

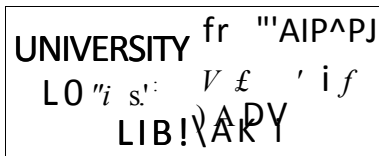
**THE PRACTICE OF ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN
CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANIZATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF
INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS
(ICRC)**

By

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**A Management Research Project Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the
Requirement for the Award of the Degree in Master of Business
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Declaration

This management project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Signed: _____ Date: 1v \ 11 \ & G \ \

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This management project has been submitted for examination with my approval as University supervisor.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to my parents and family who were always there for me throughout the time I was doing the project. To my friends Duncan Kimutai, Columbus Epetet and Alice Obwaya who encouraged me through the tough times while pursuing my MBA course.

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I am grateful to the entire management of International Committee of the Red Cross in Kenya who allowed me to conduct the study in their organization. I would particularly appreciate the time and effort of the managers who I interviewed and their contribution towards this project. I thank my boss Kyambi Kavali who always gave me time off work and encouraged me to complete my project

To my friends Duncan Kimutai and Agnes Muguchu: thank you for being unconditionally supportive to me.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

IM.....Human Resources Management
L.....Human Resources
RC.....International Committee of the Red cross
IG.....Existence Relatedness and Growth

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ABSTRACT

Organizational Psychology is applied to the workplace as to measure: attitudes of employees and employers, organizational behaviour, workplace environment and its effects, and much, much more. It studies such things as personality, cognition, perception, and human development. It looks about the biological side of behaviour (which means it really discovers what chemicals aren't at proper levels in a person with a chemical imbalance). Therefore, psychology plays major role in improving human relations and in solving industrial dispute. Psychology also helps in explaining difference in individuals relating to interests, aptitudes, specialties, intelligence etc. and so in results helps in explaining about a better person personality and requirements that are required in an individual to perform a particular job.

The objective of the study was to determine the practice of organizational psychology by International Committee of the Red Cross. The study employed case study design in addressing the practice of organizational psychology. This study used the semi-structured interviews in order to allow for flexibility and probing where necessary because it seeks complete understanding of research issues. Personal interviews were done where the researcher asked questions in a face-to-face contact with the interviewee. The interview had structured questions accompanied by probing questions when the need arises to allow for elaboration since the study seeks to get in depth information. The orders of the questions were varied depending on the flow of the conversation. Supplementary questions were asked or other questions omitted if the situation so required. Unstructured interview was not used because it was likely to provide many disjointed items of information that would have been difficult to fit together into a coherent picture. The researcher interviewed top managers. General information about the study analysis was done in terms of measures of frequency, measures of central tendency or dispersion using SPSS software package. The results of analysis were presented in tables, and short descriptions. The practices of organizational psychology were analyzed through narrations.

The findings also highlighted that most of the managers interview[^] had standardised selection procedures for use with new hires. However, a few departments without a standard procedure were in the process of designing one, and several Human Resources managers mentioned that their standard procedures had been introduced only recently.

This suggested that ICRC was quickly moving towards an environment where it will be expected that all organisations have standardised selection procedures.

Few Human Resources Managers described goal setting either manager-directed goals or goals set collaboratively as part of everyday motivational practice. Of the cases where goal setting was mentioned, managers usually set goals without getting input from employees. Directed goals had been repeatedly found to be more effective than no goals. However, employee participation in goal-setting increased employees' beliefs in their ability to achieve the goals, and such participation was likely to be particularly important for complex tasks. One department paid close attention to collaborative goal setting. Employees were involved in setting some organisational goals through the use of a centre of excellence and a learning and development team, which identified work improvement and learning opportunities and formed strategies to meet those opportunities. Such involvement was likely to increase employee commitment to the organisation's goals, thus increasing effort towards meeting those goals as well as improving work morale and satisfaction

The study was limited to a number of factors such as the number of interviewed managers. There was also limitation where the senior management was biased on the response they gave on various practices. The study recommended further research to be carried out in future to evaluate the success of the practices of organizational psychology.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The workplace today is in a state of metamorphosis with contemporary issues such as customer satisfaction, competitive advantage, revenue and expenditures, organisational culture, technological advancement, global markets, diverse customer demands and need for effective workforce with a global mindset penetrating every aspect of the organisation. Effective workforce is crucial as it is the organisation's primary player in accomplishing goals and delivering service. According to Gilbreth (2005) a firm's human resource management (HRM) practices and the kind of workforce help attain organisational competitiveness. HRM is the organisational function that enhances creativity, innovation, speed, flexibility, and efficiency of the workforce to transform them into organisational assets. Human resource management is now highly recognised as a strategic lever for the organisation in creating value. Whitney (1994)

According to Spector (2008), at the turn of the century, human resources managers will have to face new challenges. The economy and markets are different from those of a decade ago. As paradigms have changed, the characteristics affecting human resources management must also be revised such as organisational structure and functions in order to keep up to pace with relevance, latest trends and strategies. In today's fast and technological modern world, the challenge that the Information Man faces is time's nature of putting things in order and in place in the best and most effective way. Life has changed since the invention of the computer which dictated man to deal with things in the most efficient way possible. In the world of big international business industries where transactions and other business operations are governed by law, cultural differences and mutual trust, efficiency counts largely as a common entrepreneurial aim.

According to Kanfer (2005), organizational Psychology is applied to the workplace as to measure: attitudes of employees and employers, organizational behavior, workplace environment and its effects, and much, much more. It studies such things as personality, cognition, perception, and human development. It looks about the biological side of behavior (which means it really discovers what chemicals aren't at proper levels in a person with a

chemical imbalance). So, psychology plays major role in improving human relations and also in solving industrial dispute. Psychology also helps in explaining difference in individuals relating to interests, aptitudes, specialties, intelligence etc. and so in results helps in explaining about a better person personality and requirements that are required in an individual to perform a particular job. Psychological also helps an individual in dealing with particular conditions or environment while working and so helps in better adjustment and so relief of tension. So, psychology also helps in personal adjustment for prevailing environment.

1.1.1 Practice of Organization Psychology

Organizational psychology is sometimes referred to as industrial/organizational psychology and it entails the scientific study of the relationships between human beings and the working world in the process of making a living. The researchers who carry out studies on the psychological situation of employees are referred to as industrial-organizational psychologists and they contribute to the success of any given company by improving the performance in addition to the well-being of its workers. This group of scientists works on ways of modifying the behavior of employees by identifying how change in the hiring process may create a positive attitude to the employees Anderson, Ones, Sinangil, and Viswesvaran (2005)

Industrial psychology is concerned with people's work-related values, attitudes and behaviours, and how these are influenced by the conditions in which they work. The term 'Industrial Psychology' is a combination of two words 'Industrial' and 'Psychology'. Industrial is that part of social life whose function is to provide civilized man with the material goals that his condition of life demand. Psychology is the science of behaviour in relation to environment. Thus industrial psychology is the systematic study of the behaviour of the people at work. It studies how the social, industrial, economic, political and other factors affect the behaviour of the people at work Rogelberg (2002)

Industrial psychology is that branch of applied psychology that is concerned with efficient management of an industrial labour force and especially with problems encountered by workers in a mechanized environment. The time was gone when the workers treated as machine and employers always think about the higher production at any cost or without taking consideration of workers'. Now, management better knows if the workers' feel ease/comfortable then they give their maximum contribution. There are some other factors than wages which directly affect the performance of individuals. If employers provide

adequate working conditions, proper distributions of work, attractive compensation, effective leader etc. then definitely organization achieve its success Spector (2008)

1.1.2 The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)

The ICRC regional delegation in Nairobi promotes international humanitarian law and carries out operations in Kenya, Djibouti and Tanzania. It protects and assists people displaced or otherwise affected by violence, restores family links, visits detainees and supports the development of National Red Cross Societies In Kenya, the delegation runs a variety of programmes jointly with the Kenya Red Cross Society to assist people affected by inter-ethnic clashes, whose livelihoods have been or continue to be threatened by lack of security. These economic security projects range from cash-for-work to support populations during their emergency and recovery periods to grants for widowed heads of households to start small businesses (ICRC Report 2010).

Ansoff (1987) noted that the environment is constantly changing. Organizations have to proactively or continuously adapt their operations in order to survive the environmental challenges. The environment presents firms with opportunities, threats and constraints, but rarely does a single firm exert any meaningful reciprocal influence. The liberalization of the economy, privatization, increased competition and the general economic reforms in all sectors are some of these changes in the operating environment. The environment is highly dynamic and continuously presents opportunities and challenges. To ensure survival and success, firms need to develop capability to manage threats and exploit emerging opportunities promptly. Strategies that match capabilities to environment are required. This entails the management of human resources to increase efficiency and produce higher returns

Dramatic changes are affecting the world of work. Examples include increased global competition, the impact of information technology, the re-engineering of business processes. These trends are producing redefinitions of work itself. Organizational psychology potentially has much to contribute to this new world of work. It has potentially has much to lead change rather than to simply react to it, but to do so it must seize to opportunities to provide research- based answers to pressing organizational problems. Theremre, ICRC will be concerned with both the practice and science of industrial efficiency'and organizational human relations to address workplace problems and issues Cascio (1994)

1.2 The Research Problem

Organizational psychology has been in existence since the early 1960s when a move to establish a closer look into group and organizational phenomena of the industry was initiated. At that time, organizational psychology was mainly involved in sole individuals rather than the entire workforce in each organization. According to Murphy (1994), research that was carried out in the early stages of establishment, most employers trained their employees to believe that they meant little to an organization as others could always be obtained equally fast. This notion has changed over the years and today employees are made to understand that employees are the most valuable asset in any organization. In recent years, most organizations have learnt to create conducive environments for their employees in addition to ensuring that their psychological needs are met to increase their productivity Anderson (2005)

Current developments in the field of organizational psychology involves advocating for humane treatment of all employees as research shows that workers become more creative and productive when treated with due respect. Charismatic leadership has been known to change the organizational psychology as it seeks to cater for the needs of employees by ensuring the emotional state of all employees was healthy Anderson (2005). Dramatic changes are affecting the ICRC world of work. Examples include increased global competition, the impact of information technology, the re-engineering of business processes. These trends are producing redefinitions of work itself. Organizational psychology potentially has much to contribute to this new world of work.

Most of the studies have been carried out in developed countries like United Kingdom, United States of America, Japan, France among others compared to the developing ones like Kenya. The context in which the studies have been done is varied. The organizations studied include Kenya Meat Commission, commercial banks, Judiciary service are different in their operations because of dissimilar environmental factors. To the best of author's knowledge, no studies have been done to explore the practice of organization psychology in non-governmental organization. Longurasi, (2008) did a study on employees' perception of organisational psychology a case study of Kenya Meat Commission. Though this study looks at organizational psychology it focuses on the service industry whose operations are different from non-governmental organization society. Gitonga, (2008) looked at the survey of job satisfaction and work in Kenya Judiciary a complete different organization from the one this study is intends to do. Other similar studies have been in banking industry. Githui (2006)

studied Barclays Bank and in the same year Olali (2006), studied Cooperative Bank and they focused mainly on the general personnel management policies. Findings from the above studies show that most human resource managers have been using traditional personnel management policies. The integration between the management of human resources and psychology is arguably the prime factor delineating human resource management theory and practice from its more traditional personnel management origins. Selection of the personnel has long been recognized as a key activity within human resource and this research seeks to explore the extent to which its practice provides evidence of such strategic alignment.

1.3 Research Objectives

The objective of the study was:

To determine the practice of organizational psychology by International Committee of Red Cross.

1.4 Importance of the Study

The findings of the study are of immense benefit to ICRC, which will help them to identify the role of organizational psychology in human resource management and how they affect their productivity. It will also provide suggestions on how to implement the policies in the civil society organizations.

Secondly, the study will generate interest among academia that lead to further study on the dynamic area of organization psychology in civil society organizations. The study will also contribute to the existing body of knowledge on organization psychology in the face of ever-growing challenges in human resource management.



CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Concept Of Organization Psychology

Organisational psychology has its roots in the late 19th century movement to study and measure human capabilities and motives. Some early psychologists, noting the practical nature of psychological research, sought to apply the findings to business problems. In response to the urging of some advertising executives, one such early psychologist, Walter Dill Scott, *The Theory of Advertising* (1903), generally considered to be the first book linking psychology and the business world. It was followed by *The Psychology of Advertising* (1908). Another founder of the field was Hugo Munsterberg (1863-1916), a German-born psychologist teaching at Harvard University who in 1913 published *The Psychology of Industrial Efficiency*. Muinsterberg's book was heavily influenced by the fascination with human efficiency so well represented in the work of Frank and Lillian Gilbreth and Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1915).

When the United States entered World War I in 1917, applied psychology truly came into its own. Committees of psychologists investigated soldier morale, motivation, and the prevalence of psychological impairment. Moreover, psychologists developed a group-administered intelligence test called the Army Alpha. While 1,726,000 enlisted men and officers were tested, little use was made of the results at the time since the war ended a mere three months after the testing program was authorized. However, research studies did show that the test scores were related to soldier performance. After the war, in 1919, the first university-based center for studying the applications of psychology to business was established at the Carnegie Institute of Technology. Called the U.S. Bureau of Salesmanship Research, it was funded largely by the life insurance industry for the purpose of conducting research for the selection and development of clerical and executive personnel as well as sales people Campbell (1994)

According to Neo- classical school, In 1924, a change in direction was heralded by the Hawthorne experiments, named after Western Electric Company's Hawthorne plant in Chicago where the studies were conducted. Originally conceived as a test of some aspects of Taylor's principles, the researchers sought the optimal level of illumination necessary for workers to produce telephone equipment. Instead of finding Taylor's assumed "one-best-way," the researchers found that productivity increased after each change in lighting no matter how bright or dim they made it. Eventually, they concluded that the workers were responding

to the attention they were getting as part of the special research study and this phenomenon came to be known as the Hawthorne effect. Up to this point, thinking about work organizations had been dominated by classical (i.e., bureaucratic or machine) theory. Workers were viewed as extensions of the job and the aim was to arrange human activity to achieve maximum efficiency. Moreover, these classical views of organization assumed a top-down management point of view, emphasizing the authority structure of the organization. The object was to get top management's wishes translated into practice on the shop floor. So the task was to design the job according to scientific precepts and then provide an incentive (usually piecework) to get workers to comply with the will of management and the industrial engineers Murphy (1994)

Staw (1990) notes that the Hawthorne researchers came to embrace a very different view of the business enterprise. They concluded that friendship patterns among the workers were the guts of the organization, and also that people would work harder for an organization that they believed was interested in them. The Hawthorne researchers eschewed economic incentives as the driving force behind work and painted a rich picture of the informal relationships (i.e., those not specified in the organizational chart or job specifications) among workers themselves, in addition to those among workers and the managers, which was the focus of the classical view. People, in other words, came to work not for money, but for the social rewards and satisfactions inherent in human organization.

According to Murphy (1994), management was no longer the controlling force for the Hawthorne researchers (also called neoclassical theorists). Rather, they argued that management can govern only with consent of the workers and that workers actually influence management decisions by controlling the impression that management had of a proper day's work. For example, workers might slow up the pace when the time-motion man (the one with the stopwatch) came into view. The Hawthorne researchers became convinced that job performance could be influenced in ways that could not be achieved with either money or job design. They proposed motivating workers with a set of techniques called human relations, which involved providing considerate supervision and management as a means of persuading the workers to conform to management's expectations by convincing them that the company was indeed concerned about them. In other words, the goal was to change employee attitudes rather than job design or pay. In return, productivity and reliable job performance would presumably increase. Thus, motivation was seen as a function of the satisfaction of social

needs for acceptance, status within one's group, and humane supervision. They recognized that workers may not be performing effectively, not because they are immoral, but because they perceive that they are being treated indifferently or even shabbily by management. To motivate workers, therefore, one changes those perceptions

According to Sundstorm (1990), modern approach contemporary organization psychologists no longer feel they have to choose between classical bureaucratic theory or scientific management on the one hand and neoclassical human relations on the other. The common view today is that taken together, they provide a comprehensive picture of organizational functioning. Environmental forces such as management directives, human capabilities, the state of technology, and economic considerations are potent forces on worker performance and cannot be denied. Likewise, human motivation, perceptions, and job attitudes are influential as well and are ignored at management's peril. Organization psychology recognize that there is an inherent conflict between the needs of organizations and the needs of individuals. Organizations seek regularity and so attempt to reduce human behavior to predictable patterns. That's what organizing is. Humans, on the other hand, do not take well to having their behavior reduced to only those acts required by the job, preferring instead to add spontaneity and expression to the equation. This conflict will never be eliminated, only alleviated. It requires constant, ongoing effort and vigilance to contain the unnatural arrangement we call social organization

2.2 Practice Of Organization Psychology

Contemporary organization psychologists no longer feel they have to choose between classical bureaucratic theory or scientific management and neoclassical human relations. The common view today is that taken together, they provide a comprehensive picture of organizational functioning. Environmental forces such as management directives, human capabilities, the state of technology, and economic considerations are potent forces on worker performance and cannot be denied. Likewise, human motivation, perceptions, and job attitudes are influential and are ignored at management's peril, psychologists recognize that there is an inherent conflict between the needs of organizations and the needs of individuals. Organizations seek regularity and so attempt to reduce human behavior to predictable patterns. Humans, on the other hand, do not take well to having their behavior reduced to the acts required by a job, preferring to add spontaneity and expression to the equation. This

conflict will never be eliminated, only alleviated. It requires constant, on-going effort and vigilance to contain the unnatural arrangement we call social organization. Wright (1992)

Guion (1965) defines Industrial psychology as "the scientific study of the relationship between man and the world of work:... in the process of making a living" . Blum and Naylor (1968) define it as "simply the application or extension of psychological facts and principles to the problems concerning human beings operating within the context of business and industry". Industrial psychology has historically subsumed two broad areas of study, as evident by its name, although this distinction is largely artificial and many topics cut across both areas. It has roots in social psychology; organizational psychologists examine the role of the work environment in performance and other outcomes including job satisfaction and health.. Sometimes, Industrial psychology is considered a sister field or branch of organizational studies, organizational science, organizational behavior, human resources, and/or management, but there is no universally accepted classification system for these related fields. Gilbreth (2005) gave the following definition of the Psychology of Management: The Psychology of Management means the effect of the mind that is directing work upon that work which is directed, and the effect of this undirected and directed work upon the mind of the worker. The emphasis in successful management lies on the man, not on the work

Seyidov (2000) also defines the management and then shows the correlation between management and psychology. Management - a science about coordination of resources of the organizations on reaching the planned purposes. There where a person exists, his psychological features that are reflected in his activity are always with him. Studying the psychology of management, we study the psychology of the person, his activity and the most important thing - influence of the mentality of the person on activity and influence of activity on psychology and behavior of the person. The psychology of management is the branch of psychology studying mental features of the person and its behavior

2.3 Motivation in the workplace

Understanding what motivates an organization's employees is central to the study of organizational psychology. Motivation, at its core, can be defined as the energy a person puts toward work-related behaviors. While motivation can often be used as a tool to help predict behavior, it varies greatly among individuals and must often be combined with ability and environmental factors to actually influence behavior and performance. Because of

motivation's role in influencing workplace behavior and performance, it is key for organizations to understand and to structure the work environment to encourage productive behaviors and discourage those that are unproductive Mitchell (2003)

There is general consensus that motivation involves three psychological processes: arousal, direction, and intensity. Arousal is what initiates action. It is fueled by a person's need or desire for something that is missing from their lives at a given moment, either totally or partially. Direction refers to the path employees take in accomplishing the goals they set for themselves. Finally, intensity is the vigor and amount of energy employees put into this goal-directed work performance. The level of intensity is based on the importance and difficulty of the goal. These psychological processes result in four outcomes. First, motivation serves to direct attention, focusing on particular issues, people, tasks, etc. It also serves to stimulate an employee to put forth effort. Next, motivation results in persistence, preventing one from deviating from the goal-seeking behavior. Finally, motivation results in task strategies, which as defined by Mitchell & Daniels, are "patterns of behavior produced to reach a particular goal".

2.4 Need-based theories

According to Morrison (1994), Need-based theories of motivation focus on an employee's drive to satisfy a variety of needs through their work. These needs range from basic physiological needs for survival to higher psychoemotional needs like belonging and self-actualization. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) was applied to offer an explanation of how the work environment motivates employees. In accordance with Maslow's theory, which was not specifically developed to explain behavior in the workplace, employees strive to satisfy their needs in a hierarchical order. At the most basic level, an employee is motivated to work in order to satisfy basic physiological needs for survival, such as having enough money to purchase food. The next level of need in the hierarchy is safety, which could be interpreted to mean adequate housing or living in a safe neighborhood. The next three levels in Maslow's theory relate to intellectual and psycho-emotional needs: love and belonging, esteem (which refers to competence and mastery), and finally the highest* order need, self-actualization. Although Maslow's theory is widely known, in the workplace it has proven to be a poor predictor of employee behavior. Maslow theorized that people will not seek to satisfy a higher level need until their lower level needs are met. There has been little empirical support

for the idea that employees in the workplace strive to meet their needs only in the hierarchical order prescribed by Maslow Locke,(1990).

Building on Maslow's theory, Alderfer (1959) collapsed the levels in Maslow's theory from five to three: existence, relatedness and growth. This theory, called the ERG theory, does not propose that employees attempt to satisfy these needs in a strictly hierarehal manner. Empirical support for this theory has been mixed. Atkinson & McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory is the most relevant and applicable need-based theory in the organization psychologist's arsenal. Unlike other need-based theories, which try to interpret every need, Need for Achievement allows the organizational psychology to concentrate research into a tighter focus. Studies show those who have a high need for achievement prefer moderate levels of risk, seek feedback, and are likely to immerse themselves in their work. Achievement motivation can be broken down into three types: Achievement - seeks position advancement, feedback, and sense of accomplishment; Authority - need to lead, make an impact and be heard by others; and Affiliation - need for friendly social interactions and to be liked. Because most individuals have a combination of these three types (in various proportions), an understanding of these achievement motivation characteristics can be a useful assistance to management in job placement, recruitment, etc

The theory is referred to as Need for Achievement because these individuals are theorized to be the most effective employees and leaders in the workplace. These individuals strive to achieve their goals and advance in the organization. They tend to be dedicated to their work and strive hard to succeed. Such individuals also demonstrate a strong desire for increasing their knowledge and for feedback on their performance.

2.5 Cognitive process theories

Equity Theory is derived from social exchange theory. It explains motivation in the workplace as a cognitive process of evaluation, whereby the employee seeks to achieve a balance between inputs or efforts in the workplace and the outcomes or rewards received or anticipated. In particular, Equity Theory research has tested employee slntiments regarding equitable compensation. Employee inputs take the form of work v'lume and quality, performance, knowledge, skills, attributes and behaviors. The company-generated outcomes include rewards such as compensation, praise and advancement opportunities. The employee compares his inputs relative to outcomes; and, then, extrapolating to the social context, the

employee compares his input/outcome ratio with the perceived ratios of others. If the employee perceives an inequity, the theory posits that the employee will adjust his behavior to bring things into balance Wageman (1997)

While it has been established that Equity Theory provides insight into scenarios of under-compensation, the theory has generally failed to demonstrate its usefulness in understanding scenarios of overcompensation, Ambrose (1999). In this way, it could be said Equity Theory is more useful in describing factors that contribute to a lack of motivation rather than increasing motivation in the workplace. Concepts of organizational justice later expanded upon the fundamentals of Equity Theory and pointed to the importance of fairness perceptions in the workplace. When workplace processes are perceived as fair, the benefits to an organization can be high. In such environments, employees are more likely to comply with policies even if their personal outcome is less than optimal. When workplace policies are perceived as unfair, risks for retaliation and related behaviors such as sabotage and workplace violence can increase.

While organizational psychology aims at improving the atmosphere at the workplace, cognitive psychology is concerned with mental processes, which underlie mental activities such as perception, reasoning, problem solving, and emotions in addition to memory. In order to understand the psychological aspect of an organization, it would be equally important to look into the cognitive aspect of the individual. Some behavioural attributes of workers are often affected by their cognitive ability hence there is a need to understand the relationship between the two Spector (2005).

According to Mitchell (2003), Expectancy Theory has been shown to have useful applications in designing rewards systems. If policies are consistently, clearly and fairly implemented, then the Instrumentality would be high. If the rewards are substantial enough to be meaningful to an employee, then the Valence would be also considered high. A precursor to motivation is that the employee finds the reward(s) attractive. In some instances, the reward or outcome might inadvertently be unattractive, such as increased workload or demanding travel that may come with a promotion Ambrose (1999). In such an instance, the Valence might be lower for individuals who feel work-life balance is important, for example. Expectancy Theory posits employee satisfaction to be an outcome of performance rather than the cause of performance. However, if a pattern is established whereas an employee understands his performance will lead to certain desired rewards, an employee's motivation can be strengthened based on

anticipation. If the employee foresees a high probability that they can successfully carry out a desired behavior, and that their behavior will lead to a valued outcome, then they will direct their efforts toward that end Lawler(1992)

2.6 Goal-setting

Organization psychology can assist an employer in designing task-related goals for their employees that are attainable, specific, appropriately difficult, and feedback providing, in hopes of rousing tunnel vision focus in the employees Locke,(1990). Studies have shown both feedback from the employer and self-efficacy (belief in one's capabilities to achieve a goal) within the employee must be present for goal-setting to be effective. However, because of the tunnel vision focus created by goal-setting theory, several studies have shown this motivational theory may not be applicable in all situations. In fact, in tasks that require creative on-the-spot improvising, goal-setting can even be counterproductive. Furthermore, because clear goal specificity is essential to a properly designed goal-setting task, multiple goals can create confusion for the employee and the end result is a muted overall drive. Wright (1992).

Locke, (1990) suggested several reasons why goals are motivating: they direct attention, lead to task persistence and the development of task strategies for accomplishing the goal. In order for a goal to be motivating, the employee or work group must first accept the goal. While difficult goals can be more motivating, a goal still needs to appear achievable, which in turn will lead to greater goal acceptance. The person or group should have the necessary skills and resources to achieve the goal, or goal acceptance could be negatively impacted. Specific goals that set a performance expectation are more motivating than those that are vague. Similarly, more proximal goals have greater motivation impact than those that are very long range or distal goals. Feedback while the employee or group is striving for the goal is seen as crucial. Feedback keeps employees on track and reinforces the importance of the goal as well as supporting the employees in adjusting their task strategies.

According to Mitchell (2003), Goal-setting Theory has strong empirical support dating back thirty years. However, there are some boundary conditions that indicate in some situations, goal-setting can be detrimental to performance on certain types of tasks. Goals require a narrowing of one's focus, so for more complex or creative tasks, goals can actually inhibit performance because they demand cognitive resources. Similarly, when someone is learning a

new task, performance-related goals can distract from the learning process. During the learning process, it may be better to focus on mastering the task than achieving a particular result. Finally, too many goals can become distracting and counterproductive, especially if they conflict with one another.

2.7 Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory is another cognitive process theory that offers the important concept of self-efficacy for explaining employee's level of motivation relative to workplace tasks or goals. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief in his or her ability to achieve results in a given scenario. Empirically, studies have shown a strong correlation between self-efficacy and performance. The concept has been extended to group efficacy, which is a group's belief that it can achieve success with a given task or project .Mitchell (2003).

According to Jex & Britt (2008), Self-efficacy is seen to mediate important aspects of how an employee undertakes a given task, such as the level of effort and persistence. An employee with high self-efficacy is confident that effort he or she puts forth has a high likelihood of resulting in success. In anticipation of success, an employee is willing to put forth more effort, persists longer, remains focused on the task, seeks feedback and chooses more effective task strategies. The antecedents of self-efficacy may be influenced by expectations, training or past experience and requires further research. It has been shown that setting high expectations can lead to improved performance, known as the Pygmalian effect. Low expectations can lower self-efficacy and is referred to as the golem effect.

Relative to training, a mastery-oriented approach has been shown to be an effective way to bolster self-efficacy. In such an approach, the goal of training is to focus on mastering skills or tasks rather than focusing on an immediate performance-related outcome. Individuals who believe that mastery can be achieved through training and practice are more likely to develop greater self-efficacy than those who see mastery as a product of inherent talent than is largely immutable Mitchell(2003).

2.8 Group behaviour

Group behavior is the interaction between individuals of a collective and the processes such as opinions, attitudes, growth, feedback loops, and adaptations that occur and change as a

result of this interaction. Goldstone, R.; Roberts, M.: & Gureckis, T. (2008). Emergent processes of group behavior. The interactions serve to fulfill some need satisfaction of an individual who is part of the collective and helps to provide a basis for his interaction with specific members of the group. A specific area of research in group behavior is the dynamics of teams. Team effectiveness refers to the system of getting people in a company or institution to work together effectively. The idea behind team effectiveness is that a group of people working together can achieve much more than if the individuals of the team were working on their own.

Organizational psychology practice support the use of teams, because teams can accomplish a much greater amount of work in a short period of time than can be accomplished by an individual contributor, and because the collective results of a group of contributors can produce higher quality deliverables Jex & Britt, (2008). Five elements that are contributors to team effectiveness include: team composition, task design, organizational resources, team rewards, and team goals. The composition of teams is initially decided during the selection of individual contributors that are to be assigned to specific teams and has a direct bearing on the resulting effectiveness of those teams. Aspects of team composition that should be considered during the team selection process include team member: knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs), personalities, and attitudes.

As previously stated, one of the reasons organizational psychology practice support the use of teams is the expectation of the delivery of higher quality results. To achieve these types of results, highly skilled members are more effective than teams built around those with lesser skills, and teams that include a diversity of skills have improved team performance Guzzo & Shea, (1992). Additionally, increased average cognitive ability of team members has been shown to consistently correlate to increased work group effectiveness Sundstrom et al., (2000). Therefore, organizations should seek to assign teams with team members that have a mix of KSAs. Teams that are composed of members that have the same KSAs may prove to be ineffective in meeting the team goals, no matter how talented the individual members are.

The personalities and attitudes of the individuals that are selected as team members are other aspects that should be taken into consideration when composing teams, since these individual traits have been found to be good indicators of team effectiveness. For example, a positive relationship between the team-level traits of agreeableness and conscientiousness and the team performance has been shown to exist Van Vianen & De Dreu. (2001). Differing

personalities of individual team members can affect the team climate in a negative way as members may clash and reduce team performance, Barrick. et al (1998).

A fundamental question in team task design is whether or not a task is even appropriate for a team. Those tasks that require predominantly independent work are best left to individuals, and team tasks should include those tasks that consist primarily of interdependent work Jex & Britt, (2008). When a given task is appropriate for a team, task design can play a key role in team effectiveness. The Job Characteristics Theory of motivation identifies core job dimensions that provide motivation for individuals and include: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback, Hackman & Oldham (1980). These dimensions map well to the team environment. Individual contributors that perform team tasks that are challenging, interesting, and engaging are more likely to be motivated to exert greater effort and perform better than those team members that are working on those tasks that do not have these characteristics.

Interrelated to the design of various tasks is the implementation method for the tasks themselves. For example, certain team members may find it challenging to cross train with other team members that have subject matter expertise in areas in which they are not familiar. In utilizing this approach, greater motivation is likely to result for both parties as the expert becomes the mentor and trainer and the cross-training team member finds learning new tasks to be an interesting change of pace. Such expansions of team task assignments can make teams more effective and require teams to spend greater amounts of time discussing and planning strategies and approaches for completing assigned tasks, Hackman. et al., (1976).

Organizational psychology support systems impact the effectiveness of teams Sundstrum. et al., (1990) and provide resources for teams operating in the multi-team environment. In this case, the provided resources include various resource types that teams require to be effective. During the chartering of new teams, organizational enabling resources are first identified. Examples of enabling resources include facilities, equipment, information, training and leadership. Also identified during team chartering are team-specific resources (e.g.: budgetary resources, human resources). Team-specific human resources represent the individual contributors that are selected for each team as team members. Intra-team processes (e.g.: task design, task assignment) are sufficient for effective utilization of these team-specific resources.

Teams also function in multi-team environments that are dynamic in nature and require teams to respond to shifting organizational contingencies Salas, et al (2004). In regards to resources, such contingencies include the constraints imposed by organizational resources that are not specifically earmarked for the exclusive use of certain teams. These types of resources are scarce in nature and must be shared by multiple teams. Examples of these scarce resources include subject matter experts, simulation and testing facilities, and limited amounts of time for the completion of multi-team goals. For these types of shared resources inter-team management processes (e.g.: constraint resource scheduling) must be provided to enable effective multi-team utilization.

Organizational psychology reward systems are a driver for strengthening and enhancing individual team member efforts that contribute towards reaching collective team goals Luthans & Kreitner (1985). In other words, rewards that are given to individual team members should be contingent upon the performance of the entire team Sundstrom. et al., (1990). Several design elements of organizational reward systems are needed to meet this objective. The first element for reward systems design is the concept that for a collective assessment to be appropriate for individual team members, the group's tasks must be highly interdependent. If this is not the case, individual assessment is more appropriate than team assessment Wageman & Baker (1997). A second design element is the compatibility between individual-level reward systems and team-level reward systems DeMatteo, Eby, & Sundstrom (1998). For example, it would be an unfair situation to reward the entire team for a job well done if only one team member did the great majority of the work. That team member would most likely view teams and team work in a negative fashion and not want to participate in a team setting in the future. A final design element is the creation of an organizational culture that supports and rewards employees who believe in the value of teamwork and who maintain a positive mental attitude towards team-based rewards.

Goals for individual contributors have been shown to be motivating when they contain three elements: difficulty, acceptance, and specificity Lock & Latham (1990). In a team setting, goal difficulty is related to group belief that the team can accomplish the tasks required to meet the assigned goal. This belief (collective efficacy) is somewhat counterintuitive, but rests on team member perception that they now view themselves as more competent than others in the organization who were not chosen to complete such difficult goals. This in turn.

can lead to higher levels of performance. Goal acceptance and specificity is also applicable to the team setting. When team members individually and collectively commit to team goals, team effectiveness is increased and is a function of increased supportive team behaviors.

As related to the team setting, it is also important be aware of the interplay between the goals of individual contributors that participate on teams and the goals of the teams themselves. The selection of team goals must be done in coordination with the selection of goals for individuals. Individual goals must be in line with (or not exist at all) team goals to be effective Mitchell & Silver (1990). For example, a professional ball player that does well in their sport is rewarded individually for excellent performance. This individual performance generally contributes to improved team performance which can, in turn, lead to team recognition, such as a league championship.

2.9 Job analysis

Job analysis is often described as the cornerstone of successful employee selection efforts and performance management initiatives. A job analysis involves the systematic collection of information about a job. Job-analytic methods are often described as belonging to one of two approaches. One approach, the task-oriented job analysis, involves an examination of the duties, tasks, and/or competencies required by a job. The second approach, a worker-oriented job analysis, involves an examination of the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics required to successfully perform the work. These two approaches are not mutually exclusive. Various adaptations of job-analytic methods include competency modeling, which examines large groups of duties and tasks related to a common goal or process, and practice analysis, which examines the way work is performed in an occupation across jobs, Morrison (1994)

Job-analytic data are often collected using a variety of quantitative and qualitative methods. The information obtained from a job analysis is then used to create job-relevant selection procedures, performance appraisals and criteria, or training programs. Additional uses of job-analytic information include job evaluations for the purpose of determining compensation levels and job redesign. Organization psychology practice typically work with human resource specialists to design recruitment processes and personnel selection systems. Personnel recruitment is the process of identifying qualified candidates in the workforce and getting them to apply for jobs within an organization. Personnel recruitment processes include

developing job announcements, placing ads, defining key qualifications for applicants, and screening out unqualified applicants Kozlowski (2003)

Personnel selection is the systematic process of hiring and promoting personnel. Personnel selection systems employ evidence-based practices to determine the most qualified candidates. Personnel selection involves both new hires and individuals who can be promoted from within the organization. Common selection tools include ability tests (e.g., cognitive, physical, or psychomotor), knowledge tests, personality tests, structured interviews, the systematic collection of biographical data, and work samples, organizational psychology must evaluate evidence regarding the extent to which selection tools predict job performance, evidence that bears on the validity of selection tools Haines (2006)

Performance appraisal or performance evaluation is the process of measuring an individual's work behaviors and outcomes against the expectations of the job. Performance appraisal is frequently used in promotion and compensation decisions, to help design and validate personnel selection procedures, and for performance management. Performance management is the process of providing performance feedback relative to expectations and improvement information (e.g., coaching, mentoring). Performance management may also include documenting and tracking performance information for organization-level evaluation purposes Latham (2005)

Organizational psychology typically use information from the job analysis to determine a job's performance dimensions, and then construct a rating scale to describe each level of performance for the job. Often, the Organizational psychology will be responsible for training organizational personnel how to use the performance appraisal instrument, including ways to minimize bias when using the rating scale, and how to provide effective performance feedback. According to Kozlowski (2003), the Organizational psychology may consult with the organization on ways to use the performance appraisal information for broader performance management initiatives. Compensation includes wages or salary, bonuses, pension/retirement contributions, and perquisites that can be converted to cash or replace living expenses. Organizational psychologists may be asked to conduct evaluation for the purpose of determining compensation levels and ranges. Organizational psychologists may also serve as expert witnesses in pay discrimination cases when disparities in pay for similar work are alleged Haines (2006)

Most people hired for a job are not already versed in all the tasks required to perform the job effectively, an Organization psychology would employ a job analysis in concert with principles of instructional design to create an effective training program. A training program is likely to include a summative evaluation at its conclusion in order to ensure that trainees have met the training objectives and can perform the target work tasks at an acceptable level. Training programs often include formative evaluations to assess the impact of the training as the training proceeds. Formative evaluations can be used to locate problems in training procedures and help Organization psychology make corrective adjustments while the training is ongoing

2.10 Organizational culture

Kotter and Heskett(1992) categorize organization cultures into three groups: Strong, Strategically Appropriate, and Adaptive. Each has been identified with high performing organizations and has particular implications on motivation in the workplace. According to Kotter and Heskett, the most widely-reported effect of culture on performance is that strong cultures result in high performance. The three reasons for this are goal alignment, motivation, and the resulting structure provided. Goal alignment is driven by the proposed unified voice that drives employees in the same direction. Motivation comes from the strength of values and principles in such a culture. And structure is provided by these same attributes which obviate the need for formal controls that could stifle employees. There are questions that concern researchers about causality and the veracity of the driving voice of a strong culture.

A strategically appropriate culture motivates due to the direct support for performance in the market and industry: "The better the fit, the better the performance; the poorer the fit, the poorer the performance," state Kotter and Heskett. There is an appeal to the idea that cultures are designed around the operations conditions a firm encounters although an outstanding issue is the question of adapting culture to changes in the environment. Another perspective in culture literature asserts that in order for an organization to perform at a high level over a long period of time, it must be able to adapt to changes in the environment. According to Ralph Kilmann, in such a culture "there is a shared feeling of confidence: the members believe, without a doubt, that they can effectively manage whatever new problems and opportunities will come their way." In effect, the culture is infused with a high degree of self-efficacy and confidence. As with the strong culture, critics point to the fact that the theory provides nothing in the way of appropriate direction of adaptation that leads to high performance.

In conclusion. Organizational psychology practice is a wide field and it has direct significant effects on the overall performance of any organization. Thus, proper understanding of the psychological needs of workers is paramount to increased productivity and performance. There are quite a number of related areas that affect decisions of practice organizational psychology directly and they thus require intense understanding by the key players in the field. Research and data collection in organizational psychology is crucial as it is the basis of most managerial decisions.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will deal with the methodology to be used for carrying out the research. It looks at the research design to be used and in this case it will be a case study. The method to be used for data collection and how the data will be analysed and presented.

3.2 Research Design

This study employed case study design. This is because the case design makes a complete examination and analysis of one or a few entities and this research will look at one entity (ICRC). It is a method that emphasizes depth rather than breadth Kothari. (2000). This case study design is preferred because it is an intensive investigation of a particular unit and the study intends to exhaustively investigate this company. Efforts were made to study in details every aspect of the research problem. The depth of analysis and unique information to the particular unit attained through the design its major advantage and thus preference in this study.

3.3 Data Collection

This study used the semi-structured interviews (see interview guide attached as appendix 1) in order to allow for flexibility and probing where necessary because it seeks complete understanding of research issues. Personal interviews were done where the researcher asked questions in a face-to-face contact with the interviewee. The interview had structured questions accompanied by probing questions when the need arises to allow for elaboration since the study seeks to get in depth information. The orders of the questions were varied depending on the flow of the conversation. Supplementally questions were asked or other questions omitted if the situation so required. Unstructured interview was not used because they are likely to provide many disjointed items of information that may be difficult to fit together into a coherent picture. The researcher interviewed top managers, functional heads and other low-level managers.

3.4 Data Analysis

After administering and collecting the questionnaires, they were subjected to descriptive analysis. This described the situation as it is or description of the existing situation. The analysis was done in terms of measures of frequency, measures of central tendency or dispersion and other characteristics that are important to the study using SPSS software package.

The results of analysis for general industry information were presented in tables, bar and pie charts and short descriptions. The findings on practice of organization psychology were qualitative in nature and as such narratives were used as a means of presentation. Suggestions from the respective respondents was also captured and compared with the rest and checked if the responses were common or different

CHAPTER FOUR : FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study based on the analysis and interpretation of primary data collected from the top management of International Committee of Red Cross interviewed. The research objective was to determine the practice of organizational psychology by International Committee of Red Cross.

4.2 Level of Response on the study of the practice of organizational psychology at International Committee of the Red Cross

At the ICRC the research target was to interview ten senior managers at the organization on the study. However, only seven managers responded which translated to 70% response. The completed interview responses were edited for completeness and consistency. Statistical package for social and science was used for data analysis. The findings are presented in percentages and frequency distributions, mean, standard deviations and narratives

4.2.1 Length of Service with Organisation (years)

The results presented in table 1 shows that the number of years of service in the current organization varied from a period of one year to over 16 years. 60% of the respondents had worked in their respective companies for a period of 1 to 5 years, 20% had worked for a period ranging from 6 years to over six years.

The period of stay in the organization indicated that majority are still new in their respective duties. However, none had worked for less than three years, this shows that there is high level of understanding of the organization amongst the respondents.

Table 1 Period with organization (years)

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulati* Percent
1-5	4	60.0	60.0
6-10	2	25.0	85.0
Over 16	1	15.0	100.0
Total	5	100.0	

Source : Researcher, 2011

4.2.2 Current number of Employees in the Organization

Human resources plays vital role in the day to day running of the organization, that is. as much as the organizations embrace technology, computation and automation which cannot fully replace human assets. However, organizations must strike a balance between the level of work force required and the optimal outputs for the organization. As shown in table 2. the current level of work force varies from a low of 12 staff for Mombasa office to a high of 250 staff at the Nairobi headquarters.

Table 2 Current number of employees

Delegations	Number of current employees
Nairobi Headquarters	250
Regional logistics centre	152
Mombasa office	12
Total	414

Source : Researcher, 2011

4.2.3 Last review of the Organization Structure

Organization reviews are conducted in time to identify the organizational goals to be achieved within a specified period of time. The frequency of review depends on the extent of the rate of change in and around the organization.

The findings in table 3, show that majority of the departments reviewed their respective organization structures in the last two years. This is in line with the recent changes witnessed in the organization.

Table 3 Last time organization structure was revised

Time of review	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Last 2 years	4	80.0	80.0
2-5 years	1	20.0	100.0
Has never changed			
Total	5	100.0	

Source : Researcher, 2011

4.3. Practice of Organisation Psychology

The senior management staff interviewed gave practical information about the practice of most aspects of the workplace. For example, 30% of the managers said that the practice of the role of personality traits in the hiring process was a big success in ICRC. However, 20% pointed out that they had experienced barriers to successful employment of workers with disabilities; for example, hiring blind and deaf workers. 25% of the top management who had worked for the organization for over 6 years, brought out the element of workplace culture, which they said it encouraged voluntary turnover and absenteeism. In addition it promoted workplace aggression and bullying leading to occupational stress. 15% of the population interviewed said the practice of organizational psychology at ICRC had attracted staff with different personalities to the organisation, motivated employees to do their best in the workplace; and produced different leadership behaviours of male and female managers.

For example, the selection process used at ICRC is concerned with identifying, attracting and choosing suitable people to meet an organization's human resource requirements. Selection is essentially concerned with finding, assessing and engaging new employees or promoting existing ones. As such, its focus is on matching the capabilities and interests of prospective candidates with the demands and rewards of a given job. 70% of the population of the senior managers interviewed said that the selection decisions practice were amongst the most important of all decisions that they have to make because they are a prerequisite to the development of an effective workforce. These research activities have a common goal of improving the workplace for employees as well as employers, through the effective use of employee data and the recommendation of effective workplace practice.

4.3.1 Fitting People to Jobs

61% of the HR managers interviewed said that fitting people to jobs (and jobs to people) was a major issue in their industry, and almost as many (56%) said that this was an equally important issue for their organisation, compared to other organisations in the same industry.

Two-thirds (67%) of the managers interviewed had clear policies in place specifying how people should be matched to jobs, or how jobs can be matched to people. These policies usually took the form of standardised procedures for selecting people to fill positions in the organisation.

Consequently, the expectation was that the majority of organisations would be implementing the best practices available to ensure good fit of people to jobs. As shown in Table 4, HR managers considered almost all of the listed HR activities as "effective" for matching people to jobs or jobs to people. Satisfaction surveys were considered less effective for this purpose.

Table 4: HR managers' responses to the question "How effective do you consider the following activities in matching people to jobs, or jobs to people?"

HR Activity	Percentage of Effectiveness
Selection	95%
Training	92%
Communication systems	80%
Performance management	92%
Job design or redesign	70%
Compensation and benefits	60%
HR planning	85%
Satisfaction surveys	40%

Source : Researcher, 2011

In addition, HR managers were asked what HR activity they considered the most effective for matching people to jobs and jobs to people. The most common response (mentioned by 61% of HR managers) revolved around the selection process, with some managers making specific comments about behavioural interview techniques or recruitment methods. Training (17%) and performance management (17%) were also mentioned as being critical. These findings do suggest that although HR managers see selection as a key element of matching people and jobs, they do not consider it the only way to accomplish this goal.

Almost all of the managers interviewed had standardised selection procedures for use with new hires. However, one of the few departments without a standard procedure was in the process of designing one, and several HR managers mentioned that their standard procedures had been introduced only recently. This suggests that we are quickly moving towards an environment where it will be expected that all organisations have standardised selection procedures.

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Most of the HR managers mentioned the use of resumes and/or application forms as the first stage of a multi-stage selection process. Further details were rarely obtained, although studies have noted that while resumes are generally valid selection tools, the variation between each

resume increases the chance that the assessor can be influenced by irrelevant information. Many of the larger organisations use psychological tests.

Less than half of the HR managers described utilising job analysis in their selection activities. ICRC analysed each job before starting the job selection process, to ensure that recruitment and selection are directed by the most relevant competencies. Such activities seem particularly valuable given that the nature of work changes rapidly in today's world, and it can be difficult to ensure that relevant aspects of work performance are being assessed, or to ensure that staff with complex jobs can be replaced.

In addition to the procedures described above, ICRC looked for fit between the candidate and the organisation, in terms of values or culture. According to the senior managers interviewed they pointed out several advantages to this practice: by looking more broadly than a single job, it may predict an employee's fit to the organisation throughout a number of career steps, and it may better predict retention in an environment where the specifics of the job could change. However, it may be difficult to measure individual values reliably in a selection setting.

4.3.2 Motivation in the workplace

Out of the HR managers interviewed (55%) reported that motivation was a big issue in their organization, compared to other organisations in the same industry. Less than half (44%) of the managers interviewed had policies that dealt specifically with employee motivation. These findings were interpreted to mean that ICRC considered that other policies, procedures and work environment factors created a sufficiently positive employee experience making specific motivation policies unnecessary.

As shown in Table 5, HR managers considered training as the most effective activity for motivating employees. Communication, performance management, benefits and HR planning were all considered "effective", while selection and satisfaction surveys were considered less effective.

Table 5: HR managers' responses to the question "How effective do you consider the following activities in motivating employees?"

HR Activity	Most common response
Selection	50%
Training	95%
Communication systems	80%
Performance management	90%
Job design or redesign	60%
Compensation and benefits	92%
HR planning	85%
Satisfaction surveys	48%

Source : Researcher, 2011

Opinions were divided when HR managers were asked what HR activity they considered the most effective for motivating employees. The most common response (mentioned by 28% of HR managers) had to do with performance management, staff recognition, and financial or other rewards. Communication and consultation, or otherwise involving staff (22%) was another popular response, as was training and giving employee's responsibility for their own development (22%).

The promise of financial rewards is an obvious way to motivate employees to perform well in the workplace. Some managers in the sample offer financial rewards that are linked to company performance, a system encouraging employee commitment to the bottom-line interests of the organisation. While this system is effective in some situations, in many cases employees do not see the direct links between their own efforts and the financial success of the organisation, which can undermine the motivational benefits of the reward. Many of the HR managers interviewed stated that their employee rewards were linked to the results of performance appraisals, a practice that demonstrates more clearly to employees the real benefits of performing well. For example, for some three years running, ICRC offered a quarterly bonus equivalent to 10% of the employee's annual salary. This bonus was awarded using a 'balanced scorecard' system, where employees had to perform well in client relations, teamwork, billing, reliability and attendance, and learning and development.

While many HR managers acknowledged that motivation was an important issue for the organisation, some perceived that - other than financial rewards - there were few "levers" for handling the issue. However, although financial rewards were a valuable tool in the motivation process, many alternative options existed in the organization. These included non-financial rewards, learning and development, goal setting, teamwork, leadership programs, work design and flexibility.

While not every organisation has the resources or the flexibility to offer monetary incentives, many organisations make use of non-financial rewards. Those described by 50% of HR managers in this study included wristwatches, movie tickets, or days off, as well as recognition via awards (with or without ceremonies) or praise in the company newsletter. These rewards were given to employees who demonstrated superior work performance or other positive behaviours, such as consistent attendance, meeting occupational health and safety guidelines, or innovations (e.g. suggesting new policies or work procedures).

60% of HR managers considered learning and development - from formal on-the-job training to support for independent studies - to have motivational benefits. According to the managers, training could motivate employees intrinsically; perhaps by generating interest in learning something new, providing greater sense of achievement, self-efficacy and self confidence from doing one's job better. However, as mentioned by some of the managers, training could have an extrinsically motivating effect, for example if provided as a step towards promotion; employees are often more motivated when their career plans are congruent with their organisation's career opportunities. In either case, motivational benefits, Research, and Practice in Organisational Psychology and HR Management perceptions of procedural justice would be enhanced in the International committee of the Red Cross if they had clear, systematic procedures determining which employees were eligible for which development opportunities at which time periods.

20% of the HR managers described goal setting - either manager-directed goals or goals set collaboratively - as part of everyday motivational practice. Of the cases where goal setting was mentioned, managers usually set goals without getting input from employees. Directed goals have been repeatedly found to be more effective than no goals. However in these cases, employee participation in goal-setting increased employees' beliefs in their ability to achieve the goals, and such participation was likely to be particularly important for complex tasks.

40% of the managers pointed out that they involved their employees in setting some organisational goals through the use of a centre of excellence and a learning and development team, which identified work improvement and learning opportunities and formed strategies to meet those opportunities. Such involvement increased employees' commitment to the organisation's goals, thus increasing effort towards meeting those goals as well as improving work morale and satisfaction.

While direct links to goal setting were mentioned by about 40% of HR managers, many discussed the importance of supportive management, or described feedback and communication as being important for motivation, comments which may have included the communication of individual, team and organisational goals. On the other hand, 30% of the managers reported that feedback was being given to employees on few occasions, such as on a quarterly or less frequent basis. The HR managers interviewed felt that ongoing feedback was not a common practice in ICRC and therefore employees were not given the opportunity to see how well they were meeting set goals, or identify and correct inefficient or inappropriate behaviours, and it therefore did not increase their understanding of the links between their efforts and their performance.

70% of the whole population of the HR managers advised that ICRC should have a link between communication and motivation which may highlight the importance of having clear and open reward systems. The managers further mentioned that when employees have a greater understanding of the procedures that are involved in calculating and allocating rewards, their perceptions of equity, procedural justice and distributive justice are greater, and consequently the rewards have greater motivational effects.

Teamwork was practiced by about 67% of the HR managers which had numerous motivational benefits, such as meeting social needs in the workplace, increasing employee drive to perform in the presence of others, encouraging communication and the opportunity to have a say. 67% of the HR managers commented on the motivational benefits of teamwork. One manager reported that he carried out team-orientation, work performance and group cohesion by getting all employees in his team to vote for a staff member worthy of the monthly "best and fairest" award and it worked almost 100 percent. However, it should be noted that teamwork is not always the best approach to every employee, job, or situation.

Leadership was also another practice of organizational psychology at ICRC in motivating employees. 40% of the HR Managers reported that Leaders and managers in the organization had gone a long way towards making ICRC very motivating or very demotivating. 50% of the managers shared their experience on their application of appropriate use of leadership programs where they found that employees cannot be motivated if their leader is not on their side. They concluded that the better leaders they were the better the working condition and motivation of workers in their team.

35% of HR managers used work design and job redesign methods in their team for increasing employee motivation. By redesigning a job to increase autonomy, skill variety, feedback and other characteristics of good work design, they observed benefits in motivation, productivity and satisfaction of the employees.

25% of the HR managers reported that through observation of their team for the last six years, employee motivation was improved through flexible work arrangements, such as job sharing and tele-working, or opportunities to obtain study leave or organisational support for independent studies. Other practices for the past 6 years by ICRC according to some of the managers interviewed was to encourage employees to join teams that investigate work design issues and propose recommendations for change and improvement.

Finally, it should be recognised that not all approaches to motivation will be appropriate for each sector, industry, organisation, or even for each individual. One HR manager commented that,

"It is important to remember that an effective motivating activity will depend very much on the individual... each manager should take the time to understand what motivates [each] employee..."

4.3.3 Managing Occupational Stress

More than three quarters (65%) of the HR managers sampled had policies that specifically address the issue of occupational stress. These findings were interpreted to mean that International committee of the Red Cross believed that their current policies helped them to handle the potentially serious issue of stress.

As shown in Table 6, only two HR activities considered less than "effective" for managing or preventing occupational stress: job design or redesign, and compensation and benefits.

HR managers who had worked for the organization for more than 6 years rated training as being more effective for dealing with stress than did HR managers who had worked for ICRC for less than 6 years, suggesting that the HR managers who had worked for less than 6 years cast doubt on the perceived long-term value of any training program.

Table 6: *HR managers' responses to the question "How effective do you consider the following activities in managing or preventing occupational stress?"*

HR Activity	Most common response
Selection	7%
Training	18%
Communication systems	10%
Performance management	20%
Job design or redesign	8%
Compensation and benefits	10%
HR planning	15%
Satisfaction surveys	12%

Source : Researcher, 2011

A number of HR managers discussed recruitment and selection practices designed in part to deal with the stress issue. From the findings 45% of HR managers confirmed that the organization at some point had failed to match people to jobs in terms of capability and skills which has been a great source of stress to the employees. Some HR managers reported using realistic job descriptions in recruitment and selection phases, in the hope that setting appropriate expectations will deter those who, if employed, would experience greater stress. Some managers also attempted to assess stress-tolerance or stress resilience, and thus accept people who are less prone to stress. While this is strategy worth investigating, its long-term success has yet to be demonstrated, and since ICRC practices this strategy, it may have to reduce diversity in skills, opinions, attitudes and problem-solving styles.

57% of HR managers commented that they changed their work practices from individual jobs to more team-based work and it created happier, healthier and more supportive work environment at ICRC. However, they also noted that teamwork had its own difficulties, such

as assessing individual performance, problems caused by poor performers, and even the process of implementing the change from individual work to teamwork.

Despite the common response, that communication was the most effective way to manage stress, 30% of HR managers described examples of communication - or communication systems, which they had seen effectively, deal with stress, although doubtless such examples do exist for example, use of notice boards, having weekly departmental meetings and using the internal communication system(computer messaging system). Even fewer HR managers reported such work design issues as control (or autonomy), working hours or workload, or social and organisational supports as potential levers in dealing with work stress

The above findings are promising, given the number of organisations worldwide that do very little to recognise and respond to the issue of occupational stress. In such cases, stressed employees experience little relief from their condition, and may feel ignored, mistreated or even persecuted. This can have serious implications for workforce productivity, absenteeism and turnover, as well as workplace morale

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary of the study findings, challenges encountered and conclusions and recommendations arising. The chapter concludes with the limitation to the study and suggestions for further study.

5.2 Summary

5.2.1 Practice of Organization Psychology

Organisational psychology is a field that utilises scientifically based psychological principles and research methods to identify and solve workplace problems. Organisational psychology practice is dedicated to applying psychology to people in the workplace. The practice of organization psychology tries to understand and measure human behaviour to improve employees' satisfaction in their work, to increase employers' ability to select and promote the best people, and to generally make the workplace better for those who work there. This is done by creating tests and understanding how to evaluate human factors, by designing products such as training courses, selection procedures and surveys and understanding how to evaluate their effectiveness, and by performing a variety of other services.

Majority of managers interviewed had standardised selection procedures for use with new hires. However, one of the few departments without a standard procedure was in the process of designing one, and several HR managers mentioned that their standard procedures had been introduced only recently. This suggests that ICRC are quickly moving towards an environment where it will be expected that all organisations have standardised selection procedures.

In addition to the procedures described above, some managers look for fit between the candidate and the organisation, in terms of values or culture. This approach has several advantages: by looking more broadly than a single job, it may predict an employee's fit to the organisation throughout a number of career steps, and it may better predict retention in an environment where the specifics of the job could change. However, it may be difficult to measure individual values reliably in a selection setting.

Few HR managers described goal setting either manager-directed goals or goals set collaboratively as part of everyday motivational practice. Of the cases where goal setting was



mentioned, managers usually set goals without getting input from employees. Directed goals have been repeatedly found to be more effective than no goals. However, employee participation in goal-setting increases employees' beliefs in their ability to achieve the goals, and such participation is likely to be particularly important for complex tasks. One department pays close attention to collaborative goal setting. Employees are involved in setting some organisational goals through the use of a centre of excellence and a learning and development team, which identify work improvement and learning opportunities and form strategies to meet those opportunities. Such involvement is likely to increase employee commitment to the organisation's goals, thus increasing effort towards meeting those goals as well as improving work morale and satisfaction.

A number of HR managers discussed recruitment and selection practices designed in part to deal with the stress issue. Failure to match people to jobs in terms of capability and skills can be a great source of stress. Some HR managers reported using realistic job descriptions in recruitment and selection phases, in the hope that setting appropriate expectations will deter those who, if employed, would experience greater stress. Some managers also attempt to assess stress-tolerance or stress resilience, and thus accept people who are less prone to stress. While this is strategy worth investigating, its long-term success has yet to be demonstrated, and organisations that practice it may reduce diversity in skills, opinions, attitudes and problem-solving styles.

5.3 Conclusion

Nevertheless, the report does contain many interesting observations. For example, the selection systems used by the organisation we sampled were much more reliable, valid, and fair than would have been the case in the organisation 5 to 10 years ago. The fairest selection system is one that best predicts which candidate will perform best on the job: by applying selection procedures that are consistent with recommendations from organisational psychology research, organisations and employees are both better off today.

It may be of a concern that few senior managers reported policies that specifically address motivational issues, particularly given that HR managers acknowledged that employee motivation is important in a wider sense. While closer analysis may reveal that motivation is handled well in the participating organisation, the results suggest that more work may need to be done in this area. As changes occur more and more rapidly in our workplaces, and as jobs

become more and more complex, the value of individual employees' contributions can only increase. Motivating these employees in an environment of uncertainty is therefore likely to become more important over time.

In conclusion. Organizational psychology practice is a wide field and it has direct significant effects on the overall performance of any organization. Thus, proper understanding of the psychological needs of workers is paramount to increased productivity and performance.

5.4 Recommendations

It is an encouraging finding that ICRC have policies about occupational stress. This may reflect the growing recognition of the impacts of stress on bottom-line concerns for organisations, as well as on the health and wellbeing of individual employees. However, the recommendation is that there is a potential for ICRC to make better use of primary stress interventions through such approaches as work redesign. Job redesign can improve person-job fit by addressing the other side of the equation: fitting jobs to people. Attention to work design can improve motivation by making jobs more interesting and encouraging employees to care about the quality of their work.

Finally, better work design can reduce stress by reducing or eliminating some of the aspects of work that seem to cause stress. Many difficult activities described by our participants, such as developing selection systems, forming teams, setting goals, surveying staff and redesigning jobs, have been undertaken successfully and unsuccessfully in ICRC. Organisational psychologists have researched these processes to learn which practices are effective in which circumstances. Many organisational psychologists apply their knowledge and skills by consulting to organisations or working within HR departments. If HR professionals and organisational psychologists develop stronger links, we will continue to have a positive impact on both employees and businesses.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

Though the study was targeting 10 senior managers of the organisation, only seven managers responded giving it a 70% response as opposed to the intended 100% response. The researcher did not extend the study to establish the practice of organizational psychology in operating delegations like Daresalaam and Djibouti operating in under Nairobi Regional delegation due to time factor.

Some of the HR managers interviewed had some biases especially on issues that directly touched the practice of organizational psychology in their respective teams. For examples issues to do with motivation, occupational stress and training. The managers wanted to potray an image that their teams were the best in the whole organization therefore being biased on some information they gave.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

The practices of organizational psychology were ongoing. It is recommended that a study be carried out in future to evaluate the success of practices of organizational psychology in organisations. It is further recommended that a study be carried out to establish how organizational psychology practices have improved companies' performance within the humanitarian industry. On a wider scope, the same study can be extended to other delegations operating in ICRC worldwide.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Guide for Human Resource Manager

- 1. Do you have a Human Resource management policy?**
- 2. Who are involved in formulation of Human Resource management policy?**
- 3. How is the current HRM policy in regards to the application of industrial psychology practice in human resource management?**
- 4. How do you apply organization psychology practice in selection of employees?**
- 5. How do you apply organization psychology practice in training of employees?**
- 6. How do you apply organization psychology practice in career development of employees?**
- 7. How do you apply organization psychology practice in performance management of employees?**
- 8. How do you apply organization psychology practice in conducting interviews of employees?**
- 9. How do you apply psychology in conducting job analysis of employees?**
- 10. How do you apply psychology in motivating employees?**
- 11. How do you apply psychology in minimizing organizational stress?**
- 12. How do you apply psychology in diagnosing roots of the problem and solving it?**
- 13. What are the challenges faced by your organisation in implementing organisation psychology policies?**
- 14. What are the benefits of applying organisation psychology policies in Human Resource management?**
- 14. How do you deal with counter productive work behaviour?**

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND CONTRIBUTION