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PROFESSIONAL WORK AND ACTUAL WORK: THE CASE OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGISTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Commerce in Organisational Psychology

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

Signature:..... Date: 23 May 2006

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Abstract

This study focused on specific tasks performed by registered industrial psychologists in South Africa. Links to a web-based questionnaire was sent to industrial psychologists on the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychologists of South Africa (SIOPSA)'s distribution list. Analyses of tasks performed indicate that a small percentage of time is spent performing professional tasks. Industrial psychologists spend most of their time performing a variety of non-professional tasks that people from other disciplines may also perform. Jurisdiction over psychological assessment is also under threat by non-professionals. This implies that industrial psychologists need to decide on and employ various strategies to either forego professional status, or intensify professional status in the workplace to ensure the profession remains a relevant field of practice.

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CHAPTER 1

Literature Review

Introduction

This study aims to highlight the professional tasks of industrial psychologists in South Africa compared to the tasks these professionals actually perform on a daily basis. Currently, issues concerning the relevance of industrial psychology as a profession in South Africa are debated and discussed, although no research of this nature has been published to date. The topic is also of interest to the researcher due to the differences or overlap that exists between the tasks that practising industrial psychologists perform and tasks that people from other disciplines perform. A review of the literature will cover definitions of a profession, the development thereof, the professionalisation of psychology and its professional tasks. The review forms the basis of the investigation into industrial psychology as an institutionalised field of practice, and the professional and jurisdictional tasks of industrial psychologists.

Definitions of a Profession and Professional Development

Defining a profession makes it possible to set a particular profession apart from other occupations (Louw, 1990). Often, questions are asked about what differentiates a profession from an occupation, for example: How can one recognise a profession when one sees it? What are its values? How are they organised? What roles does it play in society?

There have been various studies of professions and the way in which professions develop, or the process of professionalisation. Professionalisation is the series of activities or events that members of occupational groups carry out to achieve professional status. In defining a profession as well as the process of professional development, Louw (1990) describes three traditions, namely the trait approaches, functionalist approaches, and critical studies of professions. These approaches enable understanding of the problems associated with defining professions.

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The trait approaches aimed to describe professions in terms of their unique characteristics. As Louw (1990) describes, various researchers used these approaches in the early to mid-1990s to define professions. According to this approach, a profession's skills, which arise from a fund of knowledge and is organised into a systematic body of theory is what seemed to be the main difference between professional and non-professional occupations. The trait approaches were however criticised on many levels, including that they failed to acknowledge the existence of an interrelationship between various elements in the process of professionalisation (Louw). Another criticism was that these approaches did not consider society as a factor in professionalisation.

The functionalist approaches primarily assumed that professions fulfil certain fundamental needs in society. According to these approaches, the more fundamental the societal need the profession fulfils, the higher the value society places on its services rendered. The goal of professions is therefore to achieve success, which is measured in terms of objective achievements and recognition (Louw, 1990). In this regard, competence, expertise in a specialised field, and ethical behaviour were emphasised. The functionalist approach implied social unity in the use of professional knowledge and experience (Louw). These approaches have also been criticised, due to social unity being very unlikely in most societies. According to Louw, both these approaches do not do well to define professions, but merely specify characteristics of institutionalised forms of occupational control.

A few critical studies arising in the 1960s informed a critical view of the professionalisation process (Louw, 1990). This brought about the inclusion of economic and political dimensions of professions. These dimensions include bureaucratic control in which some professionals are members of two institutions, namely the profession and a corporate organisation. These studies also include critical views of the differences between professions, the professionalisation of different professions, and various institutional arrangements. What was evident from these studies was that the concept of a profession could not be strictly delineated. This was due to varying and contrasting historical developments for different professions and for professions within different countries.

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Abbott (1988) states that a profession is an exclusive occupational group that applies relatively abstract knowledge to human problems. This definition of a profession proves to be adequate, due to the criticisms of the various approaches mentioned above. It is also adequate because the definition follows from theoretical questions, and not from distinguishing groups according to external agendas.

In the process of professionalisation, practical skill or expert service of an occupation is seen to arise from abstract systems of knowledge. The control of the occupation lies in controlling the abstractions that give rise to the practical techniques or skills. Abbott (1988) states that it is this characteristic of abstraction that distinguishes interprofessional competition from competition among occupations in general.

The tasks of professions are tasks relating to human problems, which require expert services (Abbott, 1988). Some human problems may have objective foundations, others subjective foundations, or both. Therefore, the tasks of professions will have objective foundations (for example technological or organisational), but also subjective foundations which may make them vulnerable to change over time. These subjective qualities are theoretically described as the three acts of professional practice, namely diagnosing, inferring, and treating human problems (Abbott).

The activities of other professions can be seen to impinge on these subjective qualities of tasks. Professions are also viewed as making up an interdependent system, within which there is variation in assigning problems to experts (Abbott, 1998). Therefore, although there may be few problems that are in expert hands, for example law, most human problems often shift around in society. The implication of this is that a human problem that was treated by a particular profession at a specific time may in future be assigned to a competing profession. It is in the interest of a profession to retain control over its human problems by claiming specialised knowledge and provision of expert tasks.

In defining the process of professional development or professionalisation it is noted that an all-inclusive definition of the process of professional development is not possible. Louw (1990) therefore concluded, "A definition and a model of professionalisation will be multifaceted and sometimes may be inconsistent and

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ambiguous." (p. 14). According to Abbott (1988), the dispute of who does what kind of work determines the history of a profession.

The Professionalisation of Psychology

The study of the professionalisation of psychology facilitates understanding of how psychology currently operates in society (Louw, 1990).

Up to the 1920s, psychology developed as a profession from the establishment of academic departments at universities, to psychologists studying practical problems. This establishment led to three main fields of application, being clinical, industrial, and educational psychology. By examining the work that psychologists do and where this work takes place, for example in corporate organisations, hospitals, factories, government, private practice, and schools, the complexity of the discipline of psychology becomes evident.

Notwithstanding the importance of the discipline's theory, practice, and application, Louw (1990) uses three levels of analysis to conceptualise psychology's development. These levels of analysis are referred to as changes in society, changes in theory (knowledge and ideologies), and changes in its fields of practice (education, health and labour). In the process of the professionalisation of psychology, these three levels of analysis are connected in a dynamic whole.

Using these levels of analysis, professionalisation applied particularly to psychology is therefore described by Louw (1990) as

> …when members of this occupational group act collectively and strategically to transform a societal domain into a field of institutionalised psychological practice; one in which psychologists are accepted and recognised as having the exclusive right to perform certain socially significant tasks, on the basis of their knowledge and know-how. (p. 14)

Within Louw's (1990) definition there are five elements, namely collective behaviour, strategies, fields of psychological practice, acceptance and recognition, and

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knowledge. Louw investigates these five elements to create an integrated model of professionalisation of psychology within the three levels of analysis mentioned above.

Firstly, with regard to collective behaviour, Louw (1990) indicates that occupational practitioners also have common interests, but that these groups can be thought of as interest groups. The process of professionalisation occurs once members of that occupational group recognise they can protect their interests more effectively by acting as a group and collectivising. One form of collectivism in professionalisation, namely segmentation is described as when "some practitioners decide their occupational interests are not adequately served by the existing form of professional organisation" (Louw, p. 44). A new collective actor is then created which may choose to remain an action group within the original professional group, or they may decide to form an independent new association.

Secondly, in terms of strategies of professionalisation, Louw (1990) indicates that practitioners are able to employ various strategies to create, maintain, and even improve the position the profession finds itself in. Examples of strategies include those involving knowledge and know-how, those directed at tasks performed, recognition, establishing an exclusive right, strategies relating to fields of practice, individual behaviour, collective position of power, and creating possibilities for collective action.

Thirdly, strategies related to the fields of practice may be aimed at influencing the definition of these fields of practice. It may also relate to acquiring autonomy regarding choice of clients, or acquiring autonomy regarding the manner of practice. Psychological fields of practice therefore resulted in practitioners proclaiming a specific service, competence, or specific knowledge. It must be recognised that each field of practice of psychology will have different influences and societal pressures and processes, and may show various processes of professionalisation (Louw, 1990).

Fourthly, professional acceptance and recognition refers to whether or not the public is positively inclined toward the profession (Louw, 1990). Louw describes the process of legitimation, in which psychology seeks to demonstrate the value and validity of its work to others, thereby substantiating its claims to professional status. Within this element of legitimation, Ryan (2003) and Gasser, Butler, Waddilove, and Tan (2004) imply that the field of industrial psychology is not well known or understood by the

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public, partly due to the uncertainty around what distinguishes these professionals from people with comparable training and education.

Fifthly and lastly, in terms of knowledge, it is explained that the tasks that psychology professionals perform are based on a claim to specialised knowledge, presented as scientific knowledge. Psychologists appeal to their scientific knowledge and professional tasks. Universities play an important role in society in making the profession's services and knowledge base recognisable (Louw, 1990). As such, the academic institutions and training requirements have always played an important role in the professionalisation of psychology. The knowledge held by psychology professionals is noted as an important power source, which leads to the appropriation of exclusive control of tasks.

By using definitions of the professionalisation of American, German and Dutch psychology, Louw (1990) defines 13 common dimensions of the professionalisation of psychology. These dimensions include the institutionalisation of psychology as an academic discipline and development of its knowledge. Thereafter, a demand for services in society arose, resulting in the application of this knowledge, which lead to recognition through legitimation and various justification strategies, as described above. Professionalisation also included the regulation of education and academic qualifications and a specified method of certification. Professionalisation included resistance by rival professional groups, as well as various subjective beliefs and motives by members of occupational groups. A code of ethics within a national organisation was established along with growth in numbers of professionals. Dimensions of the professionalisation of psychology, according to Louw also included the personal background of the members of the professional group, as well as the general academic climate of psychology.

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Jurisdiction

To maintain and enhance a profession's position in its field of practice, the profession must be able to provide services to individuals and society in the form of

expert tasks. The link between a profession and its expert tasks is called the profession's jurisdiction (Abbott, 1988) or exclusive right (Louw, 1990).

Psychologists claim jurisdiction over certain tasks on the basis of the profession's specialised knowledge. Psychologists will therefore attempt to establish control over work that they consider to be their own in terms of them having exclusive right over that work. In Abbott's (1988) study, control of tasks or work is seen as a central focus of professions, indicating competition for the control of work. If more than one professional group has relevant knowledge of a specific domain, it may imply that there is competition for control of work by professions (Louw, 1990).

A profession being able to perform skilled acts and cognitively justify them does not mean that the profession has automatically claimed jurisdiction over those tasks. In order to claim jurisdiction, the profession asks society at large to recognise its cognitive structure and its exclusive rights (Abbott, 1988). In their practical application during World Wars I and II, psychologists were required to define their service and claim their exclusive competencies, which were defined as assistance in adjustment in a complex society (Louw, 1990). This once again indicates the importance of including society in professionalisation.

The transformation of psychology's fields of practice involves attempts to establish jurisdiction over specific task areas, for example human problems in industry, or productivity. This could lead to professions competing for certain tasks within an interdependent professional system (Louw, 1990). This competition for control of certain tasks in the interdependent professional system may then lead to jurisdictional disputes.

When jurisdictional claims are made, outcomes take the form of a variety of settlements or solutions. Abbott (1988) describes these as settlements of full and final jurisdiction; settlements by subordination or by division of labour; and intellectual and advisory jurisdiction. These jurisdictional claims become formal and explicit claims within legal or public arenas. A settlement of jurisdiction by client differentiation is also possible, and is one in which professions divide their jurisdictions according to the nature of their clients. In all possible settlements, the goal would be that of full and final jurisdiction.

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A profession's ability to hold jurisdiction depends on its knowledge system, but also in its internal or social nature. Therefore, as Abbott (1988) describes, the more strongly organised the profession, the more effective its jurisdictional claims will be. It is seen that there are various factors that determine how a profession defines and acquires its jurisdiction. As in Abbott's system of professionals, it is important to acknowledge that jurisdiction is more likely to develop in a structured pattern.

Control of tasks is the central organising reality of professional life (Abbott, 1988), and this control is established by competitive claims in various arenas. The three arenas in which these rights can actually be claimed, as explained by Abbott, are the legal system, public opinion and the workplace. According to Abbott, if a profession has established itself in the legal arena, it is usually also accepted by the public. However, in the more informal arena of the workplace, where many different professions are recognised, and where abstract knowledge is transferred and assimilated, a profession's sole jurisdiction is often under dispute. It is within the workplace where the complexity of professional life can be seen to exist, and is where huge diversity within professions has to be recognised. Examples of questions asked in the workplace are the following: Who can control and supervise the work? Who is qualified to do it, and which parts of it? Does the profession face competition in the marketplace for its services, and if so, from whom? Examining the actual tasks that industrial psychologists perform will therefore yield valuable insights into the profession's psychological knowledge, practices, and applications, as well as its relations with other professions and its links with large-scale social forces (Louw, 1990). It is in the workplace where the professional tasks and jurisdiction of industrial psychologists will be investigated.

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Industrial Psychology as An Institutionalised Field Of Practice

Professions are organised in order to act collectively and to be able to compete with other professionals and even non-professionals. In South Africa, industrial psychology has a professional body called the Professional Board for Psychology within the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA). This statutory body has been established in terms of the Health Professions Act 56 of 1974 (hereafter referred to as the

Act). The HPCSA regulates the professional registration and tasks of jurisdictional control of industrial psychologists.

It is known that psychologists study the human mind and human behaviour and that psychology has traditionally been applied to many societal domains. Louw (1990) pointed out that these domains are education, health and labour, and that this domain application resulted in fields or scopes of practice. These scopes of practice, also called specialty areas of psychology (Muchinsky, 2006) are specified by the Professional Board for Psychology as clinical, counselling, educational, industrial, and research psychology (The Health Professions Council of South Africa [HPCSA], 2005, Form 224).

By reflecting on the history of psychology in South Africa, the resulting field of practice of industrial psychology is clearly indicated, specifically through its application during the World War II. Louw (1990) points out however, that even though there were these shifts in emphasis to resultant fields of practice, psychologists never gave up their control in any one field of practice. Instead, they appropriated certain tasks that professionals were uniquely qualified to perform. It is indicated by Richter et al. (1998) that although the different scopes of practice within psychology have firm borders, none of them have statutory legitimacy.

In its broadest sense, industrial psychology has been defined as a profession that is concerned with behaviour in work situations (Muchinsky, 2006). It has also been defined as "the application of psychological principles, theory, and research to the work setting." (Landy & Conte, 2004, p. 6). A more formal definition of industrial psychology is offered by the HPCSA. It states that the scope of practice of industrial psychologists covers the application of the principles of psychology to issues related to the work situation. This is done for the purpose of optimising individual, group, and organisational well-being and effectiveness (HPCSA, 2005, Form 224).

These are very wide definitions and do not aid understanding of what an industrial psychologist actually does, or what an industrial psychologist has sole jurisdiction over. The definitions, being as general as they are, describe acts that any behavioural scientist, human resource practitioner, manager, or consultant may perform. It is acknowledged that industrial psychologists develop and apply scientific knowledge, psychological principles, and research methods (Landy & Conte, 2004) to the work situation to improve

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productivity and the quality of work-life. It has been stated that the principles arising from industrial psychology research are interwoven in management practice, and that the vast majority of people actually practicing industrial psychology are not registered as such (Renecle, 2001).

The fields of industrial psychology generally include selection and placement; training and development; performance appraisal; organisational development; quality of work life; and ergonomics or engineering psychology (Landy & Conte, 2004; Muchinsky, 2006). Quite often industrial psychologists are involved in research or projects dealing with management problems and behaviour at work. They may be involved with management in reorganising the work environment for the purpose of improving productivity or quality of life in the workplace. In many instances, they often act as consultants who are brought in by top management to solve a particular problem in the organisation (de Wolff & Hurley, 1994; Schreuder, 2001).

A question that arises is: What sets an industrial psychologist apart from other human resource practitioners in the workplace? Many industrial psychologists would say that the answer lies in the fact that they use aspects of science and psychology (Gasser et al., 2004). These aspects include applied and basic science, highlighting the scientific method, or the scientist-practitioner model described by Muchinsky (2006). According to de Wolff and Hurley (1994) it can be argued that sociologists and other practitioners are also able to use scientific methods or perform the same tasks as industrial psychologists, without being a registered as such. The study by Gasser et al. also indicates that industrial psychologists believe there is no major difference between tasks they can perform compared to tasks that others with a comparable human resources degree can perform. According to Renecle (2001), a difference between an industrial psychologist and others performing the same tasks is that the functioning of industrial psychology is regulated, whereas others are free from this professional regulation.

In understanding how the tasks performed by these professionals have come to include these tasks, it is useful to reflect briefly on the history of industrial psychology (Katzell & Austin, 1992; Landy & Conte, 2004; van Drunen, van Strien & Haas, 2004). Historical studies of industrial psychology begin with the psychologist, Hugo Münsterberg's impact on the development of industrial psychology. Münsterberg is often

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described as a pioneer in the application of psychology in business and industry, who was highly respected by many of his contemporaries (Landy, 1992). In the period between 1880 and 1913, Münsterberg became one of the first people to measure the abilities of workers and relate those abilities to performance. He applied relatively basic statistics to analyse the results of his studies of industrial effectiveness. The study of "industrial" psychology was therefore devoted to increasing productivity and primarily concerned with economic development.

The importance of the study of differences among individuals as a way of understanding and predicting behaviour was realised by Cattell, an American contemporary of Münsterberg. By 1917, at the time of World War I, Walter Dill Scott and Walter Van Dyke Bingham adapted the Stanford-Binet test for mass group intelligence testing, known as Army Alpha. Mental ability testing subsequently became commonplace in the work setting in private industry, due to the successful testing of army personnel. Appropriately, the workplace became an increasing field for psychological interventions.

At the time of World War II, problems of aircraft accidents became the focus of applied psychologists, and the principles of scientific management became important for reducing fatigue and increasing productivity. This focus resulted in the emergence of human engineering or ergonomics, a sub-field of industrial psychology.

Ability testing and assessment centre techniques became prominent during the war, leading to the importance of personality attributes of workers. In conjunction with the mental ability of workers, Elton Mayo introduced the study of workers' emotions and attitudes at work. Until the 1930s, it was generally accepted that the only significant motivator of effort was money, and that the worker was not of primary importance. At this time, results of the Hawthorne studies resulted in psychologists investigating more complicated theories of motivation and job satisfaction.

An increasing trend toward labour unrest brought about interest in worker attitude surveys. By the 1950s to 960s, employers began to realise that worker interests, attitudes and personality contributed to productivity and workforce stability, bringing with it an influx of new tests for selection. Up until the mid-1960s it is noted that psychological assessment played an important role in the practice of industrial psychology. However,

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most industrial psychologists focused on improving productivity and efficiency and reducing counterproductive behaviour (Landy & Conte, 2004).

The scope of science and practice grew rapidly during the period of 1960 to 1980, to include topics such as job analysis, behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS), and validity and fairness in testing (Katzell & Austin, 1992). Organisational topics during this period also included work motivation and job attitudes. In addition to these topics, this period saw an increased use of cognitive theory in understanding more diverse subjects such as performance appraisal and leadership. During this same period, the focus of attention shifted from individual workers, their jobs, and work groups to properties of organisations and organisational behaviour in open, sociotechnical systems (Katzell & Austin). Therefore, concerns included communication in organisations, conflict management, careers in organisations, organisational influences on individual behaviour, and organisational climate.

During the period of the 1980s to the present, dramatic increases in scope and depth of the topics already mentioned have been witnessed. Rapid growth of the profession and changes in the world of work has seen associated changes in the applied field in the last twenty-five years (de Wolff & Hurley, 1994; Schreuder, 2001). From this brief account of history it is evident that the services and tasks associated with the profession of industrial psychology have changed dramatically since the 1920s.

As van Drunen et al. (2004) indicate, industrial and organisational psychologists, apart from those solely involved in academia and research were able to start finding their place in economic spheres, both within human resource departments, and as external consultants. With the vast growth of industrial psychology in a variety of directions, human resource management is appropriately considered to be one of the areas to which these professionals have focused their attention (Cascio, 1998; van Drunen et al.). Mental ability is only one of a number of important attributes playing a role in the practice of industrial psychology. Many industrial psychologists address issues of productivity and efficiency, as well as issues of worker well being, work-family balance and how employees experience work. While the individual employee is an important level of analysis, the work group, organisation and culture also presents additional levels of analysis to which industrial psychologists focus their attention (Landy & Conte, 2004).

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According to regulation by the HPCSA, registration as an industrial psychologist requires a Masters degree in industrial psychology at an approved university. The Masters degree then has to be followed by an internship of twelve months, which should be approved by the Professional Board for Psychology. The internship must be supervised by a registered industrial psychologist and undertaken at an institution accredited by the Board for Psychology, or may be an individual internship programme performed at a suitable institution. The internship is a fairly lengthy period of training, but one that psychologists claim is necessary due to the complexity of knowledge required for their practice (Louw, 1990). It is clear that registration or licensing of therapists in clinical and counselling psychology is necessary to protect the public from poorly trained professionals. Since industrial psychologists are not health care providers in the same way, licensing in order to protect the public is not as clear (Landy & Conte, 2004). As Landy and Conte indicate, fewer industrial psychologists are registered than clinical or counselling psychologists. This is due to the use of the term "psychologist" being licensed, rather than the work that is actually done as an industrial psychologist. In this way, a human resource consultant may not typically need to hold professional registration to perform tasks.

If one inspects the fields of study of the industrial psychology internship programme, one can gain some insight as to what the professional tasks of registered industrial psychologists may include. These fields of practice are:

- Career psychology
- Organisational behaviour
- Personnel management
- Psychometrics, and
- Optional fields of ergonomics and consumer behaviour.

On completion of the approved twelve-month internship, the Professional Board of Psychology also requires the applicant to pass a Board examination before he or she is able to register as an industrial psychologist. Training of industrial psychologists takes a minimum of six years, although it is common to find trainees who take longer to

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complete the training. These training requirements set industrial psychologists apart from behavioural scientists, human resource practitioners, managers, or consultants. Additionally, specialised knowledge and exclusive right, control of work, or jurisdiction can be seen as elements that should set industrial psychologists apart from these practitioners or non-professionals. The current study aims to ascertain the jurisdictional tasks for industrial psychologists in modern practice.

Professional and Jurisdictional Tasks of Industrial Psychologists

The tasks of industrial psychologists can be seen as representing human problems within the workplace. The acts pertaining to the profession of psychology should be relevant, due to industrial psychology applying the principles of psychology to issues relevant to the work situation.

According to the Act, the acts pertaining to the profession of industrial psychology are:

- The evaluation of emotional, behavioural and mental processes or adjustments of individuals or groups through the interpretation of assessment tools
- Assisting people in the adjustment of personality, emotional or behavioural problems
- Identifying and evaluating personality dynamics and personality functioning according to scientific principles
- The use, control and development of prescribed questionnaires or tests and various techniques or instruments, and
- The use of psychotherapeutic methods, hypnotherapy and any psychological method or counselling to prevent adjustment problems or mental illnesses of individuals or groups (Health Professions Act, 1974).

The Act also specifies penalties for those who practice as a psychologist or as an intern-psychologist or perform certain other acts while unregistered (Health Professions

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Act, 1974). This provides evidence of psychology's jurisdiction over certain acts or tasks claimed in the legal arena.

The psychological acts prescribed by the Act are seen to pertain to the profession of psychology in general and not to any specialised field of practice, for example industrial psychology. This can be explained by the issue that has been raised earlier, that psychology has not given up control in any one field of practice, but rather operates in terms of appropriating certain tasks. Renecle (2001) asserts that many of the activities undertaken by the HPCSA on behalf of psychology are focused on the broader profession and do not have any bearing on industrial psychology. As Louw (1990) has stated, psychology did not relinquish control to any one of the scopes of practice, but retained control of all psychological acts.

It can therefore be argued that these tasks very loosely describe the work that industrial psychologists specifically may perform. This indicates how broad the description of psychological act is for industrial psychologists. The definition of tasks by the Act also indicates that the statutory body may be seen to favour clinicians concerning professionalisation, due to the professional tasks being based on clinical psychology.

In reality, specific scopes of practice appropriated specific psychological tasks for themselves. For example, clinical psychologists emphasise psychotherapy as their task, industrial psychologists focus their jurisdiction on psychological assessment, and counselling psychologists claim counselling as their task. In terms of the Act, however, sole jurisdiction over psychological acts belongs to psychologists and not to a specific sub-group of psychologists. This means that industrial psychologists do not have the benefit of sole jurisdiction, but shares jurisdiction of psychological testing with clinical psychologists.

Appropriating a single task and basing one's professional work on that task may be risky and therefore entails uncertain outcomes. This would be the case if industrial psychology bases its professional work on the single task of psychological assessment. Because of advances in technology, it is now possible for non-professionals across the world to gain access to online psychological tests with the advent of the Internet. There is anecdotal evidence of the widespread use of online pre-employment testing and its acceptance by human resource practitioners in various countries, for example the United

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States of America (Mooney, 2002). This may pose a threat to the professional work of industrial psychologists. As Bartram (2004) and Kersting (2004) have indicated, while there are advantages to online psychological testing, there are also many concerns and drawbacks to its use. Some of these drawbacks include concerns regarding the standards of validity and reliability of online tests, difficulty associated with administration, and test security due to candidates being allowed to take tests at their chosen location. There are also concerns about equal opportunities, unauthorised use of tests, and the lack of provision of feedback from trained psychologists. Despite these and other concerns, many employers are using rigorously designed online pre-employment tests due to the perceived benefits of increased speed, lower cost, ease of updating, and consistency of test materials. Within the system of professions it can be stated that South African industrial psychologists' professional task of psychological testing could be under threat not only by other professionals, but also by non-professionals.

There is also anecdotal evidence that industrial psychologists perform work that reaches far beyond psychological acts. Richter et al. (1998) and Wilson, Richter, Durrheim, Surrendorff and Asafo-Agyei (1999) conducted studies to represent the professional development of psychology in South Africa and employment opportunities for South African psychologists. Data sources used included the register of the Professional Board, central statistical services, a survey of psychology departments' student numbers, and a review of job advertisements appearing in newspapers (Richer et al.). These job advertisements served as a first level indicator of employment trends for graduates in psychology.

Analyses of qualifications specified in advertisements showed that formal educational requirements were not that important, as they were generally not specified. The majority of jobs advertised required graduates with a generalist tertiary qualification, or a broad qualification in the social sciences. It was also found that registration categories did not feature predominantly in the job advertisements, and by implication, shows the nonspecificity in professional categories in the job market at that time. Skills required of psychology graduates were those related to training or teaching, administrative and managerial tasks, numeracy and understanding how to access, analyse and interpret data, and understanding the labour and social environment. Professional

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development of some form at undergraduate level was considered important, considering the vocational skills required of graduates. Richter et al. (1998) and Wilson et al. (1999) found that job advertisements representing opportunities for psychology graduates therefore emphasised generalist skills, rather than narrow, professional skills.

Wilson et al. (1999) imply that applied skills, over purely academic qualifications were more important in the job market. They also found that professional psychologists were not the most highly paid in the employment sector, which was interpreted as "representing a lower demand for the professional as opposed to the generalist graduate." (p. 189). Professional psychology should therefore progress by increasing its relevance in society and, as Wilson et al. state, "if we respond appropriately…psychology will remain contemporary and vital; if we do not, our potential functions inevitably will be filled by others" (p. 190).

Renecle (2001) argues that while industrial psychology is relevant and plays an important role in the economy, the profession of industrial psychology is irrelevant to everyday practice. In his view, this is due to the fact that the vast majority of practicing industrial psychologists are not adequately applying the discipline, and therefore the profession as a whole is becoming increasingly irrelevant for practicing industrial psychologists.

The current study is concerned with the actual work that registered industrial psychologists do. Using Louw's (1990) definition of the professionalisation of psychology and Abbott's (1988) interdependent system, the profession of industrial psychology as a psychological field of practice will be examined. This should be done in terms of societal forces, the profession's abstract knowledge, the tasks it has control over, and its relation to other professions or interprofessional competition. The tasks that industrial psychologists perform will therefore be investigated in the workplace arena, and compared to psychological acts. At this stage it is not clear whether industrial psychologists mainly concentrate on psychological assessment, whether they perform all the psychological acts described in the Act, or whether they perform the same tasks as human resource practitioners and consultants. There is a lack of such evidence, due to research of this nature not having been carried out.

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CHAPTER 2

Method

Sample

An e-mail informing participants of the questionnaire was sent to members on SIOPSA's e-mail distribution list by the chairperson of SIOPSA. Of these members, 245 were reported by the chairperson of SIOPSA to be registered industrial psychologists, and eligible to take part in the study. A total of 129 registered industrial psychologists (52.6%) responded to the questionnaire, of which 43 (33.3%) were men, and 84 (65.1%) were women.

Of the current total population (N = 1062) of registered industrial psychologists in South Africa (according to data received from the Professional Board for Psychology), 52.7% are men and 47.3% are women. In this study, it is noted that women were over-represented when compared to the total population of South African industrial psychologists.

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Measuring Instrument

The researcher constructed a pilot questionnaire outlining all possible work tasks industrial psychologists could perform. This questionnaire was subsequently piloted on a group of three registered industrial psychologists who completed the questionnaire, highlighted any ambiguous questions, and added work tasks that were not originally listed.

It was decided to use an online questionnaire format, due to the nature of the distribution list, as well as the associated advantages of using such a format. These advantages include dramatically decreased response times, lowered cost when compared to traditional pen-and-paper surveys, ease of data entry due to automatic data entry to the data file, flexibility and control over questionnaire format, and recipient's acceptance of the web-based questionnaire format (Granello & Wheaton, 2004).

The online questionnaire consisted of 4 sections (see Appendix for full questionnaire). Section 1 and 2 focused on the tasks that the respondent currently performs in a normal work year. Section 3 focused on industrial psychology as a profession and SIOPSA membership, and Section 4 on personal information.

Section 1 consisted of 42 questions relating to the various tasks. Respondents were requested to indicate whether or not they performed each task as part of their work. Text boxes for any additional tasks not mentioned were also provided in this section. Those tasks then reappeared in section 2, where participants had to indicate the percentage of time they spent annually performing each one of the selected tasks. These numerical responses were normalised in the data file, to reflect a total of 100%. Section 2 also required respondents to indicate whether they thought the task should only be performed by a registered industrial psychologist, or if anyone could perform it. Section 3 consisted of two questions each requiring responses on a 5-point Likert scale relating firstly to the respondent's commitment to the profession of industrial psychology, and secondly to the importance of membership to SIOPSA. Responses ranged from "very unimportant" to "very important". Single measures of commitment and importance rather than multi-item measures were chosen in this section, following Haslam, Oakes, Reynolds and Turner (1999). Both questions in this section also required respondents to provide an explanation as to why they rated the questions in this section the way they did. Lastly, Section 4 consisted of three questions providing information on gender, job title used and sector of employment.

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Procedure

Participants were contacted and requested to participate via a covering letter sent by e-mail. The e-mail explained the purpose and importance of the study, the online questionnaire format, ensured the anonymity of respondents, and clearly provided links to the online questionnaire.

Two weeks after initial contact, a follow-up e-mail was sent as a reminder. Due to the web-based questionnaire format, data were available in a data file for analysis upon completion and submission of the questionnaire by respondents.

CHAPTER 3

Results

Biographical Information

According to biographical information shown in Table 1, 17% of registered industrial psychologists use the title industrial or organisational psychologist. Only 5% of self-employed professionals use the title industrial or organisational psychologist. The use of an industrial or organisational psychologist title can also be compared to 36% of the sample who use a human resource manager or related title.

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Table 1

Respondents' Biographical Information (N = 129)

Biographical variable	*n*	% of sample
Gender		
Men	43	33.33
Women	84	65.12
Missing	2	1.55
Job Title used		
Human resource manager or director	46	35.66
Industrial or organisational psychologist	23	17.83
Consultant (unspecified)	16	12.40
Lecturer or professor	8	6.20
Organisational development manager or consultant	6	4.65
Director or CEO	5	3.88
Miscellaneous title	4	3.10
Researcher	3	2.33
Missing	18	13.95
Sector employed in		
Private sector	71	55.04
Self-Employed	22	17.05
Public Sector	21	16.28
Employed in more than one sector	7	5.43
Non-profit organisation	2	1.55
Missing	6	4.65

Tasks Performed

The tasks, as listed in the questionnaire, were categorised according to tasks relating to psychological assessment, therapy and counselling, human resource management or planning, other human resource management tasks, training, and various interventions and consulting tasks. This was done so that composite frequencies could be created for each task category. Table 2 indicates the percentage of the sample performing each task.

Table 2

Frequency Table for Tasks Performed by Sample (N = 129)

	Respondents performing task	
Task category and task	*n*	% of sample
Psychological assessment		
Administer psychological tests	107	83%
Prepare assessment feedback reports	107	83%
Interpret test findings and provide feedback	115	89%
Develop psychological tests	25	19%
Design and run assessment centres	74	57%
Therapy and counselling		
Provide psychotherapy	24	19%
Hypnotherapy	12	9%
General counselling	86	67%
Career counselling	109	84%
Human resource management or planning		
Facilitate an organisation or department's strategy process	67	52%
Design organisational structure	56	43%
Design competencies for specific jobs	101	78%
Design competency matrix for range of jobs	84	65%
Succession planning	73	57%
Other human resource management tasks		
Recruitment service	67	52%
Selection service	102	79%
Personnel administration service	38	29%
Design human resource policies	66	51%

(*table continues*)

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Table 2 (*continued*).

Frequency Table for Tasks Performed by Respondents (N = 129)

Task category and task	Respondents performing task	
	n	% of sample
Training		
Conduct skills audits	58	45%
Write unit standards for skills training	16	12%
Facilitate, compile and submit skills plan	31	24%
Develop training programmes	78	60%
Facilitate training programmes	95	74%
Evaluate training programmes	64	50%
Assist clients to register as training provider or assessor or moderator	21	16%
Various interventions and consulting tasks		
Employee assistance programmes tasks	52	40%
Assess occupational injury	13	10%
Provide expert testimony with regard to occupational health or injuries	9	7%
Chair grievance and disciplinary procedures	31	24%
Provide mediation services	31	24%
Team building	98	76%
Quality of work-life	62	48%
Organisational development	100	78%
Change management	84	65%
Diversity awareness	66	51%
Interpersonal skills	92	71%
Communication	86	67%
Compensation and benefits	37	29%
Culture or climate surveys	93	72%
Performance management	98	76%
Executive coaching	55	43%
Industrial or organisational research	64	50%

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In cases where respondents added to the tasks not listed on the questionnaire, these tasks were categorised as "other miscellaneous tasks". These tasks were qualitatively analysed and themed according to general management (indicated by 7% of sample), industrial relations or labour relations management or consulting (3.9%),

supervising internship programmes (3%), managing learnership programmes (2%), sales and marketing (2%), teaching or lecturing (2%) and miscellaneous tasks (19%). Other miscellaneous tasks were not included in the analysis of tasks performed, as only 6.1% of the sample listed these tasks as additional tasks on the questionnaire. Other miscellaneous tasks were included in the analysis of the amount of time spent performing tasks.

To indicate the task category most frequently performed by registered industrial psychologists, composite frequencies for the task categories were created (see Table 3).

Table 3

Mean Percentage of Task Category Performed by Sample

Task category	Average Rank	Mean (%)	Standard deviation
Psychological assessment	4.55	66.4	0.26
Human resource management or planning	3.89	59.1	0.33
Other human resource management tasks	3.58	52.9	0.32
Various interventions and consulting tasks	3.31	48.8	0.23
Therapy and counselling	2.94	44.8	0.23
Training	2.72	40.2	0.27

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Approximately two-thirds (66.4%) of the tasks in the psychological assessment category are performed by all industrial psychologists. This indicates that tasks in the psychological assessment category are performed most frequently compared to other task categories.

Analysis of the tasks performed indicates that ten respondents (7.8%) do not perform any of the tasks in the psychological assessment category. A very small percentage (2%) of respondents focus exclusively on performing psychological assessment tasks. Analysis of tasks also indicates that the majority of the sample performs tasks within each task category.

Time Spent Performing Specific Tasks

In Figure 1, time spent performing specific tasks is reflected (note that participants who do not perform the tasks are included as spending 0% of time performing tasks).

Figure 1. Pie graph indicating the percentage of time spent performing task categories by complete sample (N = 129).

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On average, the sample spends the highest percentage of time performing various interventions and consulting tasks (34% of time), followed by psychological assessment (22%). Twenty-eight percent of time is spent performing "psychological acts", or psychological assessment (22%) and therapy and counselling tasks (6%). The majority of time is spent performing other tasks or "non-psychological acts" (72% of time) compared to psychological acts (28%).

By including the respondents who do not perform the tasks in the percentage of time spent as was done above, it is thought that this inclusion could affect the means in this calculation.

Table 4 shows descriptive statistics for percentage of time spent performing each task, which is computed without including those who do not perform the task. In this way, the average percentage of time spent performing each task can be shown. On average, respondents spend a higher percentage of time performing specific psychological assessment tasks than time spent performing specific tasks in other categories (see Table 4).

Table 4

Mean Percentage of Time Spent Performing Each Task

Task category and task	Mean (% of time)	Minimum (% of time)	Maximum (% of time)	Standard deviation
Psychological assessment	6.78			
Administer psychological tests	7.93	0.00	100.00	12.55
Prepare assessment feedback reports	5.81	0.00	25.00	4.92
Interpret test findings and provide feedback	6.44	0.00	31.00	5.54
Develop psychological tests	8.48	0.00	58.82	14.28
Design and run assessment centres	5.23	0.00	24.00	5.41
Therapy and counselling	2.84			
Provide psychotherapy	2.48	0.00	9.90	2.39
Hypnotherapy	1.34	0.00	5.00	1.65
General counselling	3.66	0.00	22.22	3.25
Career counselling	3.87	0.00	55.55	5.73
Human resource management or planning	3.88			
Facilitate an organisation or department's strategy process	4.99	0.00	35.00	6.51
Design organisational structure	2.59	0.00	15.00	2.76
Design competencies for specific jobs	4.57	0.00	30.00	5.04
Design competency matrix for range of jobs	3.45	0.00	15.00	3.03
Succession Planning	3.77	0.00	18.51	3.37
Other human resource management tasks	5.13			
Recruitment service	7.00	0.00	30.00	7.16
Selection service	5.92	0.00	25.00	5.23
Personnel administration services	4.42	0.00	26.04	5.23
Design human resource policies	3.17	0.00	37.03	4.82

(table continues)

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Table 4 (*continued*).

Mean Percentage of Time Spent Performing Each Task

Task category and task	Mean (% of time)	Minimum (% of time)	Maximum (% of time)	Standard deviation
Training	2.92			
Conduct skills audits	2.42	0.00	29.62	4.08
Write unit standards for skills training	3.43	0.00	20.00	5.73
Facilitate, compile and submit skills plan	3.02	0.00	13.11	3.60
Develop training programmes	4.00	0.00	30.00	4.75
Facilitate training programmes	4.10	0.00	25.00	4.25
Evaluate training programmes	1.75	0.00	10.00	1.80
Assist clients to register as training provider or assessor or moderator	1.65	0.00	10.00	2.27
Various interventions and consulting tasks	4.43			
Employee assistance programme tasks	3.30	0.00	30.65	4.78
Assess occupational injury	6.98	0.00	52.63	14.12
Provide expert testimony with regard to occupational health or injuries	10.33	2.00	35.00	11.03
Chair grievance and disciplinary procedures	2.92	0.00	22.22	4.47
Provide mediation services	2.43	0.00	12.94	2.60
Team building	2.91	0.00	15.00	2.90
Quality of work-life	1.79	0.00	5.63	1.42
Organisational development	5.22	0.00	60.00	7.38
Change management	4.32	0.00	21.73	4.12
Diversity awareness	2.90	0.00	28.00	3.86
Interpersonal skills	3.13	0.00	15.15	2.83
Communication	2.54	0.00	10.00	2.34
Compensation and benefits	6.41	0.00	80.00	13.42
Culture or climate surveys	2.93	0.00	10.10	2.72
Performance Management	4.71	0.00	30.00	5.09
Executive coaching	3.36	0.00	10.00	2.88
Industrial or organisational psychology research	8.97	0.00	81.63	14.12

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In Table 5, the average time spent performing each task category is shown. Table 5 differs to the analysis in Figure 1, in that only respondents who perform the tasks are included in the analysis in Table 5.

Table 5

Average Percentage of Time Spent Performing Task Categories

Task Category	% of time			Standard deviation
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	
Psychological assessment	24.88	0.62	100.00	19.75
Therapy and counselling	7.53	0.72	77.77	8.46
Human resource management or planning	13.95	1.00	55.00	10.34
Other human resource management tasks	13.96	1.00	72.91	12.67
Training	11.50	0.62	53.00	9.56
Various interventions and consulting tasks	35.01	1.77	100.00	19.05
Other miscellaneous tasks	18.27	1.63	70.00	17.51

The results show that the majority of time is spent performing various interventions and consulting tasks, and the least time is spent performing tasks in the therapy and counselling category. These averages do not differ significantly from the calculation in Figure 1. It is shown that including those who do not perform the tasks within the categories does not significantly alter the average percentage of time spent performing task categories. This is an indication that on average, respondents perform tasks across all categories.

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Exclusive Right To Perform Tasks

Respondents who perform the particular task were asked to indicate if they think the task should be performed by a registered industrial psychologist, or whether other people should also perform the task. The results are shown in Table 6, indicating that the majority of respondents thought that all nine psychological acts should only be performed by registered industrial psychologists. The majority of respondents also indicated that the following tasks: conducting industrial or organisational psychology research, providing

expert testimony with regard to occupational health or injuries, and selection should only be performed by registered industrial psychologists.

Table 6

Respondents' Views of Tasks That Should Only Be Performed by Registered Industrial Psychologists

Task Category and Task	No. of cases performing task	Only registered industrial psychologist should perform task		Task should be open to anyone to perform	
		No.	%	No.	%
Psychological Assessment					
Administer psychological tests	107	66	61.7	41	38.3
Prepare assessment feedback reports	107	100	93.5	7	6.5
Interpret test findings and provide feedback	115	111	96.5	4	3.5
Develop psychological tests	25	23	92.0	2	8.0
Design and run assessment centres	74	63	85.1	11	14.9
Therapy and counselling					
Provide psychotherapy	24	24	100.0	0	0.0
Hypnotherapy	12	11	91.7	1	8.3
General counselling	86	66	76.7	20	23.3
Career counselling	109	77	70.6	32	29.4
Human resource management or planning					
Facilitate an organisation or department's strategy process	67	15	22.4	52	77.6
Design organisational structure	56	9	16.1	47	83.9
Design competencies for specific jobs	101	44	43.6	57	56.4
Design competency matrix for range of jobs	84	38	45.2	46	54.8
Succession Planning	73	16	21.9	57	78.1
Other human resource management tasks					
Recruitment service	67	8	11.9	59	88.1
Selection service	102	52	51.0	50	49.0
Personnel administration services	38	0	0.0	38	100.0
Design human resource policies	66	6	9.1	60	90.9

(table continues)

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Table 6 (*continued*).

Frequency Table: Respondents' Views of Tasks That Should Only Be Performed by Registered Industrial Psychologists

Task Category and Task	No. of cases performing task	Only registered industrial psychologist should perform task		Task should be open to anyone to perform	
		No.	%	No.	%
Training					
Conduct skills audits	58	13	2.4	45	77.6
Write unit standards for skills training	16	3	18.8	13	81.2
Facilitate, compile and submit skills plan	31	4	12.9	27	87.1
Develop training programmes	78	18	23.1	60	76.9
Facilitate training programmes	95	13	13.7	82	86.3
Evaluate training programmes	64	17	26.6	47	73.4
Assist clients to register as training provider or assessor or moderator	21	4	19.1	17	80.9
Various interventions and consulting tasks					
Employee assistance programme tasks	52	24	46.2	28	53.8
Assess occupational injury	13	5	38.5	8	61.5
Provide expert testimony with regard to occupational health or injuries	9	7	77.8	2	22.2
Chair grievance and disciplinary procedures	31	3	9.7	28	90.3
Provide mediation services	31	3	9.7	28	90.3
Team building	98	41	41.8	57	58.2
Quality of work-life	62	26	41.9	36	58.1
Organisational development	100	47	47.0	53	53.0
Change management	84	41	48.8	43	51.2
Diversity awareness	66	19	28.8	47	71.2
Interpersonal skills	92	33	35.9	59	64.1
Communication	86	17	19.8	69	80.2
Compensation and benefits	37	2	5.4	35	94.6
Culture or climate surveys	93	47	50.5	46	49.5
Performance Management	98	19	19.4	79	80.6
Executive coaching	55	26	47.3	29	52.7
Industrial or organisational psychology research	64	54	84.4	10	15.6

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Professional Commitment and Membership

Professional commitment. Professional commitment was measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (very important). Eighty-six percent of the sample marked 4 and 5 on the scale, indicating that it is important or very important to them to be a registered industrial psychologist (see figure 2).

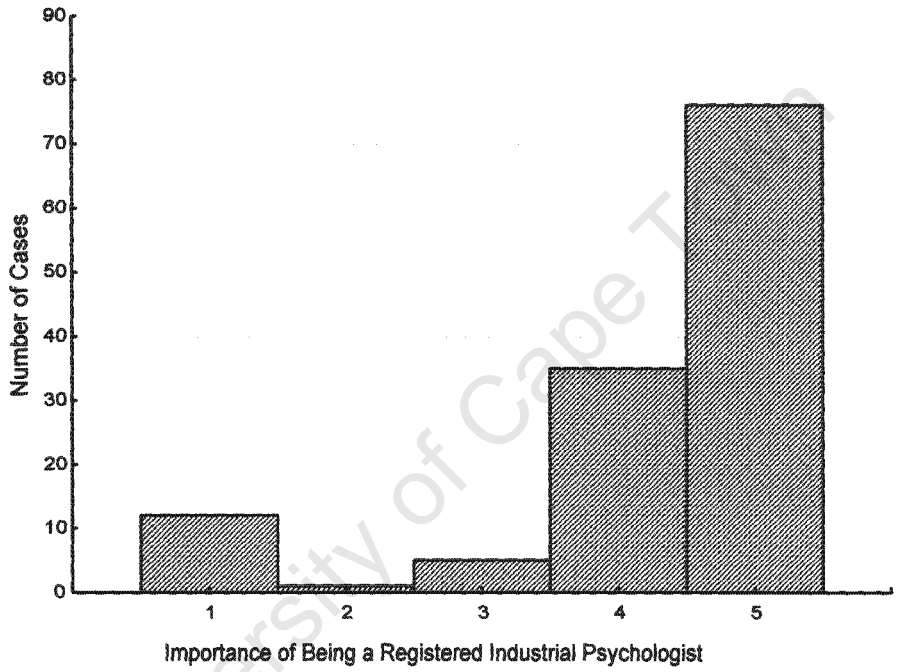

Figure 2. Histogram indicating responses to level of importance of being a registered industrial psychologist on a 5-point Likert scale (N = 129).

Qualitative responses to the reasons for ratings on this scale were themed by the researcher. This analysis reveals that recognition and professional status afforded by registration was the most frequent response (see Table 7). As Table 7 indicates, 85% of the sample indicated that recognition and status, specialisation; credibility or integrity; and regulation by the HPCSA were reasons for importance of professional registration.

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Table 7

Frequency Table for Responses to Level of Importance of Professional Registration (N = 129)

Reason	Number of cases	% of sample
Recognition or professional status	35	27.1
Ability to specialise	31	24.0
Credibility or integrity	26	20.2
Regulation by HPCSA or professional code of ethics	18	14.0
Continuing professional development or career advancement	3	2.3
Skills are currently under-utilised or under-valued	1	0.8
No benefit to being registered	5	3.9
Miscellaneous reasons	4	3.1
No reason given	6	4.7

There were respondents who marked an importance level of 1 or "Very unimportant" on the scale, but whose qualitative responses indicated positive responses to the level of importance. This implies that more than 86% of the sample is committed to the profession. The same is true for responses to importance of SIOPSA membership.

Commitment to SIOPSA membership. Figure 3 indicates the responses to the importance of being a member of SIOPSA on the 5-point Likert scale. The most frequent responses were 3 and 4, where respondents indicated it is "neither important nor unimportant" or "important" to be a member of SIOPSA. Two respondents' values on the scale were missing in the data.

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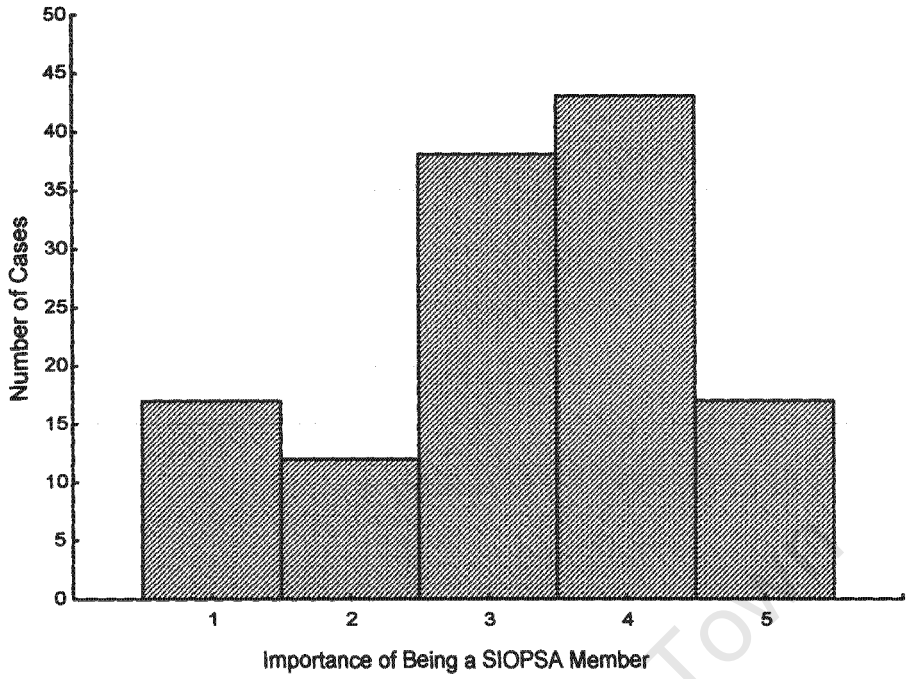

Figure 3. Histogram indicating responses to level of importance of being a member of SIOPSA on a 5-point Likert scale (n = 127).

Analysis of qualitative responses indicate that the most frequent reason given for ratings on the scale was that respondents were not aware of any benefits to being members of SIOPSA (see Table 8).

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Table 8

Frequency Table for Responses to Level of Importance of SIOPSA Membership (N = 129)

Reason	Number of cases	% of sample
Opportunities for networking	26	20.2
Professional and personal development opportunities	30	23.3
Professional representation	9	7.0
Professional credibility	4	3.1
Not aware of any benefit	40	31.0
Miscellaneous reasons	11	8.5
No reason given	9	7.0

There is a weak correlation (r = .38) between commitment to the profession of industrial psychology and the importance of SIOPSA membership. Significance levels of .05 were used for all statistical tests used in this study. This weak correlation is statistically significant, where $p < .05$.

Effect of professional commitment on tasks performed. The relationship between commitment to the profession of industrial psychology and the type of tasks performed (psychological acts vs. non-psychological acts) is shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Comparison of the Level of Importance of Registration and Mean Percentage of Task Categories Performed

Commitment to professional registration	No. of cases	% of psychological acts performed	% of non- psychological acts performed
Not important	13	47.0	41.0
Average Importance	5	60.0	53.3
Very Important	111	57.8	49.8

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The tasks most frequently performed by all respondents, irrespective of the level of professional commitment, are those in the psychological act category. Nonparametric analyses were used because responses were not normally distributed and there were unequal variances across groups. Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA by ranks for percentage of psychological acts performed grouped by professional commitment was not statistically significant, $H(2, 129) = 1.60$, $p = .4490$. The Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA for percentage of non-psychological acts performed grouped by professional commitment was also not statistically significant, $H(2, 129) = 2.77$, $p = .2502$. Therefore, using a significance level of .05, it is shown that professional commitment does not impact on tasks performed.

Gender

To indicate the difference between tasks performed by men and women, a frequency table for the task categories performed by gender is shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Comparison of Mean Percentage of Task Category Performed by Gender

Gender	No.	Psychological assessment	Therapy and counselling	HRM or planning	Other HR tasks	Training	Various interventions & consulting
Men	43	75.4**	48.3	63.7	48.8	39.2	51.4
Women	84	61.4**	42.6	56.4	55.1	40.8	47.3
Missing	2	80.0	62.5	70.0	50.0	35.7	55.9
All groups	129	66.4	44.8	59.1	52.9	40.2	48.8

** $p < .01$.

The only significant difference indicated by Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA is between gender and psychological assessment tasks performed, $H(2, 129) = 12.27$, $p = .0022$. This indicates that men perform significantly more psychological assessment tasks (75% of psychological assessment tasks) than the women in the sample (61%).

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To analyse whether there is a difference in the level of tasks performed by men and women, categories were divided into low-level or more menial tasks, and high-level tasks. The psychological assessment category was divided into the low-level tasks of administration of tests and preparation of reports, and high-level tasks of interpretation and feedback, development of tests, and the design and facilitation of assessment centres (see Table 11).

Table 11

Comparison of Mean Percentage of Low-Level and High-Level Psychological Assessment Tasks Performed by Gender

Task	% of men	% of women
Low-level tasks	88.6	79.8
Administer psychological tests	85.5	81.0
Prepare assessment feedback reports	90.7	78.6
High-level tasks	66.7**	49.2
Interpret test findings and provide feedback	93.0	86.9
Develop psychological tests	32.6	13.1
Design and run assessment centres	74.4	47.6

** $p = .01$.

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Table 11 indicates that there is a significant difference between the high-level tasks performed by men and women. Significantly more men perform these tasks compared to women, $H(1, 127) = 11.08712$, $p = .0009$. There is no statistically significant difference in the low-level tasks performed by gender.

Analysis of job title used indicates that 9 (21%) of men use an industrial psychologist title, compared to 12 (14%) of women who use the same title. More women (41%) use the title human resource manager or director than men (28%), and may account for the difference in type of tasks performed.

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

Biographical Information

With regard to the sectors in which industrial psychologists are employed, the results show that 17% of the sample are in private practice or self-employed, whereas the majority of respondents (55%) find employment in private organisations. From the job titles indicated, it is seen that the most common job title for registered industrial psychologists in South Africa is that of human resource manager or director. A small percentage (18%) of respondents actually use the title industrial or organisational psychologist.

As Anderson, Herriot and Hodgkinson (2001) state, organisations are willing to spend a substantial amount of financial resources on those who claim they can help with employment relationship and organisational performance problems. These authors claim that this expenditure by organisations has seen the rapid growth and high profitability of the consulting sector in recent years. The current study did not directly probe the percentage of industrial psychologists employed as external consultants. However, if the use of the title industrial or organisational psychologist (18% of sample) and consultant (17%) is used collectively to indicate possible employment as external consultants, it can be assumed that external consultants comprise less than 35% of the sample. This all-inclusive group is smaller than those who use a human resource manager or director title. It can be deduced that the majority of South African industrial psychologists are currently finding employment in human resource departments, compared to the amount of those being employed as external consultants. These statistics provide evidence that the majority of industrial psychology professionals are personnel or human resource managers, who are members of two institutions, namely the profession and a corporate organisation.

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Tasks Performed

Most industrial psychologists perform tasks across all task categories used in this study. The highest percentages of the sample perform the following tasks: interpreting test findings and providing feedback (89%), preparing assessment feedback reports (83%), and administering psychological tests (83%). On average two-thirds (66%) of all tasks in the psychological assessment category is performed by the sample. This indicates that the task category performed by most registered industrial psychologists in the sample is psychological assessment.

Apart from psychological assessment tasks, the following single tasks are also performed by more than two-thirds of the sample (tasks are indicated under the relevant task category):

Therapy and counselling

- General counselling
- Career counselling

Human resource management or planning

- Design of competencies for specific jobs
- Offering a selection service

Training

- Facilitation of training programmes

Various interventions and consulting tasks

- Team-building,
- Organisational development
- Interpersonal skills
- Culture or climate surveys, and
- Interventions related to performance management.

Apart from therapy and counselling tasks, the tasks mentioned above can be grouped as subspecialties of industrial psychology. These are: job analysis, selection, training and development, organisational development, quality of work-life, and performance appraisal or management (Muchinsky, 2006). These tasks also fall under the umbrella of applied psychology in human resource management, as they can be

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described as activities orientated around scientific solutions to human problems at work (Cascio, 1998). This is consistent with Landy and Conte's (2004) and Muchinsky's accounts of the most common fields and areas of concentration for industrial psychologists.

Close to 60% of all human resource management category tasks, 53% of other human resource management tasks, and 48% of the services and tasks in the category of various interventions and consulting are performed by registered industrial psychologists in this study. The least performed categories are therapy and counselling tasks and training tasks.

This analysis can be used to indicate that industrial psychologists generally perform tasks across all categories, and do not focus exclusively on one task category. Less than 2% of the sample indicated that they spend all their time performing psychological assessment tasks. This provides evidence that in practice, psychological assessment is by no means the sole task category performed by industrial psychologists today. Although most industrial psychologists perform psychological assessment tasks, they also perform a host of other tasks. This indicates that a relatively small percentage of these professionals make a living in South Africa by performing this one task category.

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Time Spent Performing Specific Tasks

It is important to identify how much time registered industrial psychologists allocate to performing tasks, as time allocation can be used to indicate the focus of their work.

As indicated by the analysis in this study, on average 25% of time is spent performing tasks in the psychological assessment category. This is a substantial amount of time, considering there are seven task categories used in the study. Only 7% of time is spent performing therapy and counselling tasks. Therefore, on average, only 32% of time is spent performing psychological acts. In terms of industrial psychologists claiming jurisdiction over psychological assessment in the workplace, time spent performing psychological assessment will be compared to time spent performing other tasks.

Twenty-five percent of time spent performing psychological assessment indicates that respondents spend three quarters (75%) of their time performing tasks

other than psychological assessment. It is also clear from the results, that the complete sample of industrial psychologists spend 22% of their time on diagnostic assessments, 34% of their time on developing solutions, and the rest of their time on the execution of the execution of the solutions. It is this execution of solutions that people from other professions of occupations can also perform.

Although the majority of industrial psychologists perform psychological assessment, in practice these professionals spend a much higher percentage of time performing tasks outside the psychological assessment category. This indicates that psychological assessment is not the main task performed by industrial psychologists.

Exclusive right to perform tasks

In everyday practice, industrial psychologists are required to provide a wide variety of services to clients, often working in organisations which face problems in rapidly changing environments (de Wolff & Hurley, 1994). It is important to distinguish between industrial psychology as an academic discipline, and industrial psychology as a profession or field of practice (Renecle, 2001). As Renecle states, it is well known that the application of the principles of industrial psychology or human behaviour to the work situation have been interwoven in management practice. This has lead to widespread organisational adaptation to various trends over many years. It is of interest whether in everyday practice, industrial psychologists perform tasks that are significantly different to those who do not have industrial psychology training and registration. Renecle has stated that only a very small percentage of those practicing the discipline of industrial psychology are actually registered as industrial psychologists.

The focus of the current study is the actual tasks that industrial or organisational psychologists perform within the services they provide. Analysis of these tasks is used to gain insight into the domain of tasks that these professionals have exclusive right to perform. It is of interest whether or not boundaries currently exist between the tasks industrial psychologists perform and those that other professionals or practitioners perform, due to specialised knowledge. The respondents have indicated that they should have jurisdiction over psychological assessment and therapy and counselling tasks (or psychological acts). This is due to the majority of those performing these tasks indicating that only registered industrial psychologists

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should have exclusive right to perform these tasks. The majority of respondents also indicate that providing selection services should be the exclusive task of industrial psychologists.

Although it is said that industrial psychologists should have exclusive right to perform these tasks, it is known that in practice, assessment services are offered by human resource consultants, recruitment and other consultants, psychometrists and others outside of the industrial or organisational psychology profession (Anderson et al., 2001; de Wolff & Hurley, 1994; Renecle, 2001). This is also known to be the case with the advent of online psychometric testing provided by business people who do not have any professional obligations (Kersting, 2004; Mooney, 2002).

The majority of respondents indicated that the rest of the tasks they perform, apart from industrial or organisational psychology research and medico-legal work should be performed by anyone and, by their own account, are not reserved exclusively for trained and registered industrial or organisational psychologists. Being registered does not seem to impact on the "other" tasks these professionals perform. As people outside of the profession can perform these other tasks and services, industrial or organisational psychologists are currently found to be competing with people from other disciplines for these tasks. Observable disciplines are business-schooled human resource practitioners, including generalists and specialists, but may also include Masters in Business Administration (MBA) graduates and sociologists who frequently offer practical services similar to those offered by industrial or organisational psychologists (de Wolff & Hurley, 1994). As Ryan (2003) and Gasser et al. (2004) imply, the public is unclear as to what industrial psychology is and how it differs from other disciplines. This uncertainty has lead to the profession of industrial psychology not having a clear identity in the public arena. This would seem to be the case if industrial psychologists in this country by their own account perform a variety of tasks that could be performed by others.

On the other hand, a number of industrial psychologists have indicated that the other or non-psychological tasks they perform (apart from personnel administration services) should not be performed by others, but should be the exclusive task of registered industrial psychologists. What makes these professionals in this study believe that the non-psychological acts they perform require the expertise that industrial psychology training and registration provide? The study by Gasser et al. (2004) indicates that industrial-organisational psychologists have a much greater

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understanding of science and research as well as psychological theories and human behaviour, whereas human resource practitioners are more focused on economic and organisational outcomes. However, several of the industrial-organisational psychologists in Gasser et al.'s study stated that there is no real difference or only a small difference between the two professions.

A dilemma arises because there does not seem to be a clear distinction or boundary between the non-psychological tasks that registered industrial psychologists perform and the tasks that people from other disciplines can perform. It is also acknowledged that the academic subject of industrial psychology as a major subject serves as a prerequisite for the qualification of human resource management practitioners. Specifically, personnel psychology represents an overlap between psychology and human resource management, and is therefore a sub-field within both human resource management training and industrial-organisational psychology training (Cascio, 1998). Schreuder (2001) recognises that the distinction between industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners would probably lie in the various roles they fulfil.

As can be deduced from the findings of this study, the majority of industrial psychologists are taking up the role of human resource managers or directors, or internal consultants, performing tasks that people from both disciplines may perform. These roles can be explained by the idea that since the mid-1980s, the emergence of human resource management could be described as a modern paradigm within industrial psychology (van Drunen et al., 2004). The notion that people should be seen as "human resources" and valued as organisational assets became the central idea of human resource management. The popularity of human resource management lead many companies to many new developments. These developments included policies regarding the management of their personnel and renewed interests in assessment, where outcomes of assessment included concerns with specific personnel developmental prospects. The rise in human resource management also saw growing attention to topics and techniques for increasing motivation or commitment, the psychological contract, identification of values as key factors in person-organisation fit, and tailoring employment arrangements to the needs of individuals (van Drunen et al.). The rise in importance of human resource management concepts in organisations resulted in the prominence of industrial psychologists within human resource departments.

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Today, the management of human resources is generally accepted as one of the key factors of business success. As such, industrial psychologists can be seen to play an important role in human resource management and organisational planning and development (van Drunen et al., 2004).

If industrial psychology as a profession and human resource management are to co-exist, the question relates to how the boundaries of practice should be demarcated. The nature of the tasks that industrial psychologists share with human resource practitioners also calls into question the relevance of the current HPCSA registration and jurisdiction for industrial psychologists. The South African Board for Personnel Practice (SABPP) currently shows intent to apply for statutory recognition for the formal organisation of human resource management as a profession. However, the process of professionalisation of human resource management in South Africa falls beyond the scope of this paper.

There are various strategies that the profession of industrial psychology can employ to ensure its relevance going forward, each with their own set of implications. Industrial psychologists can decide to drop their registration and HPCSA status, and forego control of psychological assessment tasks in organisations. In foregoing their professional status, they could as human resource generalists, either alongside human resource management as a profession, or without the professionalisation of human resource management. One of the problems faced in this scenario is that the role of human resource generalists in most organisations has shifted to line managers.

An alternate strategy is for industrial psychologists to keep their professional status, and continue to work within human resource management departments. In this scenario, the same concern may be raised, in that the responsibility of human resource management has shifted to line managers. Additionally, control of psychological assessment tasks could still be under threat by non-professionals.

A third scenario is for industrial psychologists to intensify their professional status by claiming sole jurisdiction of psychological acts and other specific tasks in the workplace. By doing this, the profession can improve the position it currently finds itself in. To ensure that industrial psychology as a profession is able to differentiate itself from human resource management, it has to do so by means of practice, market and scope (Gasser et al., 2004). Apart from psychological assessment tasks, industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners are currently not clearly differentiated in terms of practice, as the current study indicates. De Wolff and

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Hurley (1994) suggest that it is not practical for industrial psychologists to mark out an exclusive domain and defend it against other disciplines or professions. Instead, industrial psychologists should organise its training programmes better, and offer services to clients in which the emphasis is on uniqueness and excellence. To be able to market the profession, industrial psychologists will need to have a clear understanding of their own identity in order to define themselves as a profession that sets them apart and makes others want to utilise their services (Gasser et al., 2004). In terms of scope, industrial psychologists will need to differentiate themselves clearly in terms of scientific knowledge and the application of their knowledge of psychological theories. This necessitates that industrial psychologists do more in practice to ensure that the results of valid psychological research are applied in organisations (Anderson et al., 2001; Johns, 1998). Doing this will ensure that the scope of tasks these professionals perform become distinguishable from those that other people perform, on the basis of industrial psychologists' knowledge and know-how (Louw, 1998).

In all possible strategies employed, the question becomes one of ideology, in that industrial psychologists hold strong and varying beliefs regarding their profession, their contribution, and the importance of their and professional status.

Professional Commitment and Membership

Professional commitment. Many industrial or organisational psychologists attribute importance and pride to their identity as psychologists (Gasser et al., 2004). Although the single-item measure used in the current questionnaire does not capture the full complexity and comprehensiveness of the commitment construct, it serves as a uni-dimensional indicator of commitment. Most industrial psychologists in the current study display a high level of commitment to the profession, where the level of importance of being registered as an industrial psychologist signifies such commitment.

The most frequent reason for this high level of commitment is the recognition and professional status the distinction of industrial psychologist provides. Other reasons frequently stated were ability to offer specialised skills and knowledge or to specialise, credibility that registration provides, and regulation by the HPCSA. These reasons given by respondents are seen to relate mainly to pride with regard to identity as psychologists, as described above. In terms of ability to offer specialised skills and

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knowledge, this may be seen to relate to psychological acts more than to other tasks, as indicated by responses to who should be allowed to perform the tasks.

Only a small percentage of these professionals indicated that registration is not important to them. The level of professional commitment cannot be used to clearly distinguish between the tasks that non-committed and committed professionals perform. Another reason for this is because the sample generally performs tasks within all task categories.

Commitment to SIOPSA membership. Fewer respondents stated that it was important to them to be members of SIOPSA than being a registered industrial psychologist. Where respondents indicated it was important to be members of SIOPSA, reasons were stated as networking and development. Due to their weak correlation, the indicator of importance of SIOPSA membership is significantly lower than that of importance of professional membership.

The main reason for this difference in importance levels is that most of these professionals are not aware of any benefits of being members of this association. As indicated by de Wolff & Hurley (1994), a large number of industrial or organisational psychologists are now occupying more general positions, performing more general tasks, and therefore hesitating to become members or do not deem it important to be members of professional associations. South African studies also indicate that the market demands generalists, rather than specialists (Richter et al., 1998; Wilson et al., 1999), supporting this line of argumentation. Lack of importance of SIOPSA membership may therefore be related to the type of positions held and tasks performed. There is no conclusive evidence in this study to support this statement. It could also be related to the recent dispute and subsequent court case SIOPSA had with the Psychological Society of South Africa (PsySSA) regarding divisions in the profession. There is also no significant difference between the types of task categories performed and importance of SIOPSA membership.

Gender

The only significant difference between the tasks that males and females perform is within the psychological assessment category, where males perform more psychological assessment tasks than females do. This may be due to the difference in

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the type of position held, where a higher percentage of women occupy human resource manager or director title then men, which may have an impact on the type of tasks they perform in those positions.

In terms of the difference between gender and the level of tasks performed, no significant difference can be shown between the low-level tasks that men and women perform. The only finding having significance is the difference between high-level psychological assessment tasks performed, providing an indication that in general, industrial psychologists who are men perform more high-level tasks than women (Abbott, 1988). It cannot however be inferred that on average, men perform high-level tasks, and women perform the low-level tasks.

Conclusion

It is in the interest of the profession of industrial psychology to retain control over its tasks by claiming specialised knowledge and the provision of expert tasks. It is within the workplace where the professional tasks and jurisdiction of industrial psychologists were investigated in this study.

It is accepted that industrial psychology as a field of practice currently has jurisdiction, or exclusive right to perform psychological assessment and other psychological acts relating to the workplace. In terms of industrial psychology's specific jurisdictional task of psychological assessment, evidence suggests that this task is by no means the sole task performed by industrial psychologists in South Africa. The actual tasks that these professionals perform include a wide variety of tasks falling outside of this jurisdictional task. This is supported where evidence suggests that industrial psychologists are spending the majority of their time performing tasks outside of the psychological assessment category.

The descriptive study indicates that the majority of tasks performed by industrial psychologists are those that other people, specifically human resource practitioners may perform. As respondents have indicated, more than one group has relevant knowledge to perform these tasks. It has been stated that human resource management is a modern paradigm within industrial psychology (van Drunen et al. (2004). Industrial psychologists cannot currently claim exclusive right over these tasks, and this implies that there is competition for control of work between the two groups. In order for industrial psychology as a profession and human resource

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management to co-exist, there should be clear boundaries between tasks that the two groups perform. It is proposed that industrial psychology as a field of practice will need to employ strategies to ensure its relevance.

Alternative solutions industrial psychologists are faced with include intensifying professional status, or dropping professionalisation. Intensifying professional status implies maintaining psychological assessment as a professional task, and claiming sole jurisdiction over tasks performed. This scenario implies that the other tasks industrial psychologists perform also should be professionalised. This option entails problems in claiming jurisdiction over non-psychological acts in various arenas.

Dropping requirements of registration and professional status entails de-professionalising the task of psychological assessment, and working as human resource generalists within human resource departments. This option also poses problems due to line managers taking responsibility for the management of human resources in most organisations.

These alternatives, with their associated problems for the profession of industrial psychology is likely to result in professional or general academic debate, which falls beyond the scope of this paper.

Though the majority of these professionals are committed to the profession, industrial psychologists will need to have a clear understanding of their own identity in practice, in order to clearly define themselves and offer unique services to make others want to utilise their specialised services. It is required that the training and registration of industrial psychologists be organised in such a way that industrial psychologists are able to visibly offer services which are differentiated from those that people from other disciplines perform.

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Appendix

Format of Online Questionnaire Constructed by the Researcher

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Dear Industrial Psychologist,

The Section of Organisational Psychology at the University of Cape Town is conducting research into the work of registered Industrial Psychologists. Your participation in this research is important, as there is a lack of knowledge about modern professionals in this area.

We would be particularly grateful if you would complete the research questionnaire which can be found at the following link: http://survey.cs.uct.ac.za/WIP. The user-friendly electronic format will ensure the time taken to complete the questionnaire is no longer than 10 to 15 minutes. If for some reason you cannot access the questionnaire (e.g. the server may be down), please can we ask you to try again later.

The questionnaire has received approval from the University's ethics committee to ensure strict compliance with international norms and confidentiality requirements. Your response will therefore be saved anonymously in a data file - you will not be able to be identified in any way, and only aggregate trends will be reported.

Should you require any further information, please feel free to contact Joi Benjamin via e-mail: joi@worldonline.co.za

To access this questionnaire now, please click on the link: http://survey.cs.uct.ac.za/WIP

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Joi Benjamin
Masters Organisational Psychology
University of Cape Town

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The Work of Industrial Psychologists

Purpose of this questionnaire:

We would like to gain a better understanding of the work that Industrial Psychologists do. Your contribution to this research is important, as it will help us to update our knowledge about modern professionals in this area.

Participation and Confidentiality:

Your response to this questionnaire will remain strictly confidential. There are no known risks or dangers to you associated with this study. The researchers will not attempt to identify you with the responses to your questionnaire, or to name you as a participant in the study, nor will they facilitate anyone else's doing so. Your responses will be saved automatically in a data file to ensure that all participants remain anonymous.

General Instructions:

This questionnaire consists of four (4) sections. Section **1** deals with the job tasks that you currently perform, Section **2** with the percentage of time you spend performing these tasks and who you think should perform them, Section **3** with the profession of Industrial Psychology and Section **4** with personal information

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IT SHOULD TAKE YOU NO LONGER THAN 15 MINUTES TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

START QUESTIONNAIRE

If nothing happens when you click 'START QUESTIONNAIRE' you may need to enable JavaScript
To find out how to do that with **Microsoft Internet Explorer**, click here.
To find out how to do that with **Mozilla Firefox**, click here

Section 1: Job Tasks - Part 1 of 3

Please indicate which of the following tasks you currently perform by clicking yes or no.

Tasks	I perform this task	
A) Psychometric Assessments		
1.1) Administer psychological tests.	○ Yes	○ No
1.2) Prepare assessment feedback reports.	○ Yes	○ No
1.3) Interpret test findings and provide feedback to clients.	○ Yes	○ No
1.4) Develop psychological tests.	○ Yes	○ No
1.5) Design and run assessment centres / behavioural assessment procedures.	○ Yes	○ No
B) Therapy		
1.6) Provide psychotherapy to individuals or groups.	○ Yes	○ No
1.7) Make use of hypnotherapy.	○ Yes	○ No
C) Counselling and Coaching		
1.8) Provide general counselling to individuals/groups.	○ Yes	○ No
1.9) Provide career counselling.	○ Yes	○ No
1.10) Provide executive coaching.	○ Yes	○ No
D) Strategic Interventions		
1.11) Facilitate an Organisation / department's strategy process.	○ Yes	○ No
E) Human Resource Planning		
1.12) Design an Organisational structure for restructured / new departments.	○ Yes	○ No
1.13) Design competencies for specific jobs.	○ Yes	○ No
1.14) Design a competency matrix for a range of jobs.	○ Yes	○ No
1.15) Succession planning.	○ Yes	○ No

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Section 1: Job Tasks - Part 2 of 3

Please indicate which of the following tasks you currently perform by clicking yes or no.

Tasks	I perform this task	
F) Recruiting and Selection		
1.16) Provide a recruitment service	Yes	No
1.17) Provide a selection service	Yes	No
G) Training and Development & Skills Development		
1.18) Conduct skills audits	Yes	No
1.19) Write unit standards for skills training	Yes	No
1.20) Facilitate, compile and submit a skills plan	Yes	No
1.21) Develop training programmes	Yes	No
1.22) Facilitate training programmes	Yes	No
1.23) Evaluate training programmes	Yes	No
1.24) Assist clients to register as training provider / assessor / moderator	Yes	No
H) Organisational Health		
1.25) Perform tasks associated with Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs)	Yes	No
1.26) Assess occupational injury	Yes	No
I) Forensic / Medical-Legal Work		
1.27) Provide expert testimony with regard to occupational health/ injuries	Yes	No
J) Industrial / Labour Relations		
1.28) Chair grievance and disciplinary processes	Yes	No
1.29) Provide mediation services	Yes	No

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Section 1: Job Tasks - Part 3 of 3
Please indicate which of the following tasks you currently perform by clicking yes or no.

Tasks	I perform this task	
K) Consulting and interventions in the area of:		
1.30) Team building	Yes	No
1.31) Quality of work-life	Yes	No
1.32) Organisational Development (OD)	Yes	No
1.33) Change management	Yes	No
1.34) Diversity awareness	Yes	No
1.35) Interpersonal skills	Yes	No
1.36) Communication	Yes	No
1.37) Compensation and benefits	Yes	No
1.38) Culture / Climate surveys	Yes	No
1.39) Performance management	Yes	No
L) Administration		
1.40) Personnel administration services	Yes	No
1.41) Design Human Resource policies	Yes	No
M) Research		
1.42) Conduct commissioned Industrial / Organisational Psychology Research	Yes	No
N) Other tasks not mentioned		
1.43)	Yes	No
1.44)	Yes	No
1.45)	Yes	No
1.46)	Yes	No
1.47)	Yes	No

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Section 2: Percentage of time spent performing tasks (Page 1 of 1)

1) The list of tasks that you perform (as you indicated in Section 1) will be listed below. For each task, please indicate the average percentage of time spent performing those tasks during the past year.

2) For each task you perform, please indicate if you think the task should be limited to registered Industrial Psychologists, or if it should be open to anyone to perform by clicking the corresponding option.

	During the past year I spent the following % of time performing this task	Only a registered Industrial Psychologist should perform this task	This task should be open to anyone to perform
Total time indicated so far	%		
2.1) Administer psychological tests	%	○	○
2.2) Prepare assessment feedback reports	%	○	○
2.3) Interpret test findings and provide feedback to clients	%	○	○
2.4) Develop psychological tests	%	○	○
2.5) Design and run assessment centres / behavioural assessment procedures	%	○	○
2.6) Provide psychotherapy to individuals or groups	%	○	○
2.7) Make use of hypnotherapy	%	○	○
2.8) Provide general counselling to individuals/groups	%	○	○
2.9) Provide career counselling	%	○	○
2.10) Provide executive coaching	%	○	○
Total time indicated so far	%		

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Section 3: The Profession of Industrial Psychology (Page 1 of 1)

Please rate how important the following statements are to you.

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very Important
3.1) It is important to me to be a registered Industrial Psychologist	○ 1	○ 2	○ 3	○ 4	○ 5
3.2) Please explain why you rated Question 3.1 the way you did.					
3.3) It is important to me to be a member of SIOPSA	○ 1	○ 2	○ 3	○ 4	○ 5
3.4) Please explain why you rated Question 3.3 the way you did.					

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Section 4: Personal Information (Page 1 of 1)

Please provide answers to the following questions.

4.1) Gender	○ Male ○ Female
4.2) Job title (if you use one)?	
4.3) Employed in (check all appropriate):	☐ Private Sector ☐ Public Sector ☐ Non-profit Organisation ☐ Self-employed

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