

Industrial Phycology!

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Created by	
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Organizational Behaviour (OB): is a field of study devoted to understanding, explaining, and ultimately improving the attitudes and Behaviour of individuals and groups in organisations.

Relevance of OB:

OB:

- Perception: ability to notice or understand something
- Needs: establish a social system determine motivation level create environment find topic of conflict create good organisation etc.
- Personality: A stable set-of behavioral characteristics which we randomly exhibits.
- Motivation: Motivation is the act or process of providing a motive that causes a person
 to take some action. In most cases motivation comes from some need that leads to
 behaviour that results in some type of reward when the need is fulfilled.
- Attitude: Attitude is defined as a mental state of readiness; organise to through
 experience which exerts a directive or dynamic influence on the responses on an
 individual to all objects and situations with which the individual is related. Each of these
 beliefs is a predisposition that results in some preferential response towards the object or
 the situation.
- Aptitude : an innate inborn ability or capacity to learn to do a certain kind of work.
- Intelligence : the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills.
- Extroversion / Introversion
- Communication

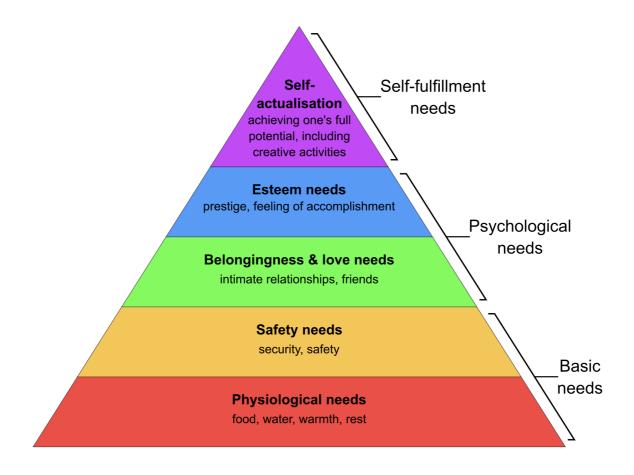
 Self confidence/ Self-concept : state of being clear headed hypothesis or prediction which is correct.

Motivation

- Needs: Motivation is important simply because it allows you as a leader to meet and even exceed your own organisational goals. Without a motivated workforce, organisation will be in a precarious position.
- Self concept / self-belief : belief about own-self.
- Values
- Social background/ Education
- Ability: mental or physical power by which somthing can be achieved.

Maslaw's theory of Need & it's limitations:

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often portrayed in the shape of a pyramid, with the largest, most fundamental needs at the bottom, and the need for self-actualization and transcendence at the top. In other words, the idea is that individuals' most basic needs must be met before they become motivated to achieve higher-level needs. However, it has been pointed out that, although the ideas behind the hierarchy are Maslow's, the pyramid itself does not exist anywhere in Maslow's original work.



The most fundamental four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called "deficiency needs" or "d-needs": esteem, friendship and love, security, and physical needs. If these "deficiency needs" are not met – except for the most fundamental (physiological) need – there may not be a physical indication, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. Deprivation is what causes deficiency, so when one has unmet needs, this motivates them to fulfill what they are being denied. Maslow's idea suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire (or focus motivation upon) the secondary or higher-level needs. Maslow also coined the term "metamotivation" to describe the motivation of people who go beyond the scope of the basic needs and strive for constant betterment.

- Physiological needs- These are the basic needs of air, water, food, clothing and shelter. In other words, physiological needs are the needs for basic amenities of life.
- Safety needs- Safety needs include physical, environmental and emotional safety and protection. For instance- Job security, financial security, protection from animals, family security, health security, etc.
- Social needs- Social needs include the need for love, affection, care, belongingness, and friendship.

- Esteem needs- Esteem needs are of two types: internal esteem needs (self- respect, confidence, competence, achievement and freedom) and external esteem needs (recognition, power, status, attention and admiration).
- Self actualisation need- This include the urge to become what you are capable of becoming / what you have the potential to become. It includes the need for growth and self-contentment. It also includes desire for gaining more knowledge, social- service, creativity and being aesthetic. The actualisation needs are never fully satiable. As an individual grows psychologically, opportunities keep cropping up to continue growing

limitations:

- It is essential to note that not all employees are governed by same set of needs. Different individuals may be driven by different needs at same point of time. It is always the **most powerful unsatisfied need that motivates an individual**.
- The theory is not empirically supported.
- The theory is not applicable in case of starving artist as even if the artist's basic needs are not satisfied, he will still strive for recognition and achievement.

Theory of motivation based on:

- equality: The equality theory of motivation is the idea that what an individual receives
 for their work has a direct effect on their motivation. When applied to workspace, it
 means an individual will generally aim to create a balance between what they give to the
 organisation compared to what they get in return. [EQUALITY THEORE OF
 MOTIVATION]
- performance and outcome: The theory explains that individuals can be motivated towards goals if they believe that there is a positive correlation between efforts and performance, the outcome of a favourable performance will result in a desirable rewards, a reward from a performance will satisfy an important need, and/or the outcome satisfies their need enough to make the effort worthwhile. [EXPECTANCY THEORY]
- hygiene: Two factor theory, provides tow factors that affect motivation in the
 workspace. These factors are hygiene factors and motivating factors. Hygiene factors
 will cause an employee to work less if not present. Motivating factors will energise an
 employee to work harder if present. (Hygiene factors: company policy, working
 condition, salary & benefit, job security.) [HARXBERG'S MOTIVATION THEORY
 MODEL]

Valence of outcome: valence is a value on individual places on the reward of an outcome, which is based on their needs, goals, values and source of motivation. Influenced factor

includes one's values, needs, goals, performance and sources that strengthen their motivation of particular outcome.

Theories of motivation:

- Equality theory of motivation.
- ERG(existence, relatedness, growth) theory of motivation: ERG theory is a theory in
 psychology proposed by Clayton Alderfer. Alderfer further developed Maslow's
 hierarchy of needs by categorising the hierarchy into his ERG theory (Existence,
 Relatedness and Growth). The existence category is concerned with the need for
 providing the basic material existence requirements of humans. The relatedness category
 is concerned about the desire for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. The
 growth category is concerned about the desire for personal development. These include
 the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included
 under self-actualization.
- Reinforcement theory of motivation
- Herzberg'z hygiene theory of motivation

What keeps people motivated in an organisation?

Personality: A stable set-of behavioral characteristics which we randomly exhibits.

What are the big 5 personality trails?

- Openness: Imaginative, curious, original to dull, literal minded
 - Openness to experience is one of the domains which are used to describe human personality in the Five Factor Model. Openness involves six facets, or dimensions: active imagination (fantasy), aesthetic sensitivity, attentiveness to inner feelings, preference for variety (adventurousness), intellectual curiosity, and challenging authority (psychological liberalism). A great deal of psychometric research has demonstrated that these facets or qualities are significantly correlated. Thus, openness can be viewed as a global personality trait consisting of a set of specific traits, habits, and tendencies that cluster together.
- Conscientiousness: Careful, neat, dependable to impulsive, careless, irresponsible
 - Conscientiousness is the personality trait of being careful, or diligent.
 Conscientiousness implies a desire to do a task well, and to take obligations to others seriously. Conscientious people tend to be efficient and organized as opposed to easy-going and disorderly. They exhibit a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement; they display planned rather than spontaneous

behavior; and they are generally dependable. It is manifested in characteristic behaviors such as being neat, and systematic; also including such elements as carefulness, thoroughness, and deliberation (the tendency to think carefully before acting).

- Extraversion: Energetic, expressive to to shy, unassertive,
 - The traits of extraversion (also spelled extroversion) and introversion are a central dimension in some human personality theories. The terms introversion and extraversion were introduced into psychology by Carl Jung, although both the popular understanding and current psychological usage vary. Extraversion tends to be manifested in outgoing, talkative, energetic behavior, whereas introversion is manifested in more reflective and reserved behavior. Jung defined introversion as an "attitude-type characterised by orientation in life through subjective psychic contents", and extraversion as "an attitude-type characterised by concentration of interest on the external object"
- Agreeableness: warn, tactful, considerate to independent, cold, rude
 - Agreeableness is a personality trait manifesting itself in individual behavioral characteristics that are perceived as kind, sympathetic, cooperative, warm, and considerate. In contemporary personality psychology, agreeableness is one of the five major dimensions of personality structure, reflecting individual differences in cooperation and social harmony.
- Neuroticism: [emotional stability] stable, confident to narrow, self-doubt.
 - In the study of psychology, neuroticism has been considered a fundamental personality trait. For example, in the Big Five approach to personality trait theory, individuals with high scores for neuroticism are more likely than average to be moody and to experience such feelings as anxiety, worry, fear, anger, frustration, envy, jealousy, guilt, depressed mood, and loneliness. Such people are thought to respond worse to stressors and are more likely to interpret ordinary situations, such as minor frustrations, as appearing hopelessly difficult. They are described as often being self-conscious and shy, and tending to have trouble controlling urges and delaying gratification.

How TOM relevant to engineers:

Theory of mind is a "theory" because the behaviour of the other person, such as their statements and expressions, is the only thing being directly observed. Their mind and its contents cannot be observed directly, so the existence and nature of the mind must be

inferred. The presumption that others have a mind is termed a theory of mind because each human can only observe their own mind through introspection; no one has direct access to the mind of another. It is typically assumed that others have minds analogous to one's own; this assumption is based on reciprocal social interaction, as observed in joint attention, the functional use of language, and the understanding of others' emotions and actions. Theory of mind allows one to attribute thoughts, desires, and intentions to others, to predict or explain their actions, and to posit their intentions. It enables one to understand that mental states can be the cause of—and so can be used to explain and predict—the behaviour of others. Being able to attribute mental states to others and understanding them as causes of behaviour implies, in part, that one must be able to conceive of the mind as a "generator of representations". If a person does not have a mature theory of mind, it may be a sign of cognitive or developmental impairment.

Theory of mind appears to be an innate potential ability in humans that requires social and other experience over many years for its full development. Different people may develop more or less effective theories of mind. Neo piagetian theories of cognitive development maintain that theory of mind is a byproduct of a broader hyper-cognitive ability of the human mind to register, monitor, and represent its own functioning.

Why is understanding of personality is important:

Understanding personality type can help you to understand your preferences and the preferences of other people and how or why these might be different. Personality types are useful for recognising how we lead, influence, communicate, collaborate, negotiate business and manage stress. There are many ways in which understanding personality type can be applied to the workplace. It can help with our leadership style, to resolve conflicts more effectively, to communicate more effectively, to understand how others make decisions, to coach others, to improve sales skills and to retain key staff.

APTITUDE VERSUS ATTITUDE

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APTITUDE	ATTITUDE
Aptitude is a person's natural ability to learn something	Attitude is a person's feeling, opinion or perspective about something
Measures a person's ability to acquire a new skill or ability	One's mental perspective about a particular issue or person
Related to talent	Related to character and personality
Can be mental or physical	Mental

Stereotype: In social psychology, a **stereotype** is a generalised belief about a particular category of people. It is an expectation that people might have about every person of a particular group. The type of expectation can vary; it can be, for example, an expectation about the group's personality, preferences, appearance or ability. Stereotypes are sometimes overgeneralised, inaccurate, and resistant to new information, but can sometimes be accurate.

While such generalisations about groups of people may be useful when making quick decisions, they may be erroneous when applied to particular individuals and are among the reasons for prejudicial attitudes.

Attribution: Attribution is a term used in psychology which deals with how individuals perceive the causes of everyday experience, as being either external or internal. Models to explain this process are called attribution theory. Psychological research into attribution began with the work of Fritz Heider in the early 20th century, and the theory was further advanced by Harold Kelley and Bernard Weiner. Heider first introduced the concept of perceived 'locus of causality' to define the perception of one's environment. For instance, an experience may be perceived as being caused by factors outside the person's control (external) or it may be perceived as the person's own doing (internal). These initial perceptions are called attributions. Psychologists use these attributions to better understand an individual's motivation and competence. The theory is of particular interest to employers who use it to increase worker motivation, goal orientation, and productivity.

Psychologists have identified various biases in the way people attribute causation, especially when dealing with others. The fundamental attribution error describes the tendency to attribute dispositional or personality-based explanations for behavior, rather than considering external factors. We tend to assume others are responsible for their own misfortunes, in other

words, while blaming external factors for our own. Culture bias is when someone makes an assumption about the behavior of a person based on their own cultural practices and beliefs.

Attribution theory has been criticised as being mechanistic and reductionist for assuming that people are rational, logical, and systematic thinkers. It also fails to address the social, cultural, and historical factors that shape attributions of cause.

Performance, outcome and valence factor.

Trait theory of motivation: In psychology, **trait theory** (also called **dispositional theory**) is an approach to the study of human personality. Trait theorists are primarily interested in the measurement of *traits*, which can be defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion. According to this perspective, traits are aspects of personality that are relatively stable over time, differ across individuals (e.g. some people are outgoing whereas others are not), are relatively consistent over situations, and influence behaviour. Traits are in contrast to states, which are more transitory dispositions.

Big 5 personality:

- **Openness to experience :** Composed of two related but separable traits, Openness to Experience and Intellect. Behavioral aspects include having wide interests, and being imaginative and insightful, correlated with activity in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. Considered primarily a cognitive trait.
- **Conscientiousness :** Scrupulous, meticulous, principled behaviour guided or conforming to one's own conscience. Associated with the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex.
- **Extraversion**: Gregarious, outgoing, sociable, projecting one's personality outward. The opposite of extraversion is introversion. Extraversion has shown to share certain genetic markers with substance abuse. Extraversion is associated with various regions of the prefrontal cortex and the amygdala.
- **Agreeableness :** Refers to a compliant, trusting, empathic, sympathetic, friendly and cooperative nature.
- **Neuroticism**: Identifies people who are prone to psychological distress. Individuals who are high in neuroticism tend to be anxious, depressed, self-conscious, impulsive, vulnerable and display angry hostility. "Neuroticism is the major factor of personality pathology" (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1969). Neuroticism has been linked to serotonin

transporter (5-HTT) binding sites in the thalamus: as well as activity in the insular cortex. Neuroticism also predicts the occurrence of more negative life experiences.

Leadership:

"Leadership is the presentation by a person of some identifiable goal or vision or future state that people can desire; and the generation of a willingness within those people to follow the leader along a socially responsible and mutually beneficial course of action, toward that goal." Parry, 1996.

Behavioral characteristics which impact leadership qualities:

Effective leaders are willing to get their hands dirty. They realise that they are more than just a figure head or a boss.

- Be prepared for commitment: Effective leadership is much more than simply giving assignments and direction. It requires vision, collaboration, planning and practice.
- Assess your personal strengths and weaknesses: A good leader excels in some areas, but
 also understands his or her limitations. Knowing these strengths and weaknesses will
 help you delegate responsibility accordingly, hire people who complement you, and
 know what areas you need to work on to become a better leader.
- Learn how people perceive you: Good leaders have a thorough understanding of how
 they're perceived. This knowledge will make you better able to communicate with
 employees and understand what qualities you need to work on to manage more
 effectively. For example, if you are known as being a bit too harsh, you can work on
 your tone of voice and use more praise..
- Know the traits the group values in a leader: To be an effective leader for a certain group, you will need to understand what qualities the group values. Trust? Creativity?
 Organisation? You should hone whatever qualities they value (ones that will also inspire them to work smarter and harder)
- Key leadership skills include communication, team-building, vision and planning, knowing when to take risks, motivating individuals and the group, delegating responsibility, and more. To become a good leader, you will need to practice these skills.
- Know the industry: You should know the industry trends, major players, marketplace and other relevant information for the industry in which you work.
- Make your meetings work: When you call a meeting, you need to know how to make it productive and lead to concrete action. The first step in this process is to set an agenda for the meeting and follow it. End the meeting by clearly outlining the "action items" or

important points from the meeting. Follow up the meeting with notes about what happened in the meeting as well as any specific action items and who is responsible for executing them.

- Recognise and encourage employees: One of the biggest motivators for employees is
 recognition for their good work and encouragement along the way. Motivate your
 employees to continue with a project, and then praise them as they do good work along
 the way.
- Build your team: An effective leader usually does not, and should not, work alone. He or she should communicate with members of the team, as well as show team members how to work well with each other. All members should be encouraged to participate in the group.
- Don't be afraid to innovate and take risks. An organisation that neither innovates nor takes risks is likely to fail in the long run. A good leader will step out of the safe zone for a good idea.
- Learn from your mistakes: Leaders slip up. Use your mistakes as a steppingstone for improving your leadership skills.

Organisational factors that impact leadership performance and effectiveness How organisational culture and resources impact individual performance