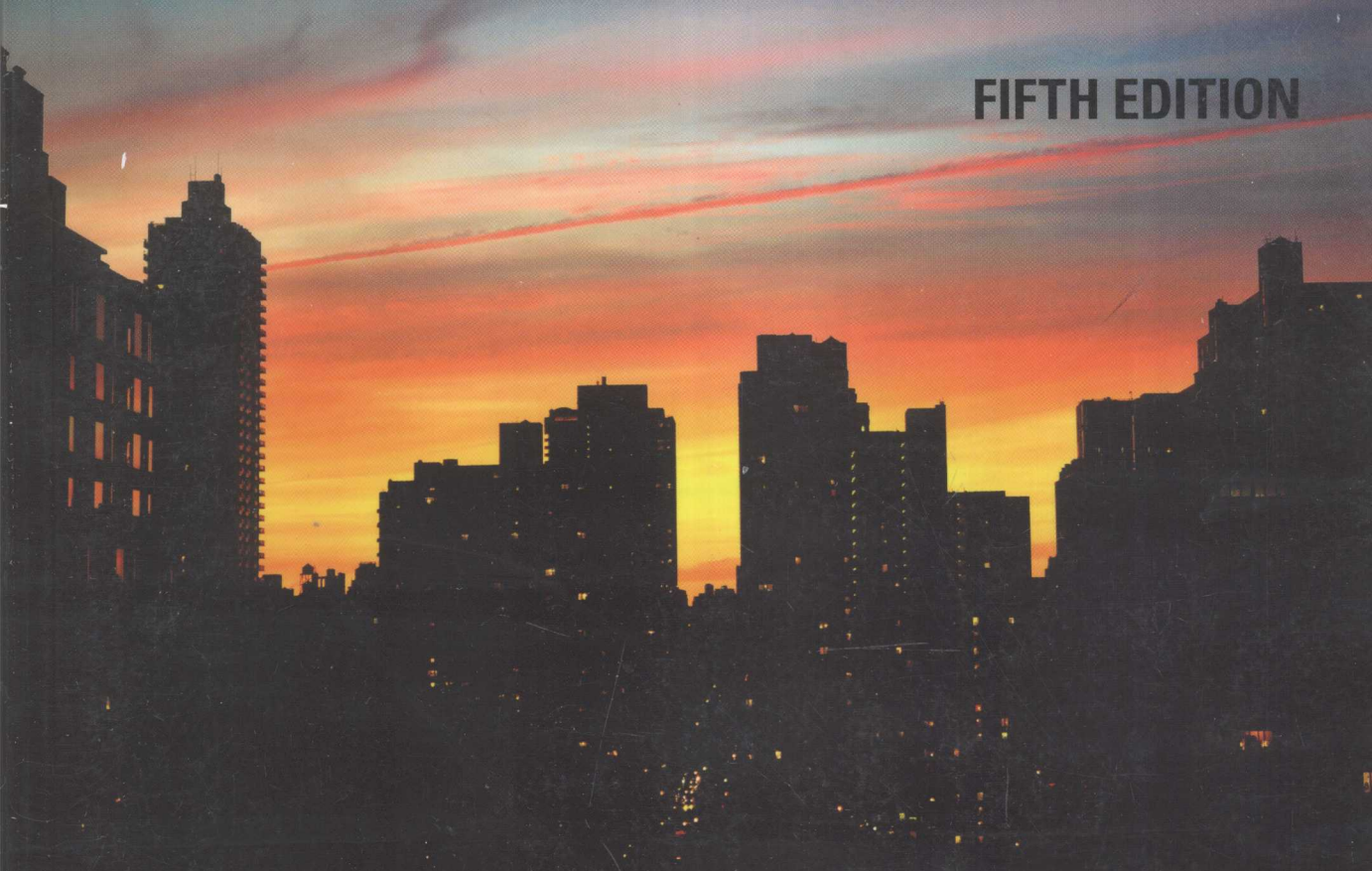

FIFTH EDITION

BUSINESS PSYCHOLOGY and ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

EUGENE McKENNA

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PREFACE

A major objective was to produce a text that would introduce the basic concepts and principles clearly with the emphasis on relevance and applications, but at the same time would not over-popularize the subject. Therefore, every effort was made to write the book in a style likely to engage the interest of the student, drawing on numerous real-life examples and research studies relevant to the world of business. The book takes the reader through individual, group, and organizational/human resource perspectives, while at the same time offering an appreciation of their historical development and methodological issues. The text requires no previous study of psychology or the behavioural sciences. Despite its suitability for use on degree, diploma, professional, and short courses, it can profitably be used by reflective practitioners.

Learning outcomes, chapter summaries, review questions, pointers to additional reading, a comprehensive bibliography, and a glossary are features of the text. Although each chapter is self-contained, the reader will find within individual chapters numerous cross-references. For lecturers who adopt the book, there are online teaching resources, including a companion website, chapter-by-chapter PowerPoint lectures, a multiple-choice test bank, and a set of sample discussions based on selected themes in each chapter.

Particular illustrations of practice and relevant research evidence are contained in numerous "panelled or boxed items" dispersed throughout the book; some of these could be used as mini-cases or vignettes. When important terms are introduced in the text, they are highlighted to indicate their inclusion in the Glossary section at the end of the book.

In this new edition the presentation style and structuring have improved and the text has been revised and updated with expanded and new material, including the following: affective events theory, cognitive evaluation theory and control theory in motivation; attribution theory in perception; storytelling and social media in communication; investor psychology in decision making; employee engagement and positive psychology in attitudes and job satisfaction; corporate memories in culture; life cycle of growing organizations in change and development; technostress and environmental influences in stress; narcissism and hypomania in leadership: emergent trends in selection; and recent debate in occupational psychology.

There has also been a substantial rationalization of the text with a significant rearrangement of material within and between chapters, including the removal of a lot of material on consumer behaviour, human factors in safety, and behavioural aspects of accounting, which were considered inessential, given the evolution of the book.

Finally, I hope I have realized my objective in writing this new edition, and hope the reader finds reading it a pleasant and rewarding experience.

Eugene McKenna

CONTENTS

PART I

PERSPECTIVES AND ENQUIRY

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

HISTORICAL INFLUENCES AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- Assess the role played by psychology in the analysis and solution of organizational problems.
- Draw a distinction between the different traditions or schools of thought in psychology and assess their significance.
- Explain what is meant by the multidisciplinary nature of organizational behaviour, and comment on the standing of psychology as a contributory discipline.
- Examine the different approaches used by theorists and practitioners in the study of organizational behaviour over time.
- Assess the changes in the external environment that have brought about fundamental changes to organizational functioning in recent years.
- Identify the role of research in the social sciences, and examine the significance of the scientific method.
- Examine the different techniques available to the researcher when investigating issues or problems in organizations.

INTRODUCTION

This opening chapter sets out initially to explain the nature of both the psychological and organizational behaviour perspectives. Subsequently, as we reflect on the application of concepts from psychology and organizational behaviour, a historical view will be taken. The final section is devoted to research methodology and this reflects the need to be rigorous and systematic in the way evidence relating to behaviour is collected. Therefore, the discussion will unfold as follows: (1) nature of psychological perspective; (2) nature of organizational behaviour; (3) historical perspective; (4) contemporary issues; and (5) research methodology.

NATURE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

The study of psychology provides valuable knowledge and insights that help us to understand the behaviour of people in business organizations and settings. As a consequence, the manager is provided with pertinent information about human behaviour when faced with human problems in a business and management context. The contribution that psychology has made to the solution of many human problems encountered in business is significant. It has resulted in better management of human resources; improved methods of personnel selection, appraisal, and training; improved morale and efficiency of operations; a reduction in accident rates; and better working conditions.

Despite these claims to success, it should be stated that psychology is not a panacea for all the human problems associated with business. For example, there are occasions when the outcome of the application of personnel selection techniques is less than perfect. Likewise, a programme to raise the level of morale in a company may, for a variety of reasons, fail to meet the expectations of the management, even though the results provide grounds for optimism.

In the study of human behaviour the psychologist is concerned with a repertoire of behaviour that is both observable (such as walking and talking) and unobservable (e.g., feeling and thinking). Animal behaviour has also captured the interest of psychologists.

Different approaches

The development of psychological thought has been influenced by the different traditions associated with the study of behaviour. These traditions are often referred to as "perspectives" or "models of man". The major perspectives can be classified as: (1) the psychoanalytical approach; (2) the behaviourist approach; (3) the phenomenological approach; and (4) the cognitive approach.

Psychoanalysis

The psychoanalytical approach, initiated by Freud, ignores or shows little interest in certain areas of contemporary psychology (e.g., attitudes, perception, learning) because of a prime preoccupation with providing help for neurotic patients. This approach, which is discussed in Chapter 2, gave a major impetus to the early development of modern psychology.

In psychoanalysis, the therapist takes note of what the patient has to say, and perceives emotional reactions and signs of resistance to the treatment. In a discussion with the patient the therapist interprets the information obtained from the analysis session. The central thrust of this approach is that people's behaviour can be investigated in a non-experimental way, that behaviour is determined by some unconscious force, and that behavioural difficulties or abnormalities in adult life spring from childhood.

Behaviourism

Behaviourism is the approach to psychology that is confined to what is objective, observable, and measurable. This approach, which featured prominently in psychology until the 1950s, advocated a scientific means of studying

behaviour in carefully controlled conditions. The use of animals in many behaviourist experiments may be influenced partly by the fact that they are less complicated than humans, with a lower propensity to rely on previous experience when faced with a stimulus. Behaviourism, which is discussed in Chapter 7, provided psychology with a number of valuable experimental methods.

However, the preoccupation with behaviour that can be observed and measured objectively has obvious weaknesses. These are primarily associated with the neglect of the processing capacity of the human brain. Factors such as subjective feelings, expectations, plans, and thought processes are ruled out because they do not lend themselves to scientific analysis in the same way that observable behaviour does. In a sense, behaviourism may be viewed as a mechanistic view of people, with the emphasis on the inputs and outputs from the "machine" but with little regard to the functioning of the internal mechanics.

Phenomenology

The phenomenological approach amounts to a humanistic reaction to behaviourism. In this approach the emphasis is essentially on people's experience rather than their behaviour. For instance, even though on occasions we all share common experiences, each person perceives the world in his or her own distinctive way. Our unique perceptions – and action strategies based on them – tend to determine what we are and how we react. In the process the individual utilizes previous experience, needs, expectations, and attitudes. Finally, in the phenomenological approach, unlike the psychoanalytical approach, unconscious processes are not systematically explored, but it is reasonably effective in treating the less severe mental disorders (Eysenck, 2009).

Cognitive

The cognitive approach, which focuses on the internal mental states and processes of the individual (e.g., perception, learning, memory, and reasoning), has been dominant in psychology since the 1970s and is recognized as a major school of thought. This approach to psychology, which has a fair amount in common with the phenomenological approach, is adopted throughout the book, where a cognitive view is acknowledged (e.g., perception and decision making). It seeks to explain features of human behaviour that are not directly observable.

Cognitive psychologists have made a major contribution to the development of the growing field of neuro-psychology and cognitive neuroscience. Over the last decade there has been a significant amount of activity in cognitive neuroscience. This is the area of cognitive psychology in which brain imagery is used in conjunction with behavioural measures in order to increase our understanding of the cognitive processes associated with doing a particular task (Eysenck, 2009). Cognitive psychology has also made a very useful contribution to the development of cognitive therapy. The latter addresses thought processes connected with anxiety and depression and, when combined with behaviour therapy, forms cognitive behavioural therapy.

Research carried out into the prominence of widely recognized schools in psychology detected the following trends (Robins, Gosling, & Craik, 1999):

- Psychoanalytical research has been initially ignored by mainstream scientific psychology over the past several decades.
- Behavioural psychology has declined in prominence and it gave way to the ascension of cognitive psychology during the 1970s.
- Cognitive psychology has sustained a steady upward trajectory and continues to be the most prominent school.

NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Many of the concepts examined in this book fall within the boundaries of organizational

behaviour, a subject that refers to the study of human behaviour in organizations. It is a field of study that endeavours to understand, explain, predict, and change human behaviour as it occurs in the organizational context (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2010). Apart from the focus on the individual, organizational behaviour is also concerned with the relationship between the individual and the group, and how both interact with the organization. The organization is also subjected to analysis, as is the relationship between the organization and its environment.

The primary goal of organizational behaviour is to describe rather than prescribe – that is, it describes relationships between variables (e.g., motivation and job performance), rather than predicting that certain changes will lead to particular outcomes. An example of a prediction is that the redesign of a job (e.g., job enrichment) in a particular way will lead to an increase in job satisfaction and motivation to work, which in turn will give rise to better performance on the job.

Organizational behaviour, as a social science rather than a natural science, encounters difficulties when identifying, defining, measuring, and predicting relationships between concepts because it deals with phenomena (e.g., the human condition) that are more complex than phenomena that constitute the physical world. It adopts a multidisciplinary perspective, but it should be said that psychology as a discipline makes the greatest contribution. The multidisciplinary perspectives are outlined in Table 1.1. The development of organizational behaviour has been associated with the growth of large organizations over the past century, although a preoccupation with issues related to organization and management has been around for centuries.

The way organizational behaviour is handled by writers of textbooks in this field can differ. Organizational behaviour enjoys a controversial relationship with management practice (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2010), and some books, such as this one, show a tendency to emphasize the practical application of theory while others adopt a managerial perspective. However, the dividing line between the two perspectives is not so clear cut when viewed across the board.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The following are key landmarks in the development of organizational psychology and organizational behaviour: (1) scientific management; (2) classical bureaucracy; (3) principles

TABLE 1.1 Organizational behaviour disciplines

Discipline	Focus
Psychology	Individual, group, organizational development, occupational psychology techniques
Sociology	Organizational analysis
Anthropology	People's relationship with their environment (e.g., culture)
Political science	Activity connected with the acquisition of power, engaging in political activity, existence of vested interests, conflict generation and resolution, coalition formation
Economics	Economic policy, firm as an economic entity, nature of labour markets, human resource planning
Industrial engineering	Time and motion study and work measurement
Medicine	Occupational stress and employee well-being

of organization; (4) industrial psychology; (5) human relations movement; (6) neo-human relations; (7) systems approach; and (8) contingency approach.

Scientific management

In the earlier part of the 20th century a school of thought, known as scientific management, emerged. This major development – initiated by Taylor, Gilbreths, and Gantt – placed emphasis on efficiency and productivity, with the spotlight on the interaction between the person and the job. Frederick Winslow Taylor was the main instigator of this school of thought. He was not a theorist but worked as an engineer in the iron and steel industry. In his time it was normal for workers in this industry to organize their own work. Work gang leaders hired their own crew who worked at their own pace, used their own tools, and knew more about the work than did their supervisors. Taylor felt that workers tended to ease off because they were lazy or they would deliberately restrict output to protect their jobs and maintain generous staffing levels. It was apparent he did not trust workers. He felt the solution to this problem lay in scientific management (Grey, 2009).

The main features of scientific management are as follows:

- Study jobs systematically with a view to improving the way tasks are performed.
- Select the best employees for the various jobs.
- Train the employees in the most efficient methods and the most economical movements to deploy in the jobs.
- Offer incentives (e.g., higher wages) to the most able employees, and use piece rates to encourage greater effort. The piece-rate system of payment provides greater reward for greater effort.
- Use rest pauses to combat fatigue.
- Entrust to supervisors the task of ensuring that employees are using the prescribed methods.
- Subscribe to the notion of job specialization and mass production.

In scientific management managers are expected to manage (i.e., to plan, organize, and supervise) and workers are expected to perform the specified operative tasks. In this approach monetary rewards are considered to have a major motivational impact, although the main exponent of scientific management (Taylor, 1947) believed that his system benefited both employers and employees. He felt his system incorporated an impersonal fairness, that is, a fair wage for a fair day's work. Workers would no longer be dependent upon the patronage of a work gang leader and his system could also create a safer workplace. At that time industrial injuries were a problem and it was felt that if a well-conceived standard way of working was followed it would not only be productive but reduce accidents, and that would appeal to the workers (Grey, 2009). The workers and the embryonic trade unions resisted Taylorism and considered it a form of exploitation.

Other notable exponents of scientific management are the Gilbreths and Gantt. The husband and wife team, Frank and Lilian Gilbreth, are best known for their invention of motion study, a procedure in which jobs are reduced to their most basic movements. Using a clock – called the microchronometer – analysts were able to use time and motion studies to establish the time required to perform each movement associated with the job. Henry Gantt developed a task and bonus wage plan that paid workers a bonus on top of their standard wages if they completed the job within a set time. Gantt also invented the Gantt chart, a bar chart used by managers to compare actual with planned performance. Contemporary work scheduling methods, such as PERT (Programme Evaluation and Review Technique), are based on Gantt's invention (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2010).

Critics felt that scientific management contributed to the de-skilling or degradation of work and a substantial transfer of power

from workers to managers. Braverman (1974), a critic of Taylorism, viewed the scientific management approach as capitalist profit seeking and certainly not fair. With reference to the work of Braverman in this context, the following criticism of Taylorism has been made (Needle, 2010):

The extensive division of labour means that work becomes fragmented, the machine becomes more important than the worker, and control shifts from the skilled worker firmly into the hands of management, whose position is strengthened by their virtual monopoly of knowledge of the work process.

There is further reference to scientific management in the section on job design in Chapter 4. An illustration of Taylor's approach appears in Panel 1.1.

Classical bureaucracy

The classical theorists, inspired to some extent by the work of the German sociologist, Weber, on the ideal bureaucracy, came forward with a blueprint for organizational design. Here the concern was with how to organize effectively large numbers of employees into an overall structure. Weber's model was referred to as legal-rational or bureaucratic organization, and was considered to be technically efficient. The notion of efficiency is still alive in the modern world where emphasis is given to devising the best means to achieve particular ends (Grey, 2009).

The concept of bureaucracy put forward by Weber (1947) is as follows:

- A hierarchy of authority, in which the power to act flows from the apex of the organization to the lowest levels. Office holders react to orders issued by those above them to whom they report.
- Rights and duties are attached to the various positions within the hierarchy, so that employees know what is expected of them.
- Division of labour, in which activity is categorized by function (e.g., production, finance, etc.) and specialization takes place.
- Rules and procedures, which inform employees about the correct way to process

Panel 1.1 Scientific management

The principles of scientific management were tested in an experiment in the Bethlehem Steel Company in the USA in the 1920s, where Taylor was a Consulting Engineer in Management. Taylor observed the work of 75 labourers who were each loading 12 tons of pig iron a day on to railway trucks. Having observed the operation, Taylor was convinced that a really efficient worker could handle between 47 and 48 tons a day. Management disagreed, and felt that a more likely output figure would be somewhere in the region of 18 to 25 tons a day under normal circumstances.

To validate his beliefs Taylor conducted an experiment using a Dutchman who was noted to be strong, industrious, and thrifty with his wages, and asked him whether he wished to earn more money. The worker said yes, and Taylor instructed him to do as he was told and he would be paid according to the amount of work done. He was to give no backchat, neither was he to use initiative. When told to walk, he was to walk; when told to put the iron down, he was to do so; when told to rest, he was to rest. After following this routine, the Dutch worker's level of output was 47 tons per day, and for the three years he was under observation he continued to load this amount and was paid a rate 60% higher than his former wage. The other workers were trained in a similar fashion, but only 9 out of a gang of 75 were capable of meeting the target of 47 tons a day; however, everybody's output rose appreciably.

(Brown, 1954)

information and run the organization, obviate the necessity to exercise judgement and choice (discretion) in the execution of tasks.
- Documentation, in which information is recorded in written form and committed to the organization's memory.
- Technical competence, which amounts to recruiting and promoting individuals who possess the requisite qualifications.
- Separation of ownership from control, whereby those who manage the organization are not those who own it.

du Gay (2000) supports what he refers to as formal rational bureaucracy and believes an important ethic is ingrained in it. Obtaining a job or being promoted does not depend on having attended the same school as your boss or on the colour of your skin. Likewise personal prejudice should not influence the service the customer or client receives from an official.

There have been criticisms of Weber's concept of bureaucracy along the following lines. It is felt that the bureaucracy (the means) becomes more important than the ends (that which the bureaucracy sets out to achieve), that division of labour breeds rigidity, and that there is alienation because people are expected to perform highly specialized tasks without being able to use much discretion. Also, it is said that classical bureaucracy ignores the significance of the informal organization, lacks a human face, and is slow to adapt to change. There is further discussion of bureaucracy in Chapter 14.

Principles of organization

The principles of organization were expounded by practitioners such as Fayol and Urwick. Fayol (1949) considered his principles of organization, listed below, as flexible and adaptable and was of the view that managers could exercise intuition and discretion in the way the principles were used. Urwick (1947) adopted Fayol's principles to guide managerial planning and control (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2010).

- *Purpose* or *objective* of the organization.
- *Hierarchy*, which amounts to the layers of management within the organization.
- *Span of control*, which is the number of subordinates reporting to supervisors and managers.
- *Division of labour* and *specialization*, whereby the organization is compartmentalized by function or activity and this allows members to specialize in very specific activities (e.g., buyer, accountant, etc.).
- *Authority* and *responsibility*, which in the case of authority means the power to act and in the case of responsibility means being accountable for the consequences of one's actions as a member of the organization.
- *Unity of command and direction*, which signifies that direction and control spring ultimately from one source (e.g., the chief executive).
- *Communication*, which is the medium through which information flows up and down the organization and constitutes the lifeblood of the system.
- *Chain of command*, which is the pathway through which superiors issue instructions and advice and subordinates provide feedback on activities for which they are responsible.
- *Coordination*, which is a process aimed at ensuring that the different segments of the organization are pulling together to achieve common objectives.
- *Centralization* and *decentralization*, which relate to the level at which major decisions are taken (i.e., at the top or further down the organization).
- *Definition*, which relates to important issues such as defining duties, responsibilities, and authority relationships within the organization.
- *Balance*, which means getting the balance right between the different parts of the organization.
- *Continuity*, which implies that the organization subscribes to the processes of adjustment and reorganization on a continuous basis.

The criticism levelled at the principles of organization is that they tend to play down the importance of the individual's personality in influencing events internally, as well as the impact of the external environment. There is further discussion of the principles of organization in Chapter 14.

Industrial psychology in the UK

In the early 1920s industrial psychology was established to a greater extent in the UK than in the USA, with notable achievements at both the theoretical and empirical levels (Shimmin & Wallis, 1994). A number of developments are worthy of note. Around 1915 there was an investigation by the Health of Munitions Workers Committee into the poor conditions in munitions factories, resulting in low productivity and increased accidents and absenteeism. A recommendation by the Committee led to a reduction in the hours of work and improvements in heating and ventilation, more canteen and washing facilities, and better health and welfare provision.

Following the success of this initiative, the Industrial Fatigue Research Board (later renamed the Industrial Health Research Board) was established to investigate industrial fatigue and other factors, such as boredom, monotony, and physical conditions of work, that were likely to affect the health and efficiency of workers. By the 1930s the Industrial Health Research Board had a wide remit in its investigations, and activity with a physiological and environmental bias characterized much of its work. For example, projects embraced the following themes: posture and physique; vision and lighting; hours of work; time and motion study; work methods; manual dexterity; rest pauses; impact of noise; atmospheric conditions; effects of the menstrual cycle on performance; staff turnover; accidents; and selection and management training.

In 1921 the National Institute of Industrial Psychology (NIIP) was founded "to promote and encourage the practical application of the sciences of psychology and physiology to commerce and industry by any means that may be found practicable" (Shimmin & Wallis, 1994). It conducted a wide range of investigations. The projects undertaken by the NIIP were as diverse as those undertaken by the Industrial Health Research Board, but vocational guidance was a particular speciality. By the 1940s the NIIP was conducting assignments on job analysis, interviewing, psychometric testing, personnel selection, and of course vocational guidance, and enjoyed high status (Kwiatkowski, Duncan, & Shimmin, 2006).

By the late 1930s industrial psychology tended to be viewed by workers with suspicion and fear because it was felt to resemble scientific management due to its interest in motion study in order to bring about improved working methods; timing of the performance of workers, using a stopwatch, is necessary in motion study, perhaps conjuring up images of Taylor's approach in his scientific management investigations. But it would be a mistake to attribute Taylorism to the work of the early psychologists.

During the Second World War (1939–1945) there were other initiatives closely connected with the war effort. The Tavistock Clinic – a psychotherapy centre – was involved in the assessment and selection of armed forces personnel, and this type of work enhanced the image of industrial psychology among influential people. According to Shimmin and Wallis (1994), a very important psychological innovation in wartime was the introduction of a new style of officer selection by the War Office Selection Boards in 1942, which firmly laid the foundation for modern-day Assessment Centres.

Another worthy event in the development of industrial psychology was the creation of the Applied Psychology Research Unit at the University of Cambridge. This unit was backed by the Medical Research Council and made good use of its accumulated research findings on human skills and performance when called on to analyse tasks related to the military. After the outbreak of the Second

World War, the unit, drawing on its expertise in human skills and performance, engaged in analysis and measurement of unfamiliar tasks such as gun laying, radar surveillance, and the role of pilots in aircraft. This type of work was invaluable in providing a solid basis for future developments, such as work on skills acquisition and man–machine interactions.

More recent developments

Some commentators do not perceive any real difficulty as far as the standing and application of work or occupational psychology is concerned. But over the past decade industrial, work and occupational psychology, despite its popularity, has been at the receiving end of some critical comment (see Panel 1.2).

Panel 1.2 Reflections on occupational psychology

One of the influential members of the occupational psychology fraternity of old, the late Professor Sylvia Shimmin, is reported as saying: one great tradition in occupational psychology was "to give it all away". Services more likely to be delivered by in-house or external occupational psychologists 40 years ago are now delivered by a vast army of non-psychologists. The demand for work/occupational psychology is there and has grown. It is as though chartered/registered occupational psychologists "do not appear to have capitalised from this development, and we do not appear to possess one of the hallmarks of a successful profession: a monopoly of competence" (Rhodes, 2010).

It is said that there is an increasing divide and tension between good, pragmatic, evidence-based psychology, and the popular psychology (high in relevance, but low in rigour) that the business community finds so seductive (Anderson, Herriot, & Hodgkinson, 2001). According to Rhodes (2010), this tension:

is visible in the lack of critical detachment evident in much of current occupational psychology. There seems to be a willingness on the part of occupational psychologists, along with non-psychologists delivering the same services, to promote fads, products and approaches that have very little scientific support. Perhaps in failing to differentiate ourselves we have lost our distinctiveness and our right to respect.

The debate continues and here is a flavour of it from the expression of opinions in *The Psychologist* (2010). Rob Briner is of the view that:

occupational psychology appears to have limited regard for scientific evidence; its dwindling number of academic occupational psychologists produce narrow and hard to apply research, and it is an area of study whose values and identity are in need of renewal.

By contrast, Ivan Robertson is of the opinion that:

occupational psychology provides an unbeatable combination of relevance and challenge to make a practical evidence-based contribution, and has made a significant impact on many people's working lives, and is capable of making contributions of relevance to the wider discipline of psychology.

A complementary view was expressed by Neil Anderson. Taking an international perspective, he says that:

British occupational psychology is held in high esteem, and its historical roots and contributions are well respected. . . . Practice and science in occupational psychology, but especially the science, have become complex, multi-level, multi-faceted, theoretically driven and globalised in recent years. Notable advances in occupational psychology have been made in numerous areas of applied psychology to organisations.