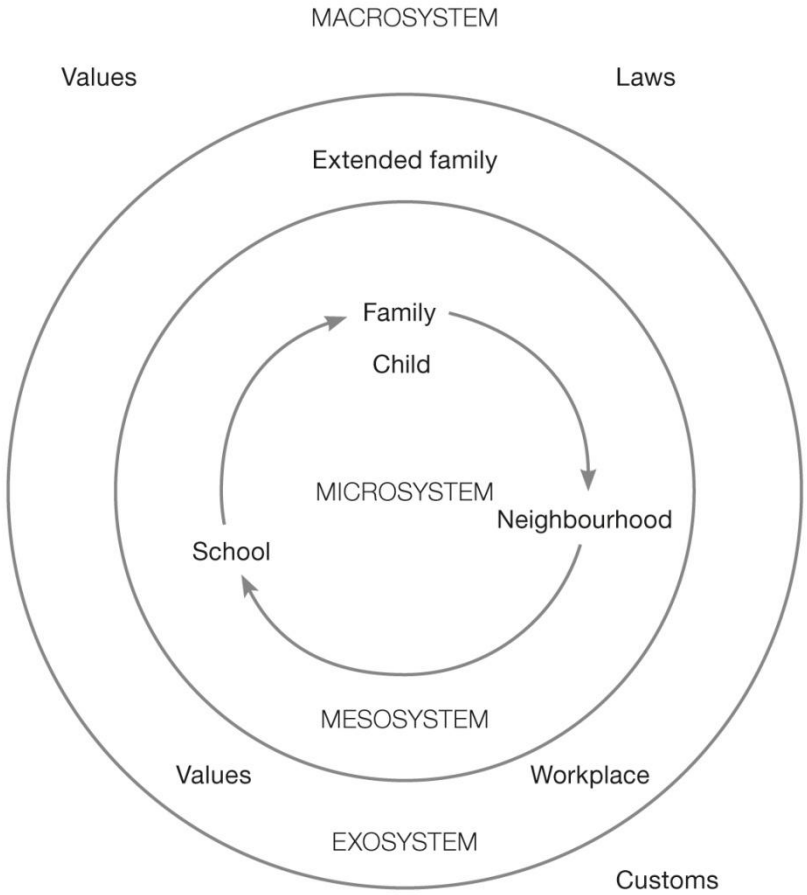


Figure 4.1: Systemic environmental influences in human development
Source: Craig (1996)

Critical periods in development

Critical periods

- Refers to certain point in time when particular factors will or have positive or negative influence
- Sensitive to particular type of stimulation
- Limited duration and lasting effect
- Effect noticeable in adulthood
- May be neutralised by subsequent positive experiences

Optimum periods

- Maturation and learning responsible for successful development.

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Critical periods:
The first five or six years

Vygotsky's concept of social learning

- Children develop their ways of thinking and understanding primarily through interaction with others

Bowlby and Ainsworth's attachment behaviours

- Attachment is a special emotional relationship that involves an exchange of comfort, care, and pleasure.
- The propensity to make strong emotional bonds to particular individuals is a basic component of human nature
- Secure and insecure attachment behaviours
  - Insecure attachment
    - Ambivalent, avoidant and disorganised attachments
  - Secure attachment
    - Most probably lead to well-adjusted adults.

Critical periods:
The first five or six years (continued)

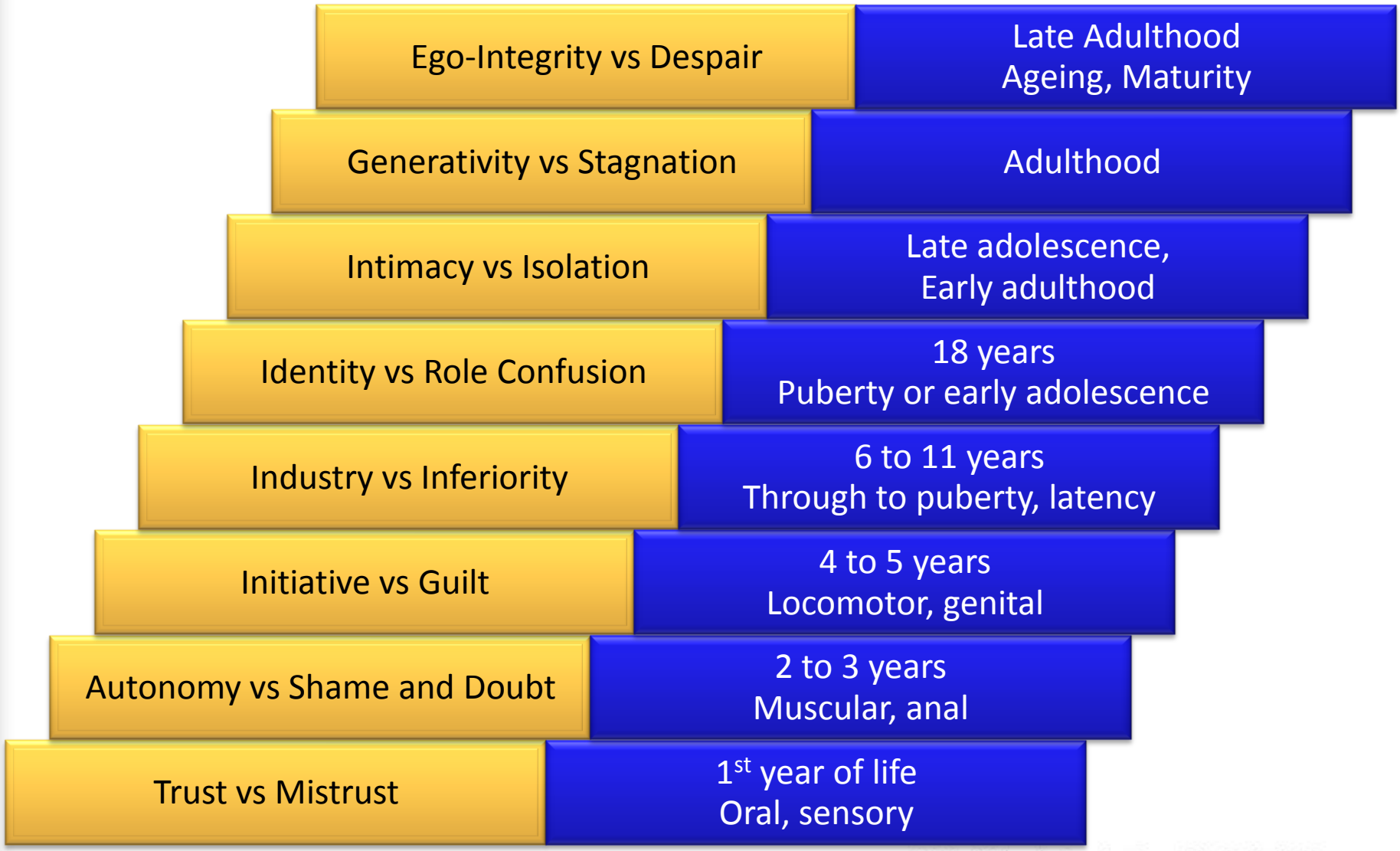
Freud's psychosexual stages

- Oral (1st year) – mouth areas
- Anal (Age 1 to 1.5) – excretion areas
- Phallic (age 3 to 5) – genitals
- Latent (5 to 12) – non-sexual, relationships
- Genital (from 12 to 18) – genitals, partner sexuality

Erikson's life-span developmental theory

- Unique development task confronts individuals with **crisis** that must be resolved
- Positive resolution builds **foundation for healthy development**.

Erikson's life-span developmental theory



Career stages and tasks

Ages and phases	Tasks and transitions
0–14 Growth phase 0–3 Pre-vocational 4–10 Fantasy 11–12 Interest 13–14 Capacity	**General physical and mental growth** • no or little career interest • fantasy or games about work, based on identification with parents • likes and dislikes form the basis for job and career interest • abilities as the basis for thinking about jobs and careers • through schoolwork, learning priorities, organising time and completing tasks
15–24 Exploration phase 15–17 Tentative 18–21 Transition 22–24 Trial	**Broad exploration of work** • various attributes (such as abilities and values) become the basis for occupational choices • more specific and realistic about career choices, study and job entry • study and entry into first job, identity as a worker
25–44 Establishment phase 25–30 Trial 31–44 Stabilisation	**More permanent job or career, creative years** • possible changes of jobs and career • productive, stable work in a given job and career • moving ahead, and maintaining income, lifestyle and societal roles
45–65 Maintenance phase	**Progress and continuation in a given career line** • holding job, updating and innovating • maintaining societal roles and possibly planning for retirement
65+ Decline phase 65–70 Deceleration 71+ Retirement	**Preparation to retire** • if working, deceleration and decline in capabilities, planning to retire • ceasing work, contemplating life

Table 4.2: Career stages and tasks
Sources: Super and Havighurst (in Weiten, 1995; Craig, 1996; Sharf, 1997)

Career transition and tasks

- Progressive development and learning of work competencies and attitudes as part of general development

Career maturity

- Progressive maturity and growth in physical, cognitive and psychosocial domains

Career self-efficacy

- An individual's belief in their own capabilities
  Developmental tasks
- Tasks which arise at certain period in an individual's life, successful achievement of which lead to satisfaction with later tasks

Adult career transition stages

- **Early Life** – Occupational choice and preparation
- **Young Adult** – Entry into and establishment in the workplace
- **Middle Adulthood** – Consolidation, maintenance and change
- **Late Adulthood** – Disengagement.

Chapter 5

LEARNING

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What is learning and why is it important?

- Define the learning process
- Describe principles of classical and instrumental learning
- Discuss social and cognitive learning theory
- Discuss the dynamics of an adult learner
- Discuss the training process in the work context
- Define experiential learning and explain various experiential learning techniques
- Discuss the learning organisation and its distinguishing characteristics
- Assess whether transfer or learning has taken place.

What is learning?

Learning

- Potential change in behaviour

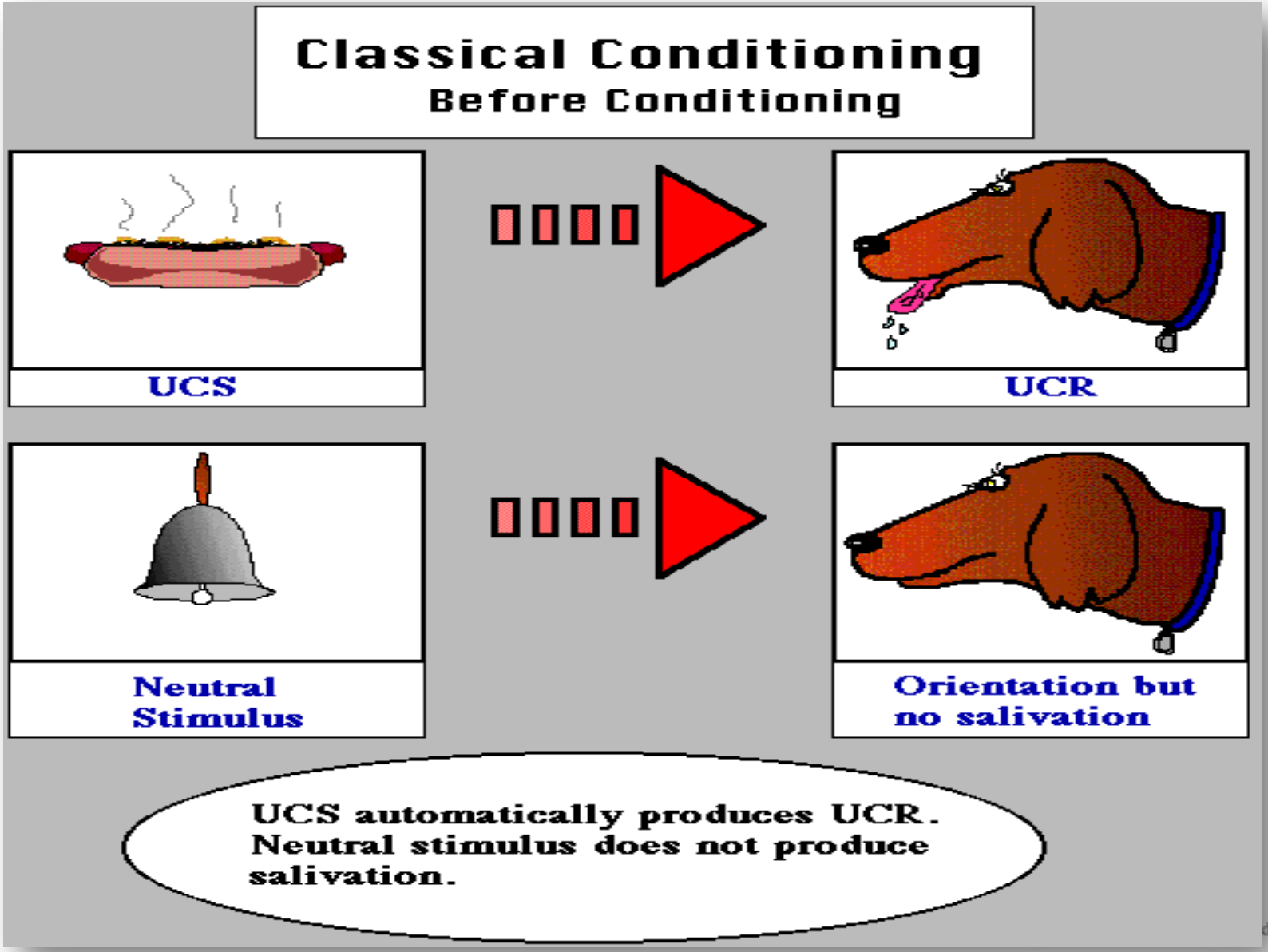
Performance

- Translation of this potential into behaviour

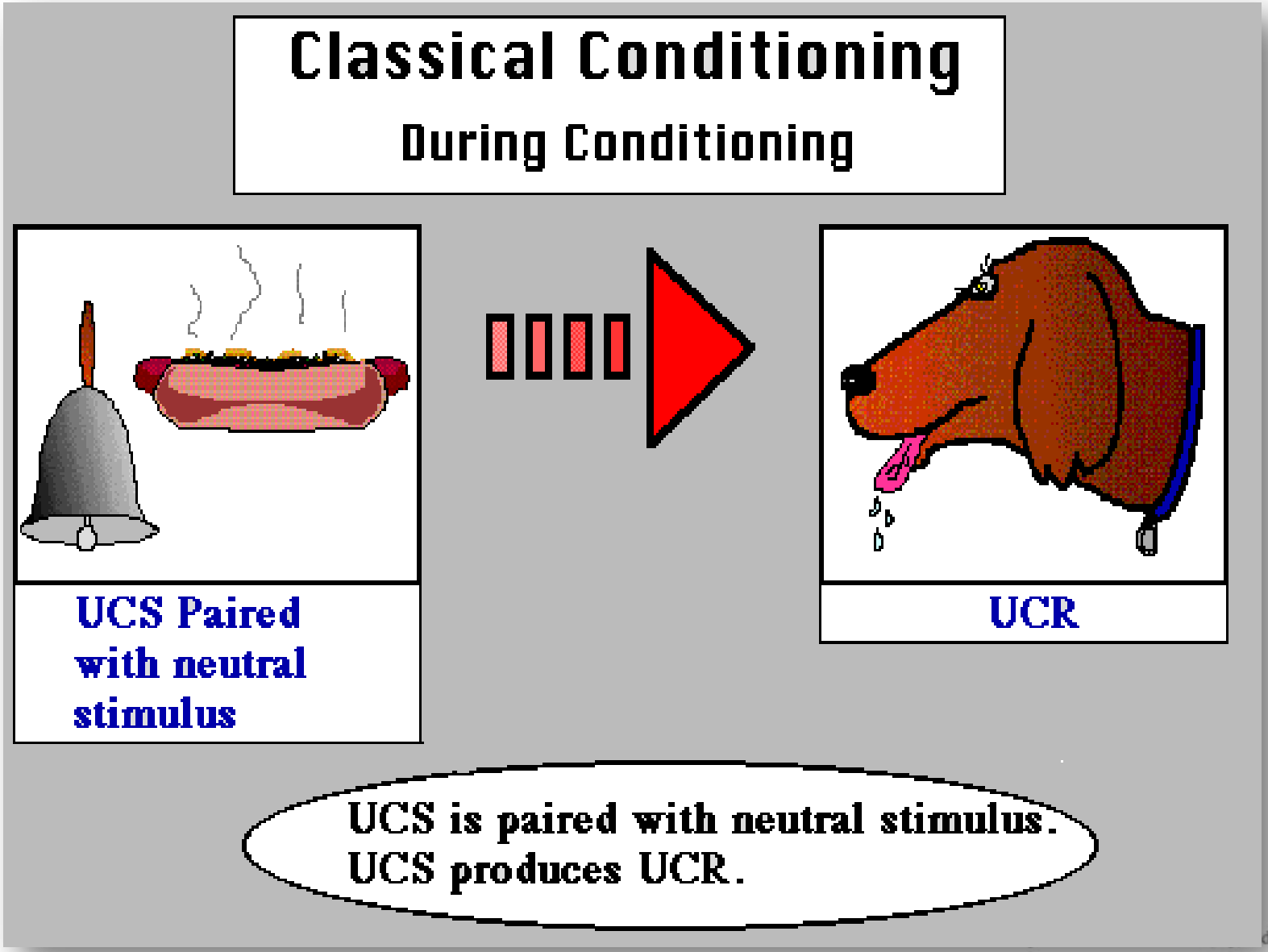
Latent learning

- A form of learning that is not immediately expressed in an overt response – it occurs without obvious reinforcement
- Occurs when knowledge has been acquired at a certain date, but is not demonstrated until a later date when knowledge is required.

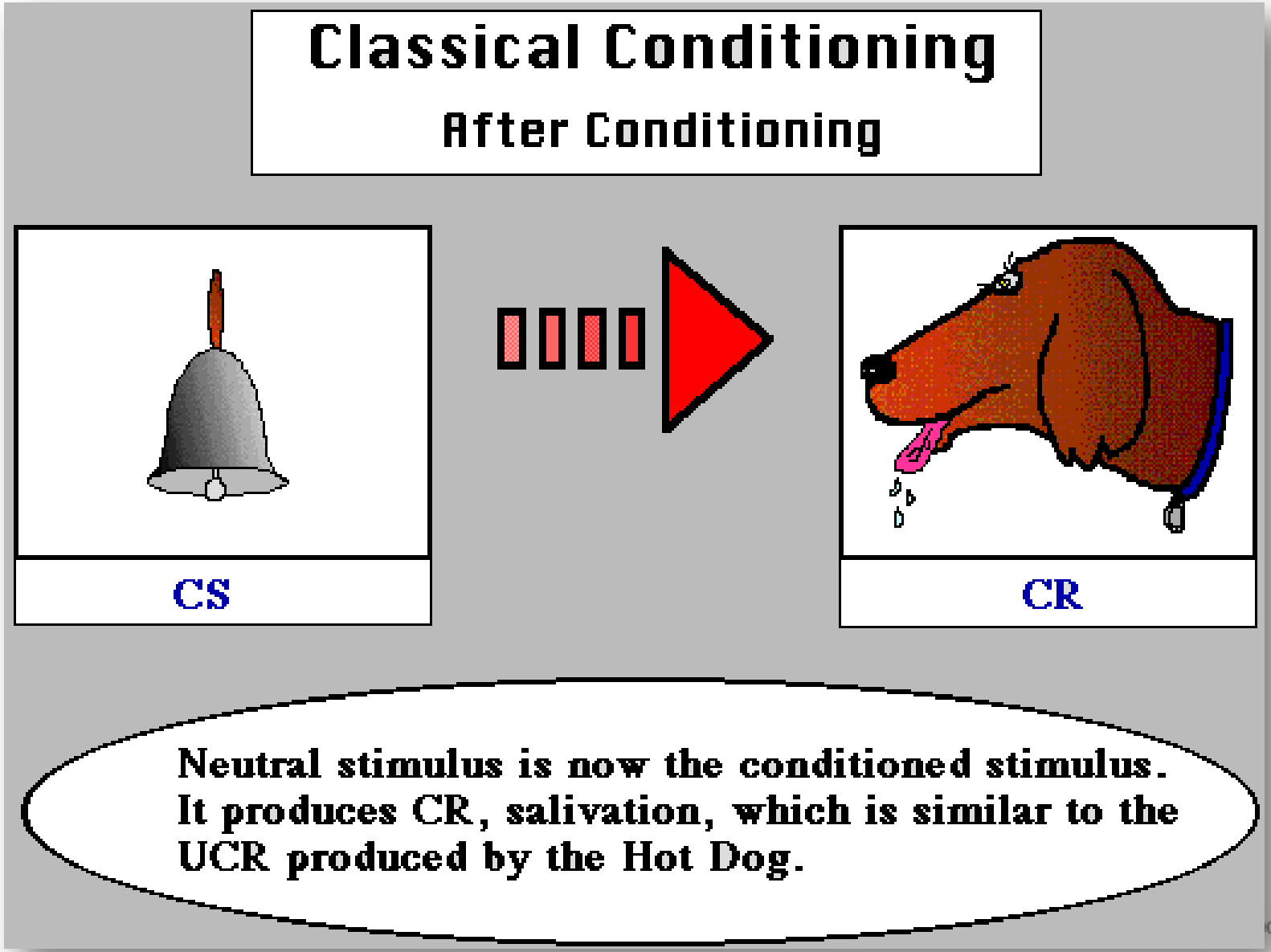
The learning process:
Classical conditioning



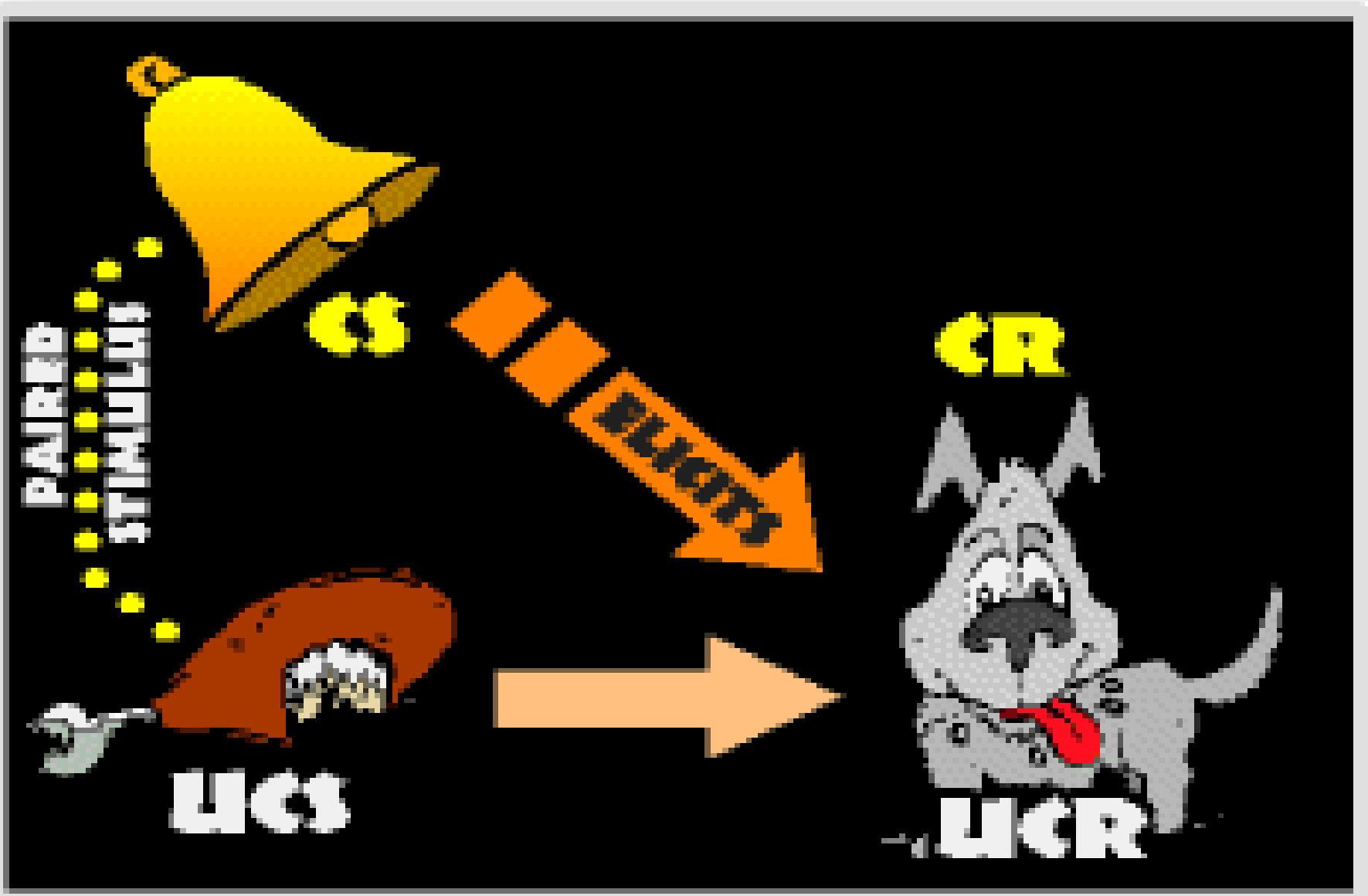
The learning process:
Classical conditioning (continued)



The learning process:
Classical conditioning (continued)



The learning process:
Classical conditioning summarised



OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

The learning process:
Classical conditioning (continued)

Terms associated with classical conditioning

- Unconditioned stimulus
- Unconditioned reflex/response
- Conditioned stimulus
- Conditioned reflex/response
- Extinction
- Spontaneous recovery
- Generalisation
- Discrimination
- Higher order conditioning.

The learning process:
Operant conditioning

Operant or instrumental conditioning

- Associative learning where there is contingency between a behaviour and the presentation of a “reinforcer", outcome or unconditioned stimulus

Terms associated with operant conditioning

- Reinforcement
  - Primary and secondary
  - Positive and negative
- Punishment
  - Positive and negative
- Discrimination learning.

Possible results of operant conditioning

	Reinforcement *(Behaviour Increases)*	**Punishment** *(Behaviour Decreases)*
Positive *(Something Added)*	**Positive Reinforcement** Something added increases behaviour	**Positive Punishment** Something added decreases behaviour
Negative *(Something Removed)*	**Negative Reinforcement** Something removed increases behaviour	**Negative Punishment** Something removed decreases behaviour

The learning process:
Reinforcement schedules

Thorndike's law of effect

- Behaviours are selected by their consequences:
  - Behaviours with good consequences are repeated
  - Behaviours with bad consequences are not repeated.

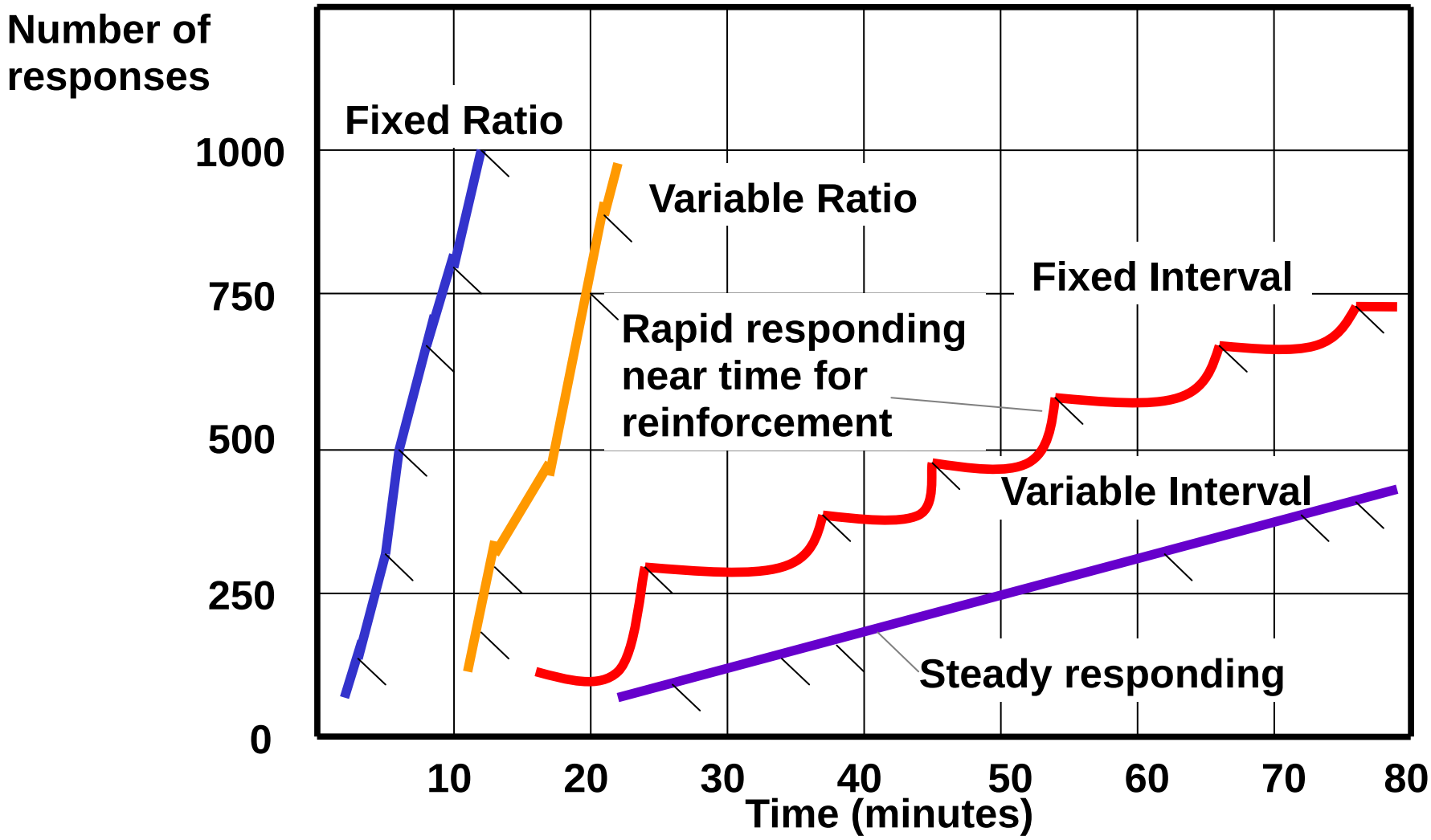
Schedules of reinforcement

- Accepted rules used to present/remove reinforcers/punishment following a stipulated operant behaviour
- Continuous reinforcement schedule
- Partial reinforcement schedule (or intermittent reinforcement schedule)

Partial or intermittent schedules

- Fixed (Ratio and Interval)
- Variable (Ratio and Interval).

Schedules of reinforcement
(Wade & Travis, 2000)



The learning process:
The effectiveness of punishment

- Punishment is a stimulus that diminishes the probability or strength preceding it
- The more intense the punishment the more effective it is
- Light punishment may suppress undesired behaviour but it may later return
- Administration of punishment should be consistent
- Punishment should be placed closer to the undesired behaviour for it to be successful
- The deeper the pattern of behaviour the less effective the punishment would be
- People can adapt to punishment
- Punishment for undesired behaviour may be effective if followed by positive reinforcement.

The learning process (continued)

Cognitive learning

- Tolman's model
- Objects perceived as means towards goals
- Cognitive map
- Internal perceptual representation of external features

Social learning

- Reciprocal determinism
  - Person, environment & person's behaviour
- Observational learning (vicarious learning)
- Attention processes
- Retentional processes
- Behavioural reproduction processes
- Motivational processes.

The processes of social learning

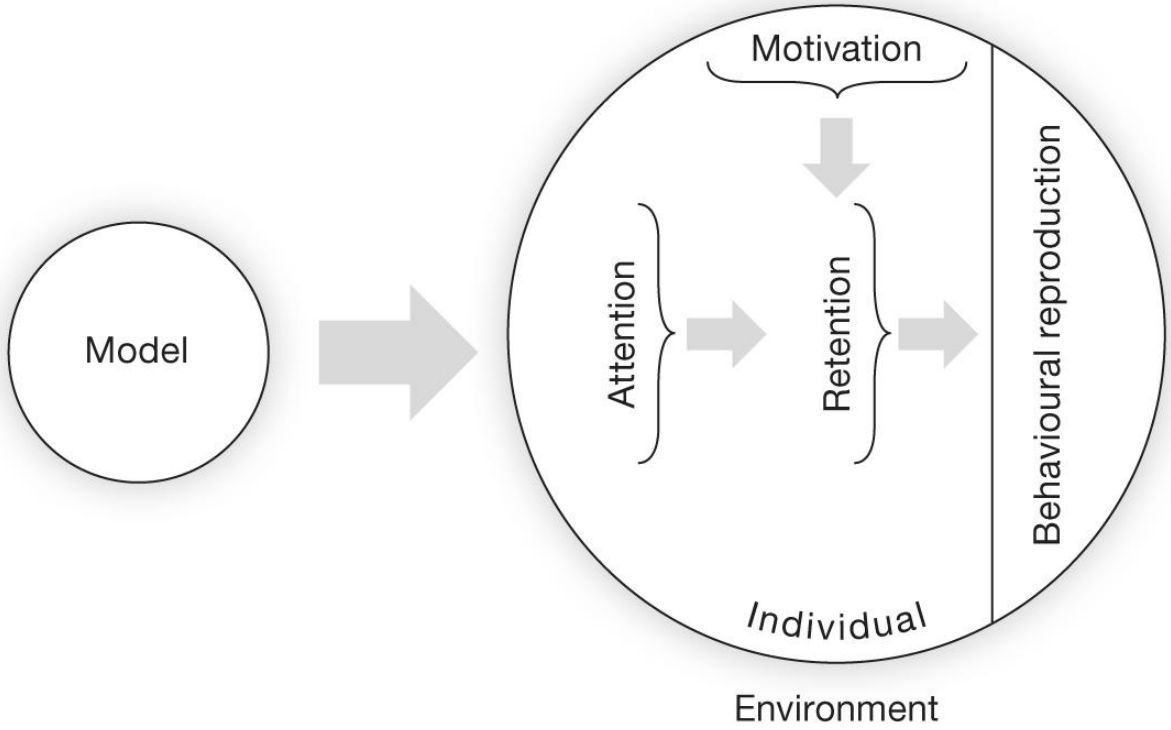


Figure 5.1: The processes of social learning
Source: Adapted from Camp, Blanchard & Huszczo (1986)

Learning principles:
Adult learner

Self directed learning

- Have developed self concept
- A need to initiate own learning
- May revert back to “school” dependency

Cognitive map

- Different learning strategies required
- Experience can be used as learning source
- May have negative results to learning-rigid
- Becomes a source of identity

Motivation to learn

- Must experience a “need to learn”
- **CAL model** – Personal and Situational characteristics.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS SOUTHERN AFRICA

The training process

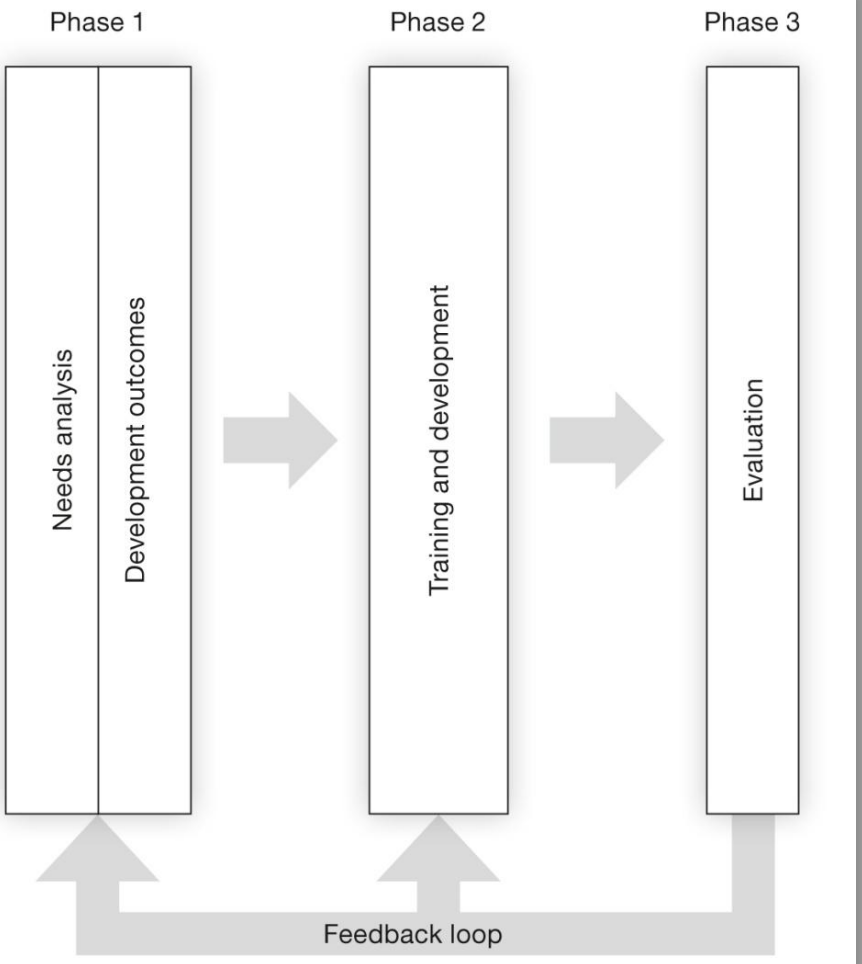


Figure 5.2: The training process

Learning in the work context:
Training process

Needs analysis

- Organisational analysis
- Task analysis
- Person analysis

Specifying learning outcomes

- Intellectual skills
- Verbal information
- Cognitive strategies
- Motor skills
- Attitudes.

Training and development phase

Learning principles

- Trainee readiness
- Practice and recitation
- Distribution of practice
- Knowledge of results
- Whole versus part learning

Transfer of learning

- Generalisation
- Positive transfer
  - Material learnt improves performance
- Negative transfer
  - Material learnt impedes performance.

Model of experiential learning

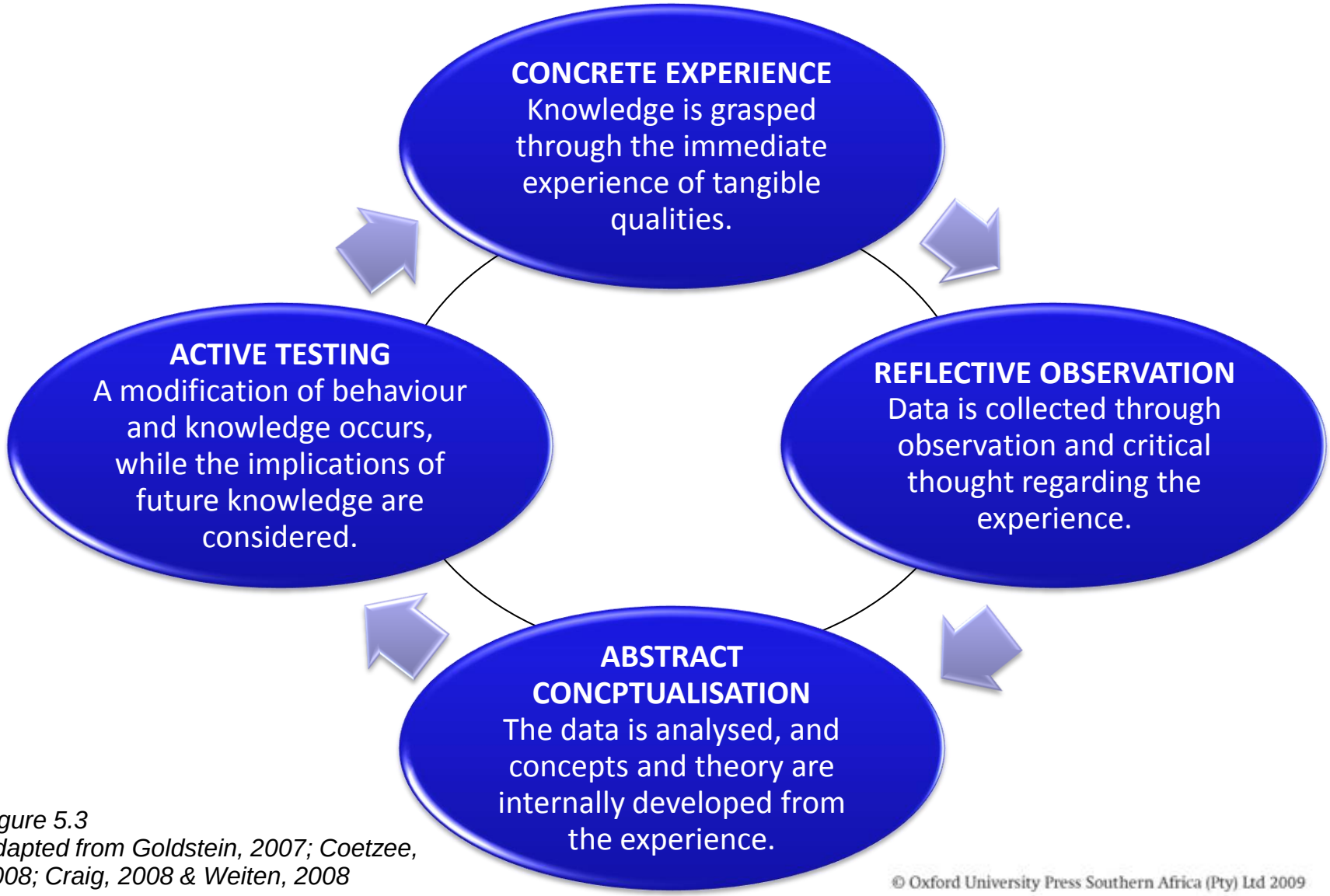


Figure 5.3
Adapted from Goldstein, 2007; Coetzee, 2008; Craig, 2008 & Weiten, 2008

Training and development phase (continued)

Training techniques

- Non-experiential techniques (cognitive)
  - The lecture
  - Audiovisual aids
  - Programmed instruction (PI) and computer-assisted instruction (CAI)
- Experiential techniques (behavioural).

- **Simulations**
- **Case studies**
- **Role playing**
- **Business games**
- **The in-basket technique**
- **Sensitivity training**

- **Apprenticeships, internships and workshops**
- **Scaffolding**
- **Mentoring and coaching**
- **The value of experiential learning**

The evaluation phase

Criteria for evaluation

- Reaction of participants
- Learning
- Behaviour changes
- Results

Forms of evaluation

- Summative
  - Incorporated mediating factors
- Formative
  - Measures outcome of programme

Evaluation of design

- Internal validity
- External validity.

The learning organisation

Systems approach

- Output influences by interaction between individuals and the organisational process
- Resultant feedback influences new input and output

Learning organisation

- Fosters individual abilities to be ready and adapt to changes in the organisation's expectations
- Continually create learning opportunities fostered by
  - Personal mastery
  - Mental models
  - Shared vision
  - Team learning
  - Systems thinking.

Chapter 6

PERCEPTION

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What is perception and why is it important?

- Name and discuss **aspects** of psychophysics
- Describe the **subject** of **visual perception**
- Discuss **factors** influencing perception
- Define and explain the concept of **extrasensory perception**
- Discuss the **dynamics** of interpersonal perception.

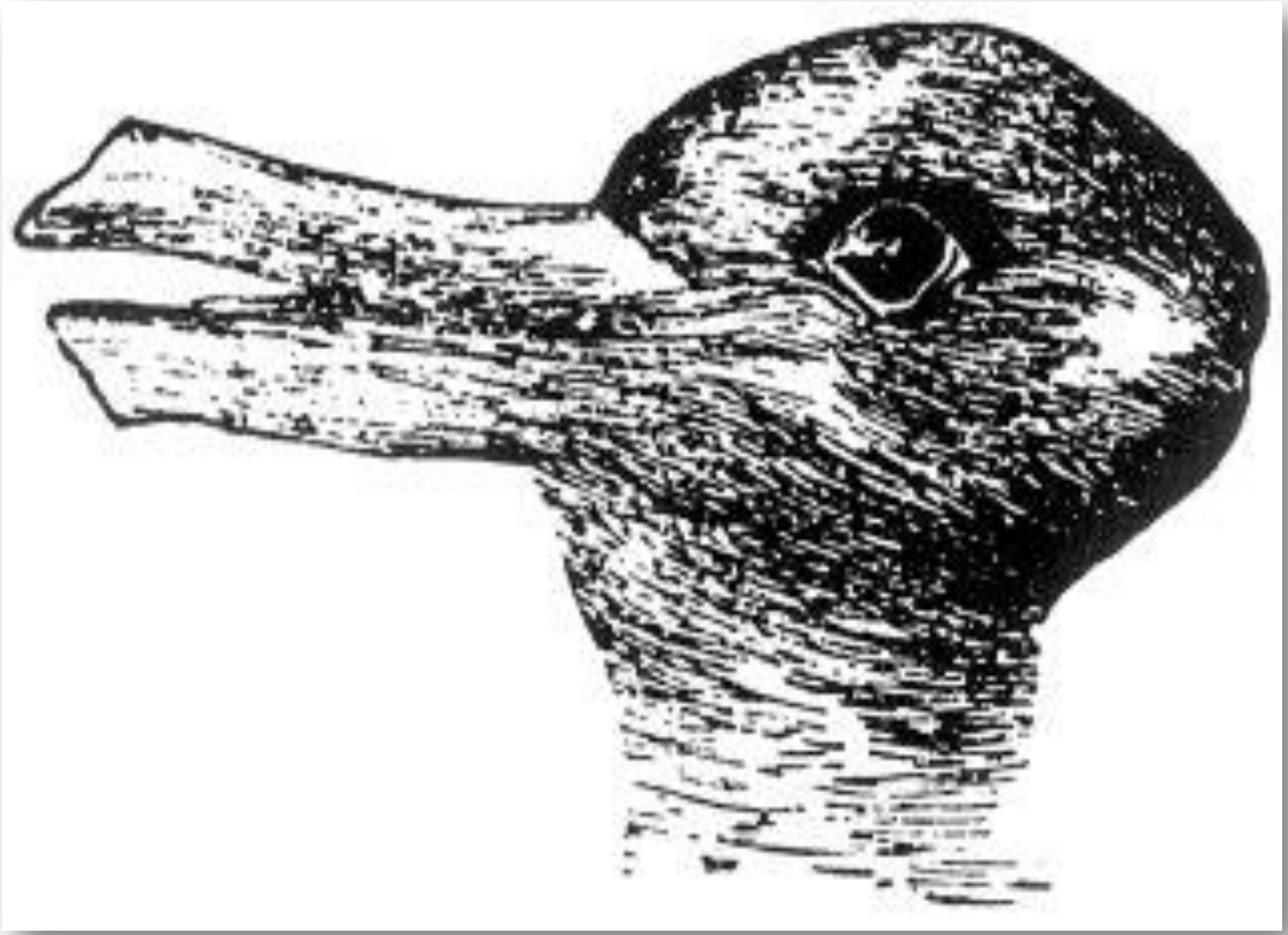
OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

WHAT DO YOU SEE?

HOW OLD IS THIS WOMAN?

WHAT DO YOU SEE?

WHAT DO YOU SEE?



Perception

What is perception?

- A process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment
- It is a subjective process

Why is perception important?

- Because people's behaviour is based on their perception of what reality is, not on reality itself
- The world that is perceived is the world that is behaviourally important.

Psychophysics- Based on physiological processes

Threshold or limen	Dividing point between energy levels that have variable effect and those that do not.
Absolute thresholds	Minimum amount of detectable stimulation (differ from person to person – depending on conditions)
Just noticeable difference (JND)	Minimum amount of change needed in order to be noticed

Psychophysics - Based on physiological processes

Weber's law

Size of JND = constant proportion of size of initial stimulus (stimulus increase = JND increase)

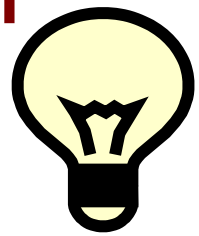
Signal detection theory

Bottom-up (sensory info) or Top-down (interpret info based on existing knowledge)

Subliminal perception

Stimulus below threshold for awareness

Sensory adaptation



Gradual decline in sensitivity stimulus due to length of exposure – applies to all senses

Signal detection

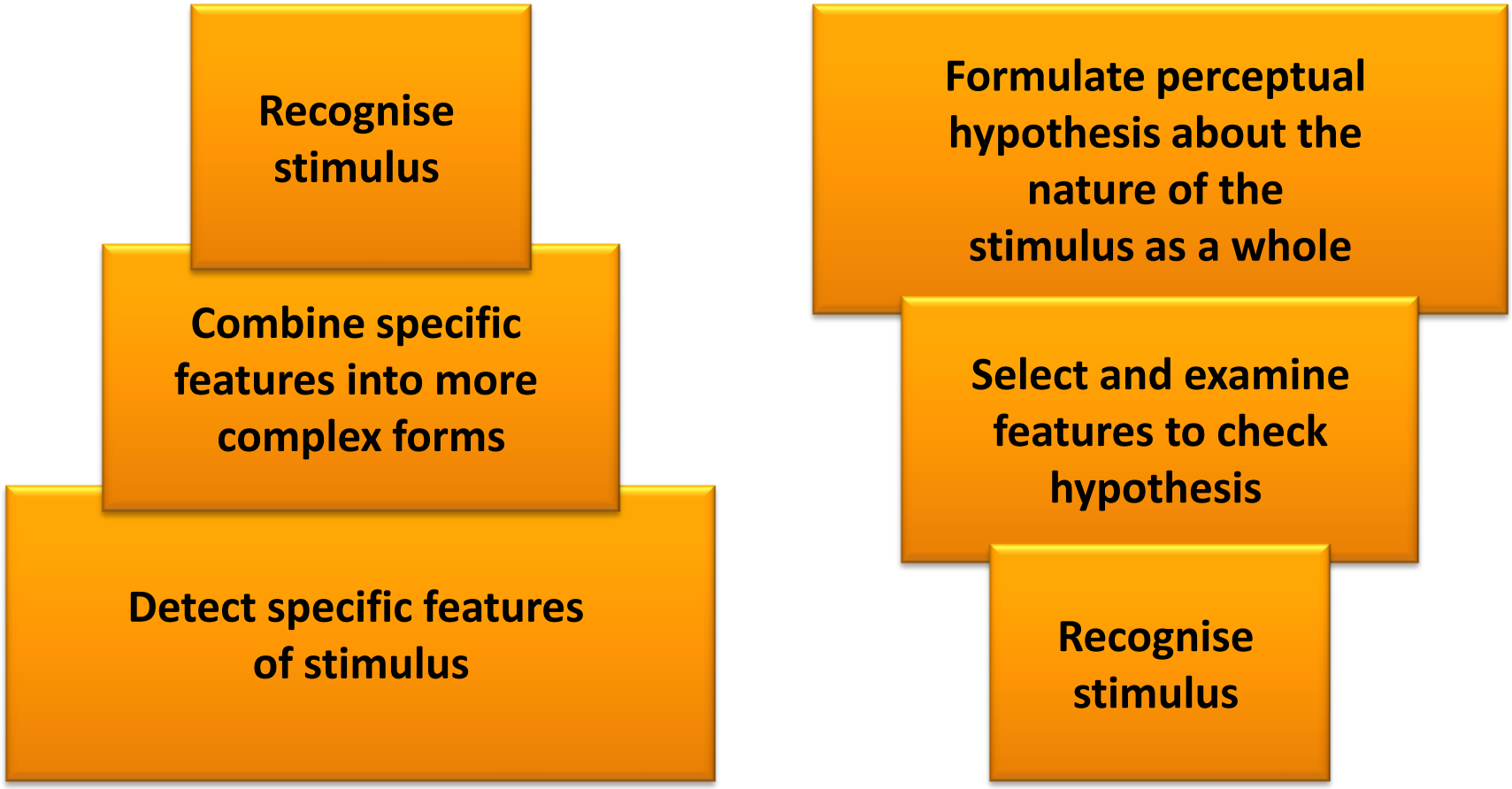
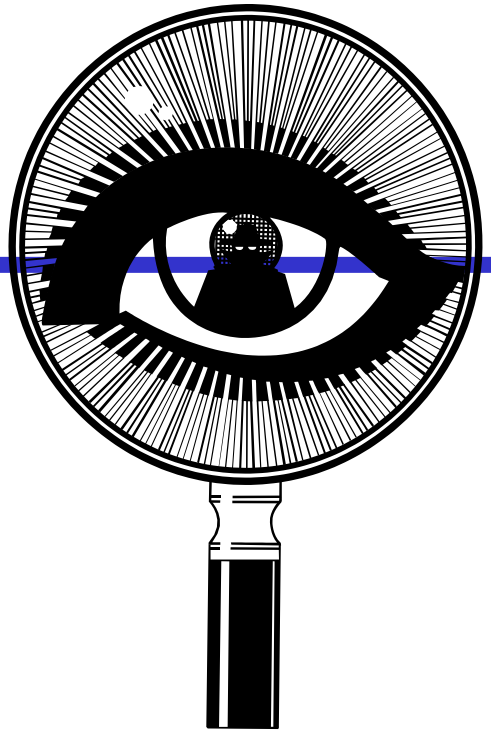


Figure 6.1 Bottom-up versus top-down processing

Adapted from Weiten, W. Psychology: themes and variations, 7E. (Briefer version), 2003

Visual perception



The focus of attention

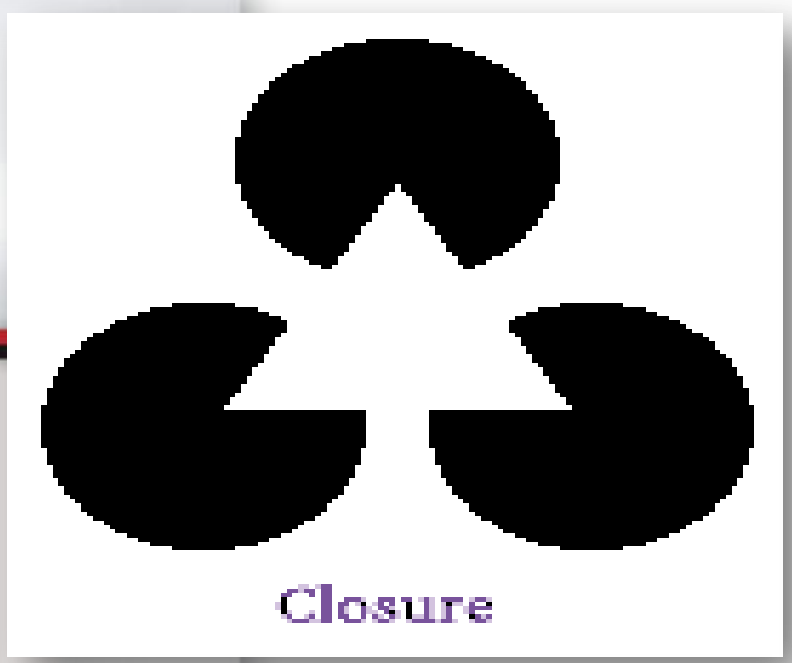
- Selective attention
- Stroop effect (see next slide)

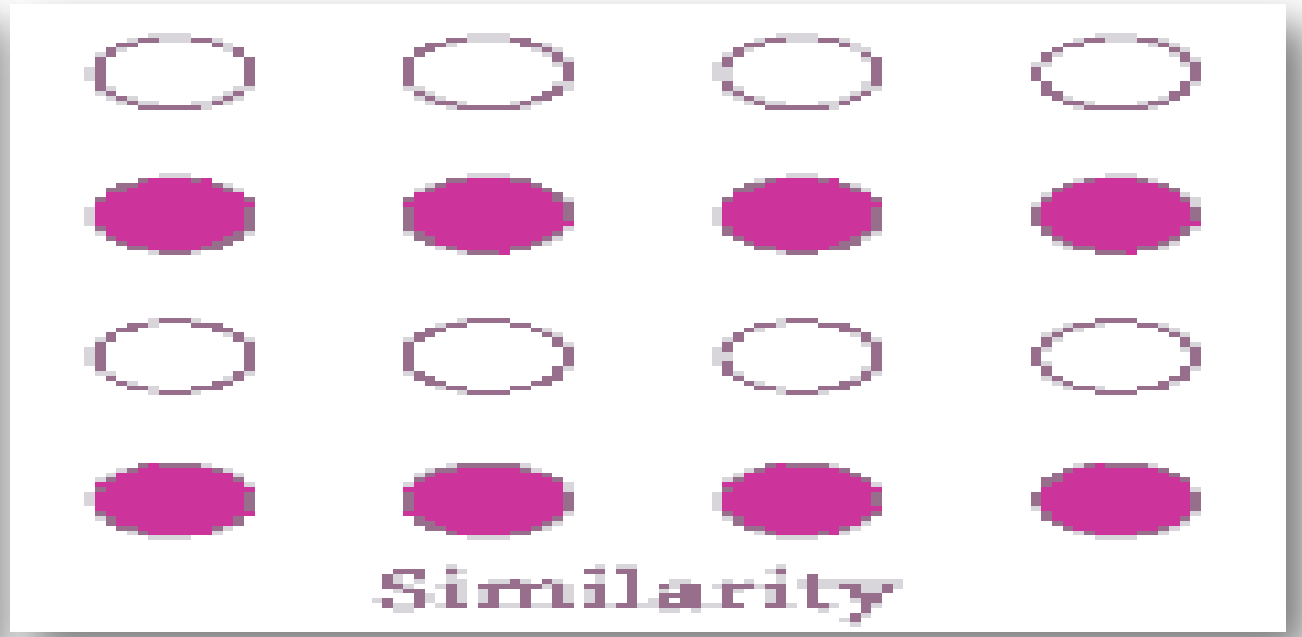
Shape perception

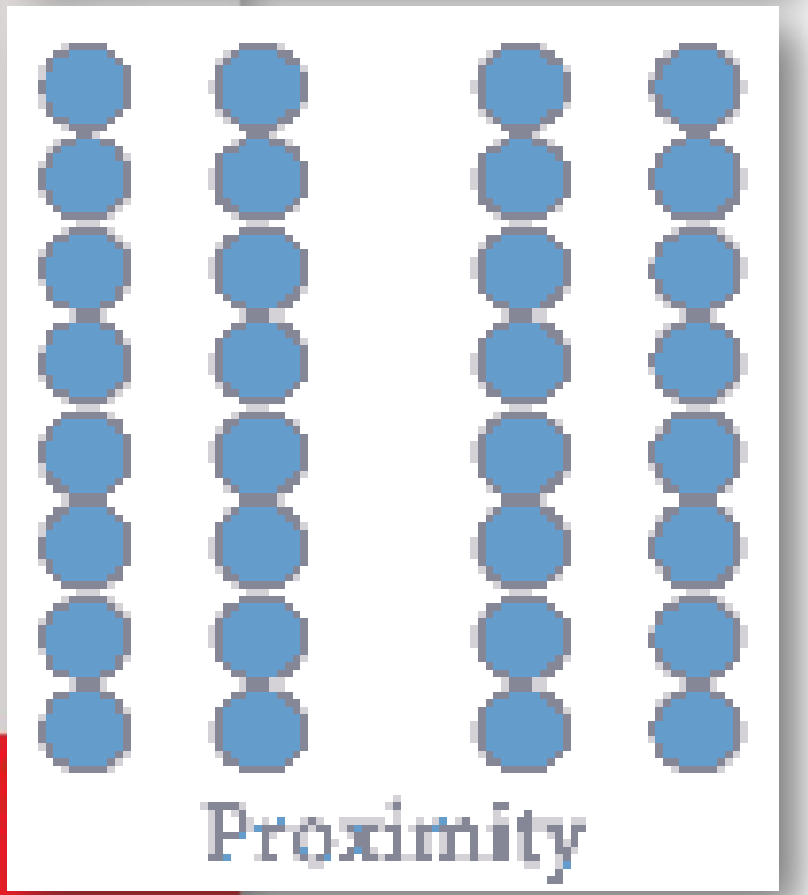
- Organisation
- Figure and ground
- Law of Pragnanz (potent, full of meaning)
- -people are predisposed to experience things in as good a Gestalt as possible
- -people tend to organise elements in the most basic way to “make sense”
- Gestalt laws
  - Proximity, similarity, continuity, closure, simplicity, symmetry, common fate

Pattern recognition

- Bottom-up and Top-down processes.


Closure


Similarity


Proximity


Continuity

An illustration of the STROOP EFFECT – unable to ignore info

In this test **DO NOT READ the words**, say aloud the COLOUR of each word.

YELLOW	BLUE	ORANGE
BLACK	RED	GREEN
PURPLE	YELLOW	RED
ORANGE	GREEN	BLACK
BLUE	RED	PURPLE
GREEN	BLUE	ORANGE

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS SOUTHERN AFRICA

Depth and distance perception

Monocular cues (one eye used)

- Size cues, linear perspective, texture gradient, atmospheric perspective, overlap, height cues, etc.

Binocular cues (both eyes used)

- Convergence (eyes turn in) and retinal disparity (distance =depth)

Perception of movement (Phi phenomenon)

- Apparent (stationary background) and induced movement (moving background - truck)

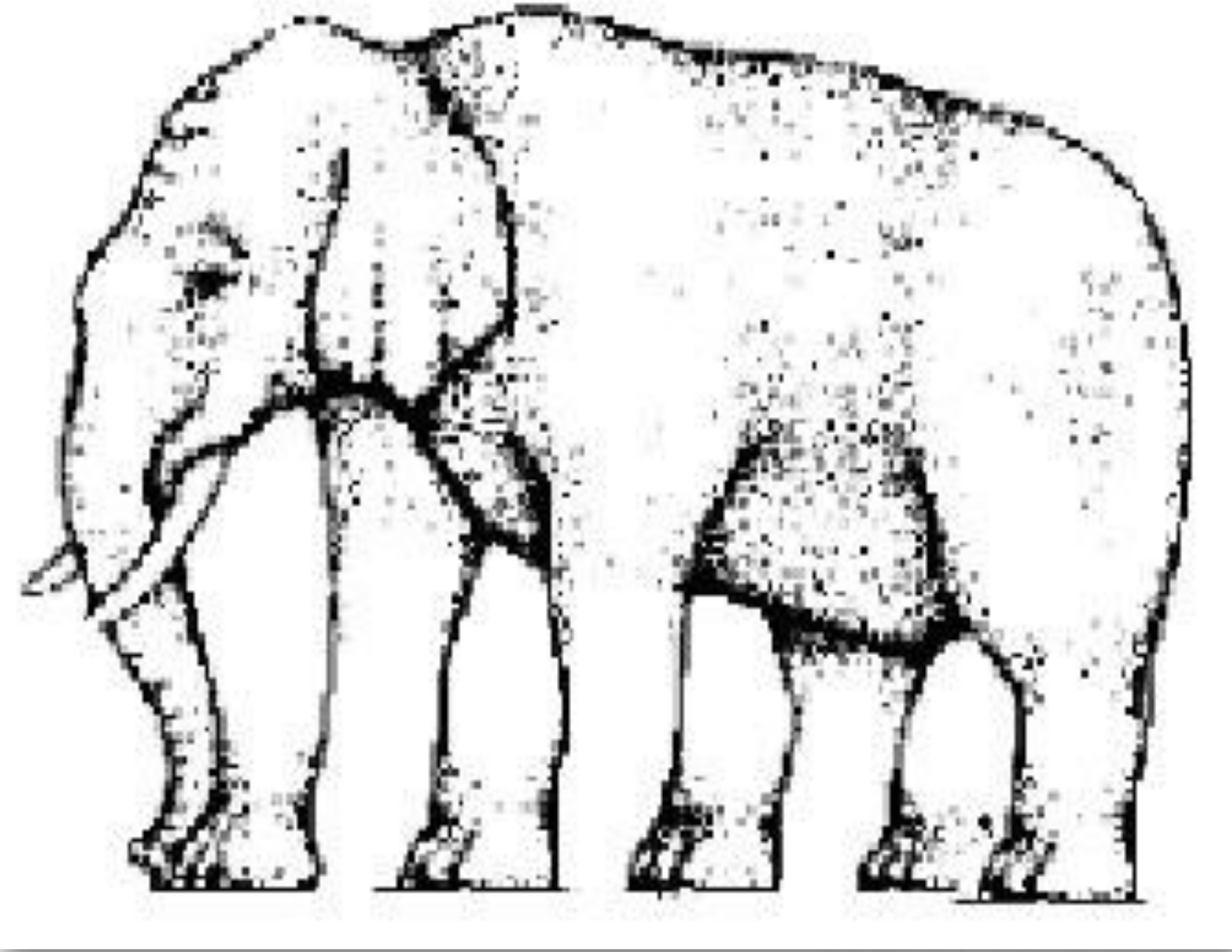
Perceptual constancy

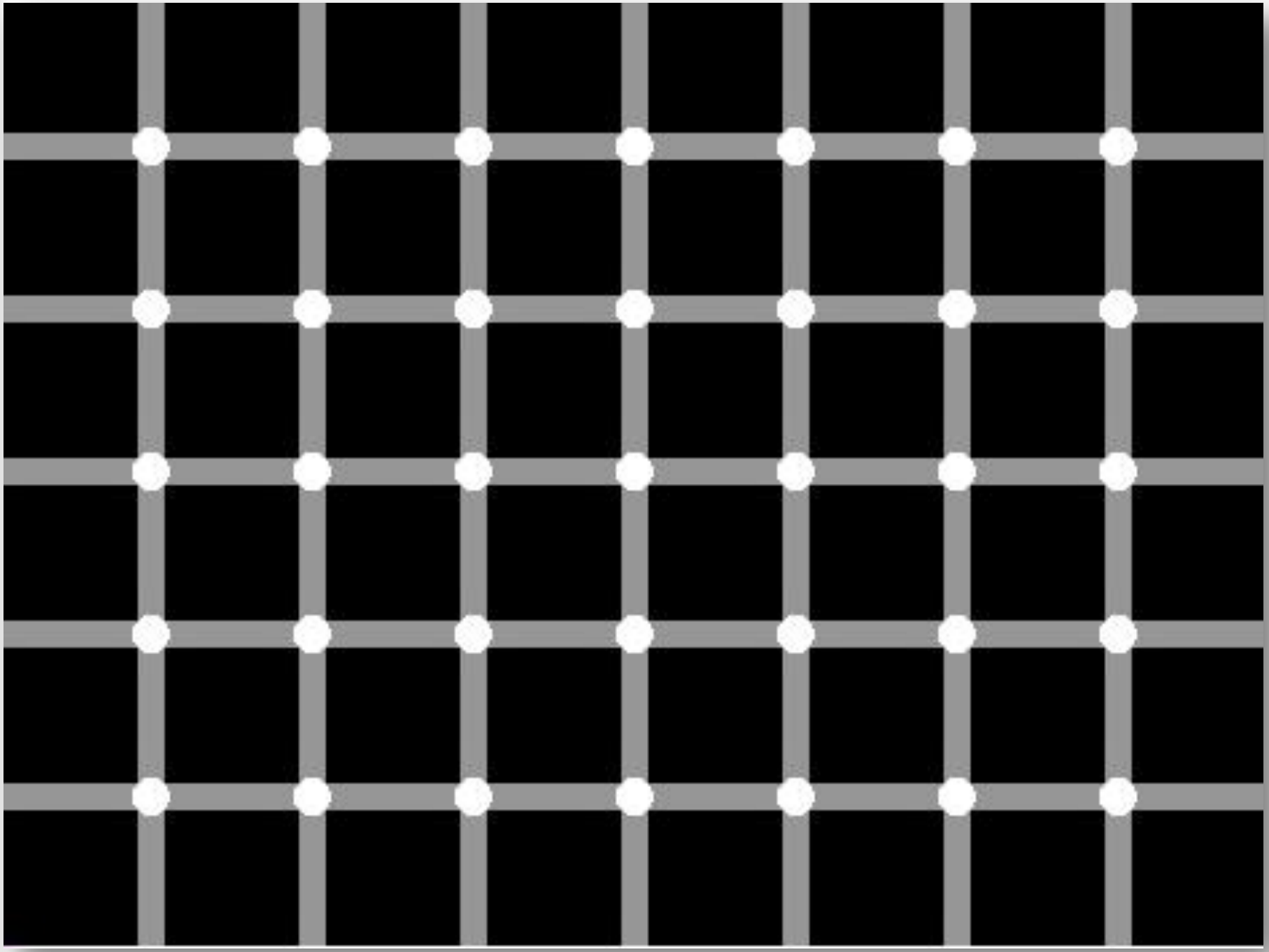
- Size (bus), shape (CD), lightness and colour constancy (black shoes)

Illusions

- Optical illusions (physical (mirage) & cognitive processes) (see next slide)

Extrasensory perception (ESP/psi)





OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Factors influencing perception

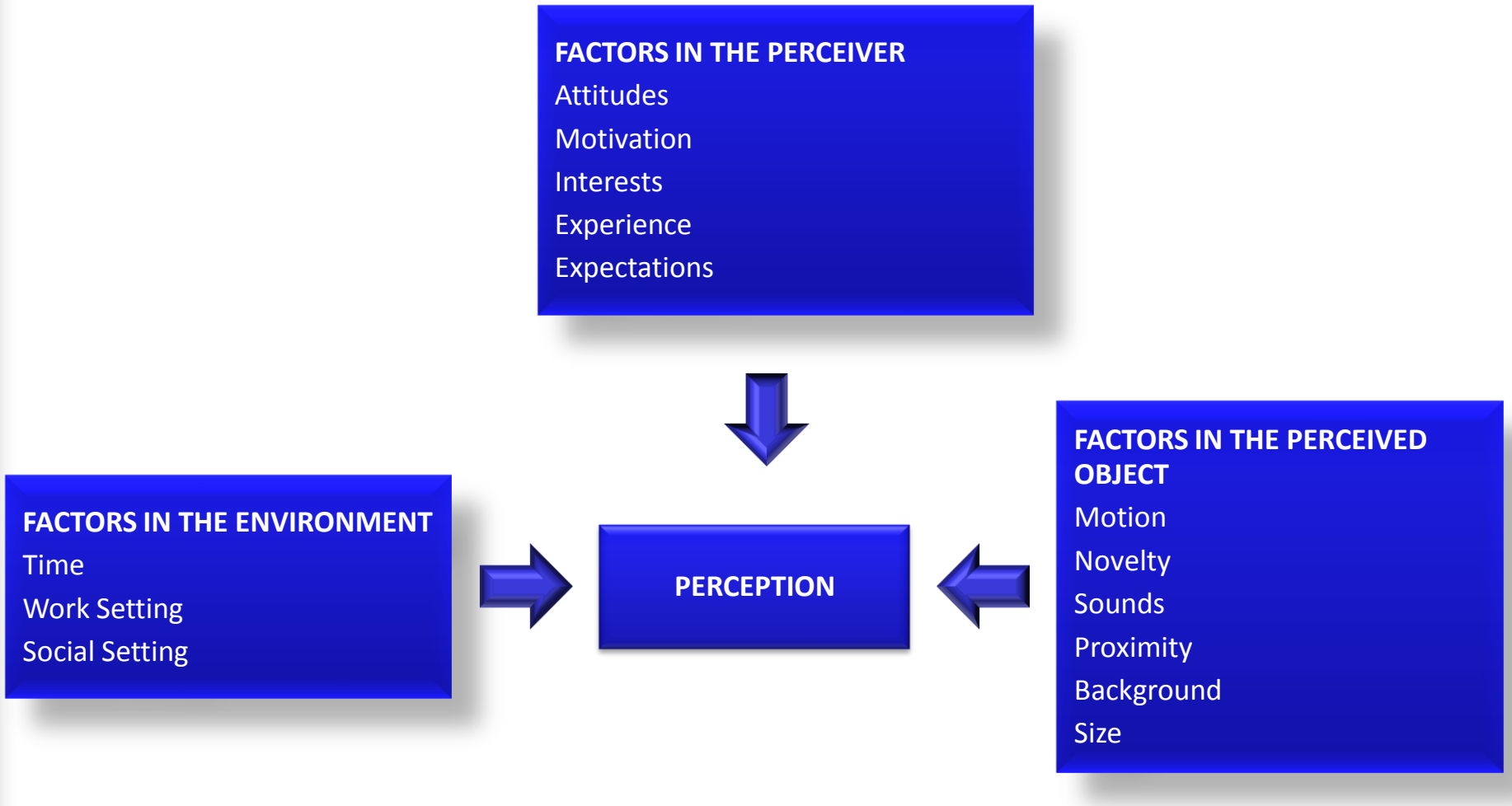


Figure 6.6 Factors that influence perception

Adapted from Robbins (2001)

Interpersonal perception

- Impression formation (“shortcuts”)

- Schema (social, self, role, events – influences what you remember)
- The primacy effect (early info more important; self-fulfilling prophecy)
- Effect of physical appearance
- Stereotypes (gender, occupation, race)
- The halo effect (single characteristic)
- Contrast effect (interview)
- Projection (own characteristics)
- The in-group and out-group dynamic (favour own group)
- Selectivity in person perception (own schemas used to judge others)

Attribution theory

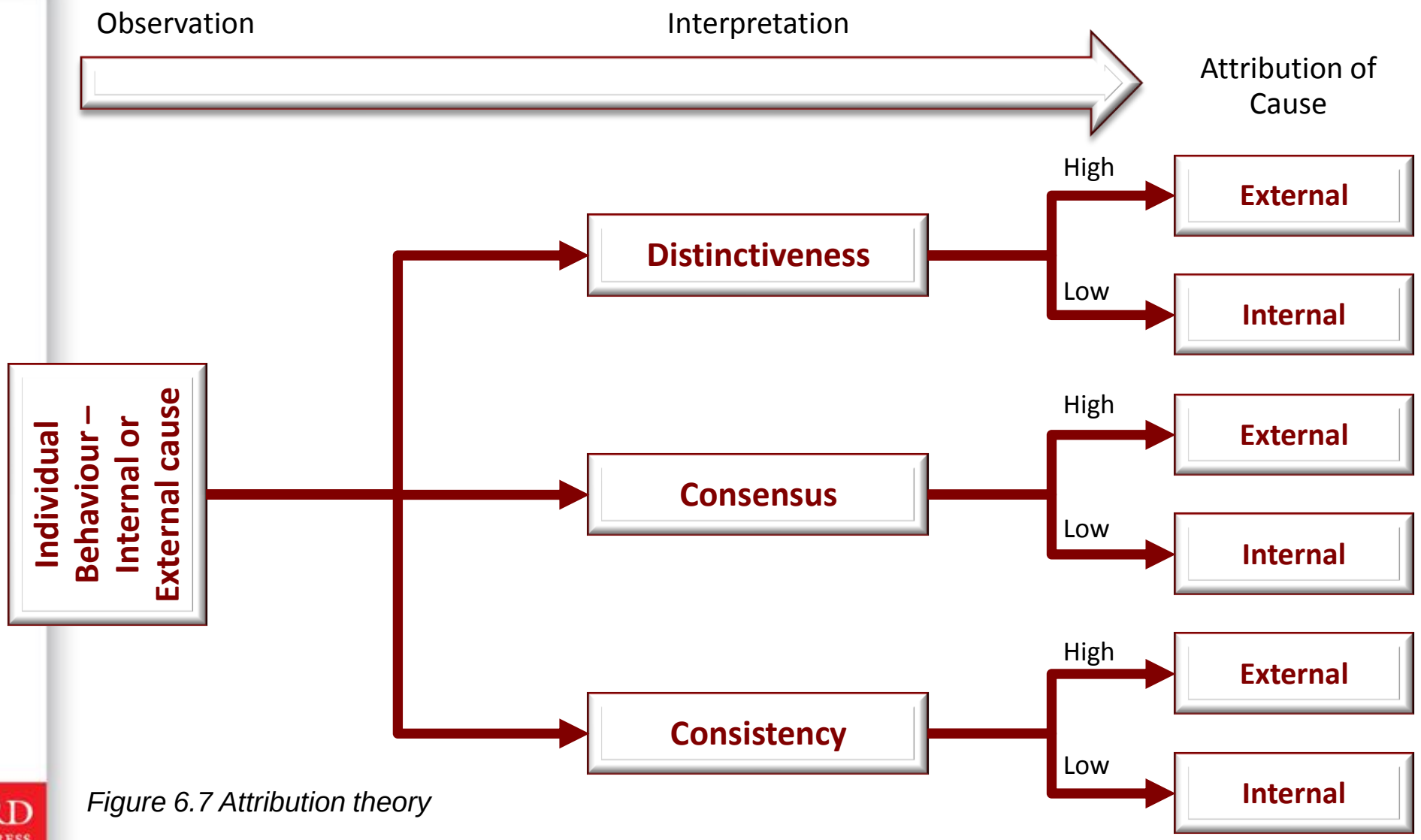


Figure 6.7 Attribution theory

Adapted from Robbins (2005)

Attribution errors and biases

- The fundamental attribution error (overestimate internal factors)
- The actor-observer effect (others' or own behaviour observed)
- Blaming the victim (self protection – a "just" world)
- The self-serving and group-serving bias
- The development of prejudice (negative attitudes toward members of group – beliefs, emotions & behavioural dispositions)
  - Intergroup conflict
    - Functional and dysfunctional conflict
  - Authoritarian personality (accepted if from own group)
  - Socio-cultural learning approach (learned behaviour from parents)
  - Cognitive processes
- Reducing prejudice and discrimination (behaving differently towards members of group)
- Education, inter-group contact, legislation (Movie: Freedom Writers)

Chapter 7

COGNITION

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What is cognition and why is it important?

- Name and discuss forms of **productive thinking**
- Describe the importance of **language** in cognition
- Discuss the **format and promotion** of memory
- Discuss the significance of **intelligence** in learning.

Forms of productive thinking

Concept formation

A **concept** is an abstract idea or mental category by which similarities are grouped.

- Prototype
  - Typical features of a phenomenon
- Schema
  - Mental structure used to organise information

Problem-solving

Problem-solving entails finding effective solutions to problems.

- Trial-and-error
  - Random, time consuming searches
- Algorithm
  - Always produces solutions
- Heuristics
  - Selection searched using only solutions most likely to yield results.

Problem solving strategies using heuristics

Analogy

- Use previous solution to solve new problem

Changing representation

- Altering representation can clarify the essential as of a problem

Barriers to problem solving

- Mental set
  - When one has learnt to do things in a certain way
- Functional fixedness
  - Focussing on the main meaning of an object, not seeing that it can be used effectively in other ways.

How heuristics influence decision making

Anchoring and adjustment

- Making estimates and making adjustment

Availability

- When an estimate is made of how easy something thought of

Representation

- When one event resembles another event.

Heuristics can lead to errors in reasoning

Over-reliance on the anchor

- Relying heavily on an anchor with limited adjustment

Overestimating the improbable

- To exaggerate the possibility of an event that will not occur

Confirmation bias

- Seeking support from those who already share one's view

Framing

- Approaching a problem by putting it in a particular context

Escalating of commitment

- Holding on to a bad decision even when counter evident increases.

Volition (the use of will power) can be used to control escalation of commitment.

Creativity

Creativity is generally defined as the ability to produce work that is novel (original and unexpected) and appropriate (useful and adaptive to task constraints).

Convergent thinking

- Applies to existing knowledge and rule of logic to narrow the range of potential solutions to focus on a single answer

Divergent thinking

- Move outwards from conventional knowledge into unexplored paths and unconventional solutions.

Stages of the creative process

Preparation

- Become aware of problem, start gathering data to solve problem

Incubation

- Set problem aside following lack of success

Illumination or inspiration

- Solution with sudden burst (unexpectedly)

Verification or elaboration

- Conduct research to verify findings.

Fostering creativity

Creativity in individuals may be facilitated by:

- Establishing the purpose and intention to be creative
- Building creativity enhancing skills
- Developing metacognitive skills
- Rewarding curiosity and exploration
- Encouraging risk-taking
- Providing opportunities for choice and discovery.

Factors that influence meaningful conversation

Quantity

- Amount of information required

Quality

- The truth of the statement

Manner

- Clarity and avoidance of ambiguous, obscure statements

Relation

- Relevance attached to a particular word.

Stages of memory

Sensory memory

- Temporary retains information from senses

Short term memory

- Encoding
- Chucking

Long term memory

- Declaration
- Episodic
- Semantic
- Implicit.

Memory involves retaining information that is no longer present – functioning like a time-machine by going back to events in early childhood.

Promoting memory

Elaborative rehearsals

- Making connection between object be remembered and something one already easily remembers

Mnemonics

- Organising information into specific visual field to aid recalling

Improving memory

- Organising
  - Breaking information into smaller amount for memorising
- Mood
  - Associating memory promoted with mood
- Humour and exaggeration
  - Attempting to make information stand out.

Forgetting

Interference effects

- Pro active and retroactive interference

Motivated forgetting

- Use of repression to consciously forget

Distortion

- Changed perception over time

False memories

- Error in remembering schema groupings

Mood

- Incongruent moods can affect memory.

Forgetting is essentially the inability to retrieve information stored in long-term memory.

The intelligence quotient (IQ)

Mental Retardation: Less Than 70

- Extreme = < 25
- Serious = 25 – 39
- Moderate = 40 – 54
- Slight = 55 – 69

Genius: 130 — 140 Plus

- Very high intelligence and creativity
- Better academic studies
- Better developed physically
- Positions of leadership and social adaptability
- Personality
- IQ tests

"Normal" Range: ± 90 — ± 110 — 130.

IQ score	Descriptive category	% of population
140+	extremely gifted	0,38
130–139	highly gifted	1,90
120–129	gifted (superior)	7,40
110–119	high average	15,46
90–109	average	49,72
80–89	low average	15,46
70–79	borderline mental retardation	7,40
55–69	slight mental retardation	2,03
40–54	moderate mental retardation	0,14
25–39	serious mental retardation	0,08
0–24	extreme mental retardation	0,03

Table 7.1: The classification of IQ scores

Functional definitions of intelligence

The structural approach

- General intelligence (g)
- Specialised intelligence (s)
- Spearman and Thurstone

The dynamic approach

- Learning potential
- Emotional intelligence
- Context intelligence
- Multiple intelligence.

Chapter 8

MOTIVATION

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What is motivation and why is it important?

- Name and discuss the essence of external activators
- Name and discuss the significance of internal activators
- Define emotions
- Distinguish between emotions and performance
- Define and discuss emotional intelligence.

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

External activators:
Reinforcement

Motivation is a process that involves the purposiveness of behaviour.

- Incentives refers to **strength of reinforcement**
- **Pull theories** discuss incentives

Positive motivation

- Emphasises rewarding correct behaviour

Negative motivation

- Emphasises punishment of inappropriate behaviour

Social loafing

- Lowered performance of individuals working in groups compared to that of individuals working on their own
- Setting goals is more effective in addressing social loafing than administering punishment.

External activators:
Job content and job design

Job contents

- Involves structure or design of work
- Significance illustrated in Herzberg's motivation theory

Job design

- Job rotation
  - shifting employees periodically from one job to another
- Job enlargement
  - Providing a variety of tasks within the job
- Job enrichment
  - Adding more complex tasks, expanding job content vertically
- Job-characteristics model
  - Skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy feedback.

Herzberg's motivation theory

Hygiene Factors	Motivation Factors
1. Quality of Supervision	1. Career Advancement
2. Rate of pay	2. Personal Growth
3. Company policies	3. Recognition
4. Working conditions	4. Responsibility
5. Relations with others	5. Achievement
6. Job security	

Intrinsic motivation:
Self-actualisation

- **Shostrom** defines it as a process of becoming more sort after than the end and thus never complete
- **Rogers** distinguished between
  - Self actualisation vs tendency toward actualisation
  - Actualisation
    - An optimum state of functioning achieved through optimum growth
  - Self actualisation
    - Striving towards autonomy by actualising a part of self
- **Frankl** – human's primary striving as the **will-to-meaning**
  - Will to meaning is personal and unique for every individual
  - Facilitated by
    - Creative values
    - Experiential values
    - Attitudinal values.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Intrinsic motivation:
Functional autonomy (Allport)

- Propriate functional autonomy
  - Evolves from the individual's value system
- Perseverative functional autonomy
  - Indicates behaviour which is circular and repetitive.

An example of perseverative functional autonomy

Intrinsic motivation:
Expectancy (Vroom, Lawler & Porter)

Expectancy refers to the individual's subjective beliefs about the outcomes of behaviour.

Valence	Attractiveness an individual places on the outcome
Positive valence	Individual prefers to attain outcome
Negative valence	Person prefers not to attain outcome
Zero valence	Individual indifferent to outcome
Instrumentality	Valence of performance
Effort	Effort individual puts into performance
Ability	Ability to do the job
Role perception	Individual's understanding of the role

Lawler and Porter's model of expectancy theory

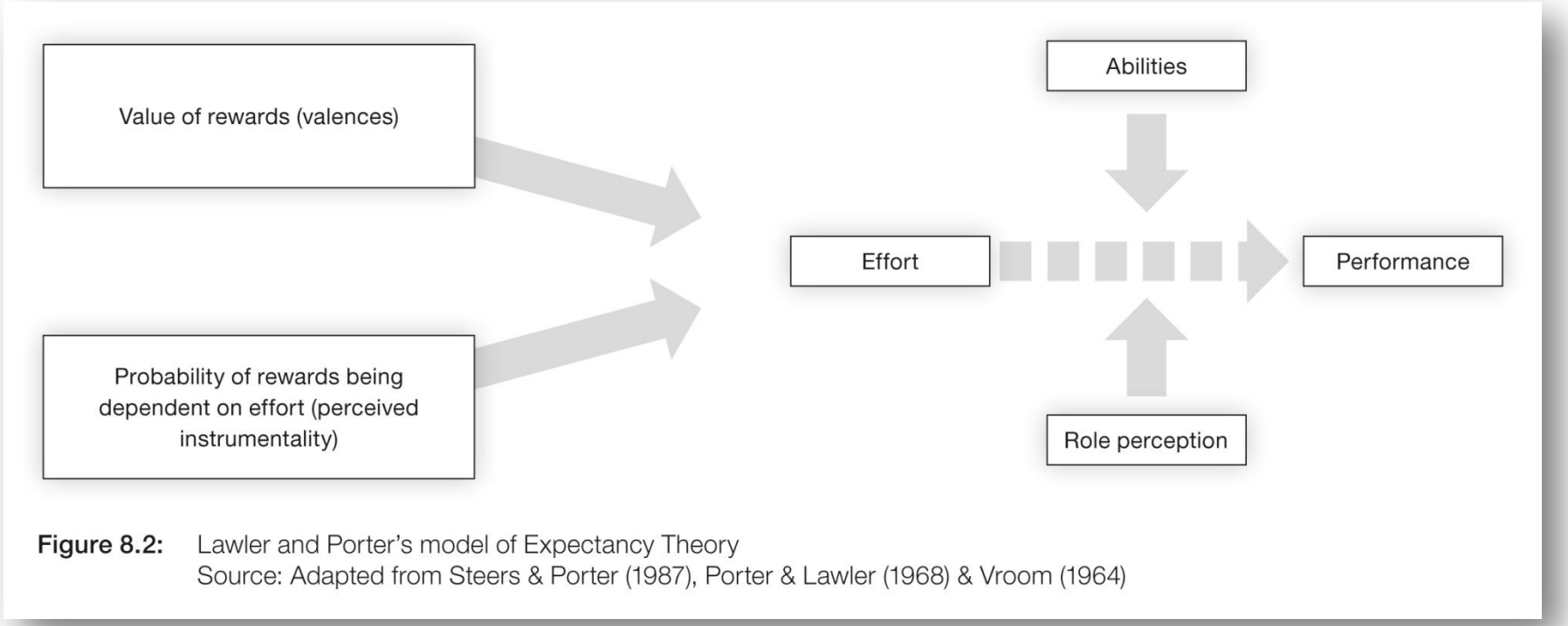


Figure 8.2: Lawler and Porter's model of Expectancy Theory
Source: Adapted from Steers & Porter (1987), Porter & Lawler (1968) & Vroom (1964)

Intrinsic motivation:
Achievement and self efficacy

Achievement (McClelland)

- Need to achieve derives from growing expectation in childhood
- Achievement needs manifest in different forms in different cultural orientations

Self efficacy (Bandura)

- Sense of having more or less control over events affecting one's life
- Self efficacy beliefs are acquired by:
  - Reflecting on own past behaviour
  - Vicarious experiences
  - Verbal persuasion
  - Emotional cues.

Intrinsic motivation:
Attribution (Bandura)

Locus of causality

- Internal or and external locus of control

Stability

- Consistency of causes over time

Internal locus of control

- Ability (stable factor)
- Effort (unstable factor)

External locus of control

- Task difficulty (stable factor)
- Luck (unstable factor).

Attribution involves trying to understand, by localising the causes, why event's and one's behaviour have certain outcomes.

Illustrating equity theory schematically

Equity – Perception of fairness			
Outcome A --- Input A	<	Outcome B --- Input B	No Equity --- **Under** Rewarded
Outcome A --- Input A	=	Outcome B --- Input B	**EQUITY**
Outcome A --- Input A	>	Outcome B --- Input B	No Equity --- **Over** Rewarded

Goal setting (GS)

Goal-setting involves the individual's personal orientations towards interpreting and acting in achievement situations. Goals are central to direction and perseveration of individual motivation.

How GS influences performance

- Self chosen personal goals lead to higher performance
- Self regulating mechanisms influence GS
- High self efficacy perception leads to high personal goals
- Relative difficulty of goal influences performance
- GS is effective in motivation if feedback is provided
- Moderating factor between GS and performance is **goal-commitment**.

The emotional process

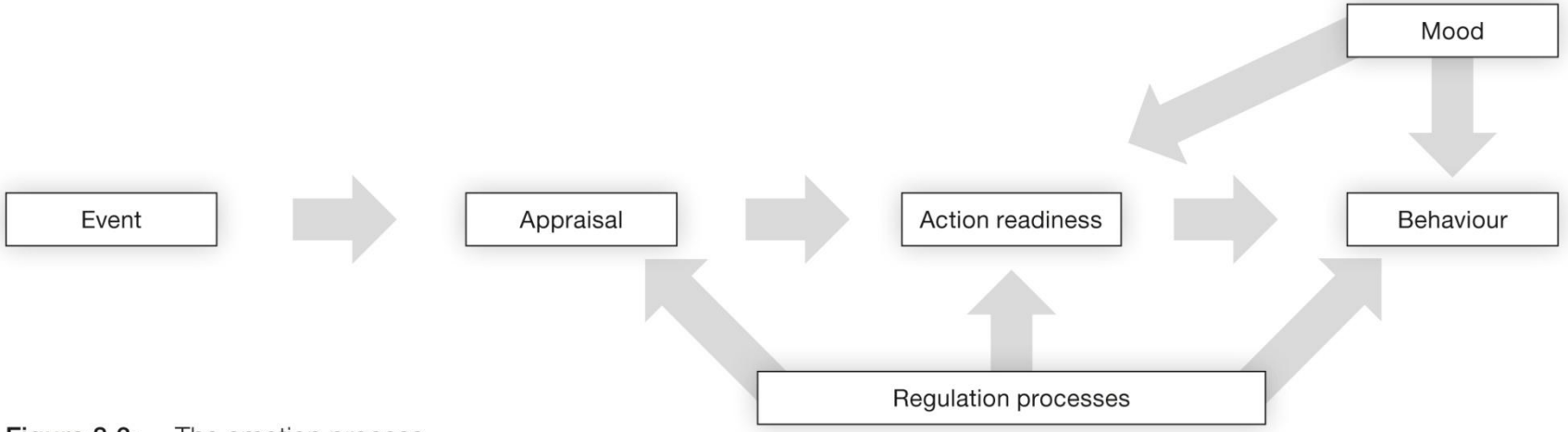


Figure 8.3: The emotion process
Source: Adapted from Frijda (1996)

Emotions and performance

- Activation involves psycho-physiological tension
- Low tension facilitates low performance
- Moderate tension facilitates optimum performance
- High tension facilitates low performance.

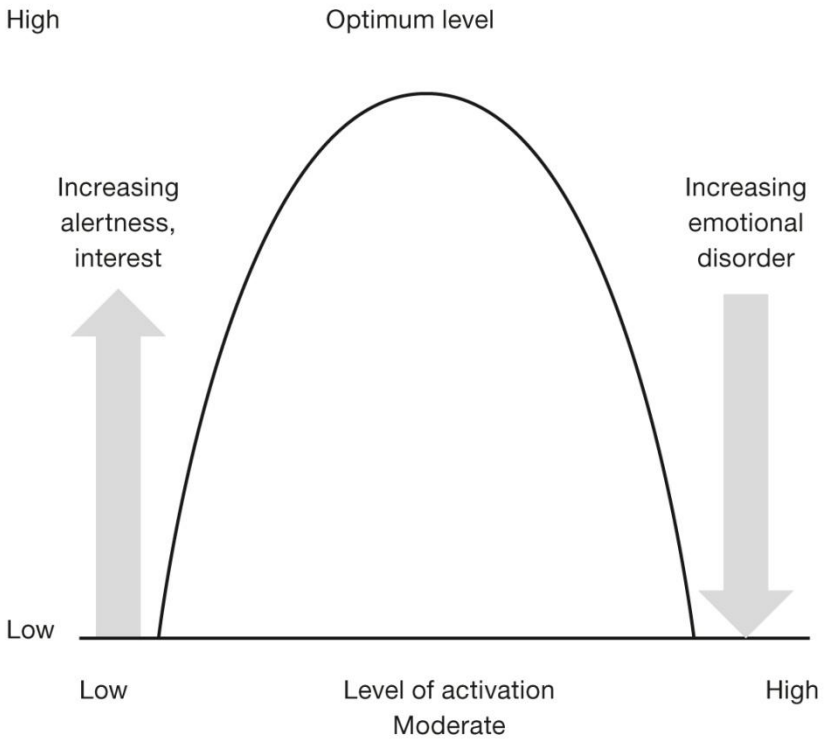


Figure 8.4: The relationship between performance and level of activation

Emotional intelligence

- Knowing ones own emotions
- Managing one's own emotions
- Motivating oneself towards mastery goal setting
- Recognising emotions in others by being empathic.

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Chapter 9

ATTITUDES AND VALUES

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
SOUTHERN AFRICA

Learning outcomes to keep in mind whilst studying this chapter

What are attitudes and values and why are they important?

- Describe the nature and function of attitudes and values
- Describe how attitudes and values are formed, maintained and changed
- Explain how attitudes and values exist as part of personality
- Describe cultural values in an organisation context
- Discuss values and meaning of work.

Nature of attitudes

Components of attitudes

- Cognitive, emotional and behavioural

Types of attitudes

- Peripheral attitudes
  - Temporary
  - Subject to change
  - Situational
- Central attitudes
  - Longer lasting
  - Relatively stable
  - Resist change
  - Part of a personality (related to self concept).

Attitudes

Functions of attitudes

- Determine the meaning of facts and situations
- Substantiated by organisation of facts
- Select facts, defend and express the self
- Provide individual with position in social environment
- Transmit social beliefs
- Justify and explain individual's orientation in the social world

Attitude change

- Individual's attitudes can change
- **How?** Perception of their own behaviour
- **When?** When faced unjustified behaviour.

Attitude change

Cognitive dissonance

- Imbalance between two or more of the individual's cognitions:
- **Origin:** Thoughts & beliefs
- **Effect:** Causes tension
- **Result:** Utilise consonance enhancing info

Self perception theory

- Attitude change through perception own behaviour.

Festinger's four methods for handling dissonance

1. Seeking new information to support one's beliefs & avoiding that which increases dissonance
2. Misinterpreting information which may increase dissonance
3. Finding social support for contradictory factors
4. Playing down significance of factors that contribute to dissonance.

Individual as recipient

The credibility of the communicator

- Sleeper effect – delay reaction to a less credible communicator

Characteristics of communication

- Organisation of communication is related to changing attitudes
- Emotional content of communication related to changing attitudes
- One/two sided and fear/guilt arousing messages/discourse

The situation

- Group agreement/group polarisation.

Work-related attitudes

Job satisfaction

- Positive attitude toward the work situation

Factors conducive to job satisfaction

- Mentally challenging work
- Equitable rewards
- Conducive working conditions and environment
- Working with co-workers and bosses who are friendly/supportive

Phases of studying job satisfaction

- Individual's experience and workplace conditions
- Employee's evaluation of their experience and how the experience is remembered over time

Organisational commitment

- Identification with the employing organisation
- Organisation's commitment to individual.

The nature of values

Rokeach – nature of values

- Enduring belief some action is socially preferable
- Derived from socio-cultural norms and requirements

Kluckhorn – nature of values

- Implicit/explicit conception of desirable behaviours
- Can be inherent in the individual or group

Meaning and centrality of work

- The value/outcome relative to outcomes of other life roles

Deterministic influence of culture

- A pragmatic value orientation
  - Focus on utility which might influence the individual's occupation choice
- An idealistic orientation
  - Is not concerned with utility or practicality.

Values as part of personality

Theoretical	Person values knowledge
Economic	Person driven by utility motive
Social	Person motivated by giving and receiving love
Power	Person driven by need to be in power
Religious	Person needs to have spiritual foundation
Aesthetic	Person gives form to inner being through aesthetic experience

Universal values:
Relations amongst values

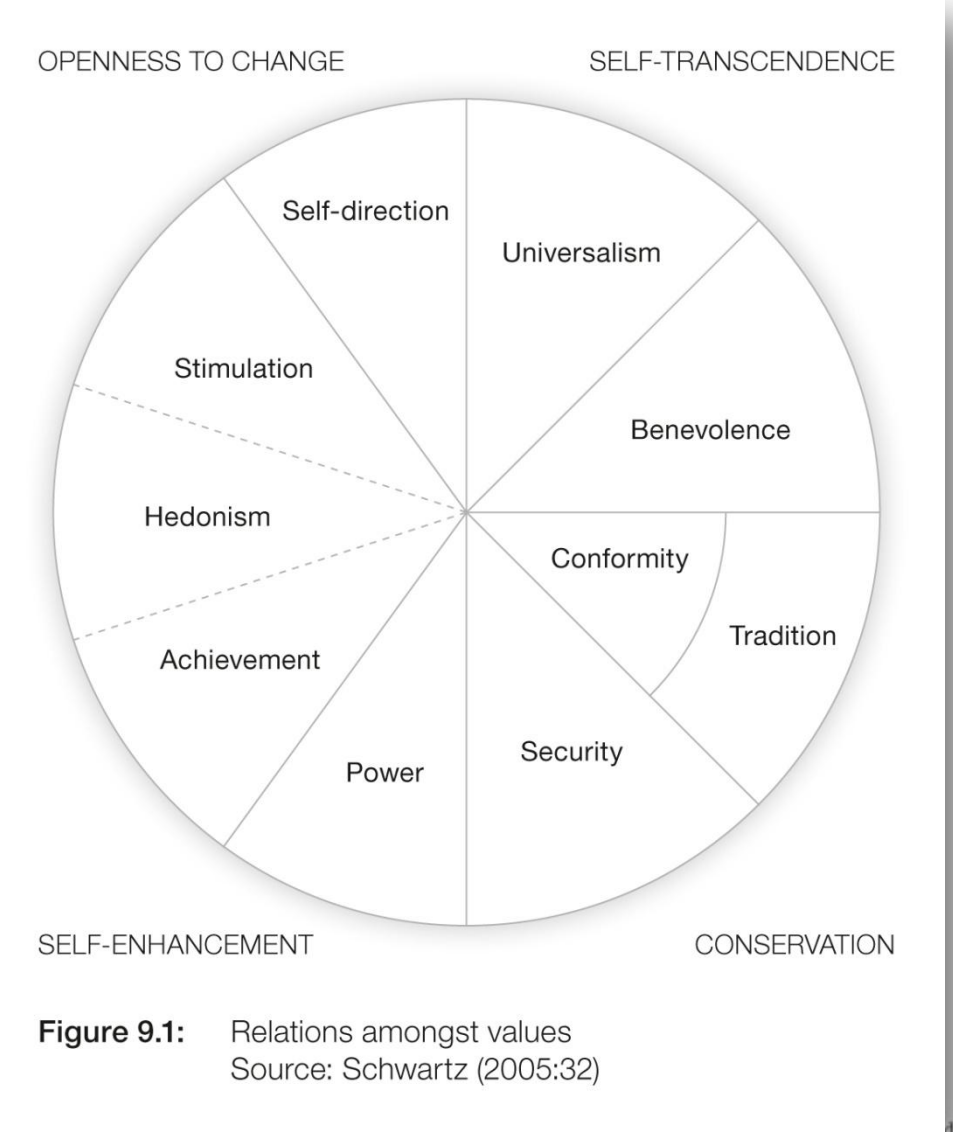


Figure 9.1: Relations amongst values
Source: Schwartz (2005:32)

Cultural values in an organisational context: Power distance

Power Distance refers to how relationships are handled in organisations.

Perspectives within organisations with a large power distance	Perspectives within organisations with a small power distance
The best boss is autocratic but kindly and well-meaning.	The best boss is democratic and has skills to accommodate issues.
Special privileges on a managerial level are acceptable.	Special privileges are questionable.
The differences between the salaries of lower- and higher-level ranks are large.	The differences between the salaries of the lower- and higher-level ranks are small.
Initiatives for decision-making are taken by superiors. Subordinates expect instructions.	Subordinates are treated as equals in decision-making.
The inequalities in the organisation are taken for granted, and the less powerful are assumed to be dependent on the more powerful.	The inequalities in the organisation are reduced and interdependence between the less and more powerful is acknowledged.
Inequality in life situations is reflected in the positions of higher- and lower-level ranks in the organisation.	Higher- and lower-level positions are unequal merely for the functional purposes of the organisation.

Table 9.1: Power distances in organisations

Cultural values in an organisational context: Individualism vs collectivism

Individualism and **Collectivism** are values that have different conceptions of the role of the individual versus the role of the group.

Individualism	Collectivism
Employer and employee are bound by a contractual agreement.	Employer and employee are bound by moral obligations to each other.
Assisting the individual is the focus of management.	Managing groups is the focus of management.
The employee can function independently without relying on the organisation.	The employee's dependence on and assistance by the organisation is valued.
The employee should be allowed to develop his/her own way of doing his/her job best.	The organisation should provide skills training for the job.
Work should be challenging so as to provide the individual with feelings of self-accomplishment.	Work should provide the employee with the opportunity to utilise his/her skills to the full.
The job has priority over human relations.	Human relations have priority over the job.

Table 9.2: Individualism and collectivism in organisations

Cultural values in an organisational context: Masculinity vs femininity

Masculinity and **Femininity** refers to cultures that distinguish between feminine and masculine societies.

Masculinity	Femininity
Life is essentially about work.	Work is essential to life.
Work entails competition, performance and justice.	Work entails equality, quality and unity.
Money, material success and progress are important.	Establishing caring relationships and maintaining them is important.
Managers are self-confident and forceful.	Managers are understanding and foster agreement.
Conflicts are confronted hands-on to the end.	Conflicts are handled by reaching agreement or compromise.
Job tenure is sought for security in the organisation.	Job enrichment is sought for progress and growth.

Table 9.3: Characteristics of masculine and feminine organisations

Values and meaning of work

Values and the meaning of work refers to the value or outcome relative to outcomes of other life roles.

Assimilation

- Minority and Dominant Culture

Multiculturalism

- Heritage Cultures
  - Active – Policy support cultural heritage
  - Laissez-faire – Culture diversity neither protected not suppressed
  - Collective – Heritage culture treated as equal
  - Individual – Individual treated as carrier of a particular culture.

THE END

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENDANCE

HAPPY STUDIES AND GOOD LUCK IN THE EXAMS ☺ ☺ ☺