

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING AND ASSESSMENT

HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING

The Beginning of Intelligence Testing (1905) - In 1905, **Alfred Binet** and **Theodore Simon** created the first intelligence test in France.

Why was it created?

France had just made education free and mandatory. Some children struggled in regular classrooms. The government needed a way to:

- Identify children with learning difficulties
- Provide special instruction
- Promote fairness in education

Important Clarification:

Binet emphasized: The test measures school-related abilities, NOT a person's total intelligence or worth.

Example: If a child cannot understand reading instructions appropriate for their age, the test helps determine whether:

- They need special education support
- They simply need more practice

Expansion of Psychological Testing

Psychological tests became popular worldwide. During **World War I** and **World War II**, tests were used to:

- Classify soldiers
- Assign roles (combat, clerical, technical)
- Identify leadership potential

Example: A recruit with high mechanical reasoning may be assigned to engineering work.

The IQ Score

The IQ concept was developed by **William Stern**.

Stern's Warning:
He warned against:

- Labeling people permanently
- Using IQ to justify discrimination
- Treating scores as measures of human value

Key Insight: An IQ score reflects performance under specific conditions — not a person's full potential.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING VS. PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

A. Psychological Testing - A structured procedure used to measure specific psychological traits using standardized tools.

What Does "Standardized" Mean?

- Same instructions
- Same scoring system
- Same testing conditions

This ensures fairness and comparability.

What Does Testing Measure?

- Intelligence
- Personality traits
- Aptitude
- Interests
- Attitudes

Example: A student takes an aptitude test for college entrance.

- **The result:** 92nd percentile in verbal reasoning.
- That is TESTING, It gives a score

Important Characteristics:

- Focused on measurement
- Produces numerical scores
- Limited interpretation
- Requires training in administration

B. Psychological Assessment - A systematic process of collecting, integrating, and interpreting data to understand a person fully. Testing is just ONE part of assessment.

What Does Assessment Include?

- Tests
- Interviews
- Observations
- Case history
- Behavioral data
- Records review

Example: A psychologist evaluating a child for ADHD may:

1. Give attention tests
2. Interview parents
3. Observe classroom behavior
4. Review academic records
5. Talk to teachers

After integrating all data → diagnosis and recommendations.
That entire process = ASSESSMENT.

Testing	Assessment
Measures	Evaluates
Produces scores	Produces understanding
Narrow	Comprehensive
Minimal judgment	High professional judgment

VARIETIES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

Therapeutic Psychological Assessment

Purpose: Helps clients understand themselves and promote healing.

Example: A client with anxiety learns through testing that:

- They have high perfectionism

- They fear failure excessively

The insight itself promotes change.

Educational Assessment

Purpose: Determine academic strengths and weaknesses.

Example: A student struggles in math. Assessment reveals:

- Strong verbal intelligence
- Weak working memory

Recommendation:

- Use visual learning aids
- Provide step-by-step instructions

Retrospective Assessment

Purpose: Evaluate past psychological state.

Common in:

- Legal cases
- Disability claims

Example: Was a defendant mentally competent at the time of a crime?

Remote Assessment

Purpose: Conduct assessments using digital platforms.

Example: Online psychological evaluation via video call.

Advantages:

- Accessibility
- Convenience

Risks:

- Identity verification
- Internet issues

Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA)

Definition: Real-time data collection in natural environments.

Example: A depression app asks: "How do you feel right now?" 5 times per day. This reduces memory bias.

APPROACHES IN ASSESSMENT PROCESS

1. Traditional Assessment

- Expert-driven
- Client is passive
- Feedback given at the end

Used in:

- Clinical diagnosis
- Employment screening

2. Collaborative Assessment

- Client actively participates
- Goals discussed together
- Feedback given throughout

Benefit: Increases client understanding

3. Therapeutic Assessment

- Assessment itself is therapeutic
- Promotes insight and self-growth

Example: Discussing personality results helps client recognize unhealthy patterns.

4. Dynamic Assessment

Focuses on:

- Learning potential
- How much improvement occurs with guidance

Example: A child initially struggles with math. After hints and teaching, it improves significantly. This shows strong learning capacity.

TOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

1. TEST - A measuring device for psychological variables.

Important Terms:

- **Score** – Numerical result (e.g., 85%)
- **Raw Score** – Original score before adjustment
- **Scaled Score** – Adjusted score for comparison
- **Cut Score** – Passing/failing point
- **Reliability** – Consistency of results
- **Validity** – Accuracy of what the test measures
- **Psychometrics** – Science of psychological measurement

Example: A board exam uses a cut score of 75% to determine who passes.

2. INTERVIEWS - A structured conversation to gather information.

Types:

- Clinical Interview
- Educational Interview
- Forensic Interview
- HR Interview
- Panel Interview
- Motivational Interviewing

Important:

- Includes verbal and nonverbal behavior.
- Quality depends on interviewer skill.
- Rapport is crucial.

Example: A job interview assessing communication skills.

3. PORTFOLIOS - Collection of real work samples.

Used In:

- Art
- Teaching
- Business
- Media

Example: A graphic designer presenting artwork for employment.

Advantages: Authentic and Shows growth over time

Limitation: Can be subjective

4. **CASE HISTORY DATA** - Records related to an individual.

Examples:

- School records
- Medical records
- Social media posts
- Employment history

Purpose: Provides background context.

5. **BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATION** - Systematic watching and recording of behavior.

Types:

- Structured (planned setting)
- Naturalistic (real-life setting)

Example: Observing a child's interaction in a playground.

6. **ROLE-PLAY TESTS** - Simulated "as if" scenarios.

Example: Practicing conflict resolution in leadership training.

Limitation: May not fully reflect real-life complexity.

7. **COMPUTER-BASED ASSESSMENT** - Computer Adaptive Testing (CAT), Adjusts difficulty based on performance.

Benefit: More efficient and More engaging

Computer-Assisted Psychological Assessment (CAPA) - Computer helps professionals interpret data.

Benefits:

- Faster scoring
- Reduced human error

Internet Testing Risks

- Cheating
- Identity fraud
- Security risks

Important: Online testing ≠ full psychological assessment.

PARTIES IN THE ASSESSMENT ENTERPRISE

Assessment involves:

1. Test Developers
2. Test Users (psychologists)
3. Testtakers
4. Society

Ethical Responsibilities

Professionals must:

- Select appropriate tests
- Follow standardized procedures
- Provide accommodations

- Maintain confidentiality
- Interpret responsibly

Testing = Measurement

Assessment = Comprehensive Evaluation

Reliability = Consistency

Validity = Accuracy

Cut Score = Decision point

Professional Judgment is essential

Ethical use is mandatory

TEST DEVELOPERS & PUBLISHERS - Psychologists and researchers who design and produce psychological tests.

They:

- Create test questions (items)
- Pilot test them on sample populations
- Study reliability (consistency)
- Study validity (accuracy)
- Establish norms (comparison standards)
- Write detailed test manuals
- Distribute tests ethically

Example: A company develops a new depression inventory.

Steps:

1. Write 100 possible questions.
2. Test them on 1,000 people.
3. Remove unclear or biased questions.
4. Study if scores are consistent over time.
5. Compare results with clinical diagnoses.
6. Publish the final 40-item version.

Why Their Role Is Critical:

If developers fail:

- The test may be biased.
- It may produce inaccurate results.
- It may unfairly label people.

TEST USERS

Who Are They?

- Psychologists
- School counselors
- HR professionals
- Military evaluators

They must:

- Choose the correct test
- Administer it properly
- Follow standardized procedures
- Score accurately
- Interpret results responsibly

Example: An HR manager selecting a leadership test must:

- Ensure it measures leadership (not personality unrelated to job)
- Avoid cultural bias
- Follow legal guidelines

Improper interpretation can harm careers, education, or mental health.

TESTTAKERS (ASSEES) - The individuals being evaluated.

What Affects Their Performance?

Performance is influenced by:

- Anxiety
- Fatigue
- Language barriers
- Motivation
- Cultural background
- Health conditions

Example: A bilingual student may score low on a verbal IQ test not because of low intelligence, but because English is not their first language.

Key Insight: A test score does NOT automatically equal ability.

SOCIETY AT LARGE

How Society Influences Assessment:

Society shapes:

- Laws
- Ethical standards
- Educational systems
- Hiring regulations

Example: Anti-discrimination laws affect how employment tests are used.

OTHER PARTIES

Includes:

- Researchers
- Test scorers
- Reviewers
- Marketing teams
- Institutions

They ensure:

- Quality control
- Public trust
- Scientific integrity

MAJOR SETTINGS AND PURPOSES OF ASSESSMENT

Assessment occurs in many environments.

1. EDUCATIONAL SETTING

- Identify learning disabilities
- Determine class placement
- Measure academic achievement
- Evaluate giftedness

Example: A child struggling with reading undergoes assessment.

Findings:

- Average intelligence
- Weak phonological processing

Conclusion: Reading-specific intervention needed.

2. CLINICAL SETTING

- Diagnose mental disorders
- Plan treatment
- Evaluate risk
- Assess competency

Example: A psychologist evaluates depression severity before starting therapy.

3. COUNSELING SETTING

- Career exploration
- Adjustment problems
- Personal development

Example: A student unsure about a career takes an interest inventory.

4. GERIATRIC SETTING

- Detect dementia
- Monitor cognitive decline
- Evaluate daily functioning

Example: Memory testing in elderly patient to rule out Alzheimer's.

5. BUSINESS & MILITARY

- Hiring decisions
- Promotions
- Leadership assessment
- Training placement

Example: Selecting pilots based on cognitive and motor skill tests.

6. GOVERNMENT & CREDENTIALING

- Licensing professionals
- Certification exams

Example: Board exams for doctors or psychologists.

7. COURTS & LEGAL SETTINGS

- Competency evaluations
- Criminal responsibility
- Custody decisions

Important Case: Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals Established standards for admissibility of expert testimony.

HOW ASSESSMENTS ARE CONDUCTED

BEFORE TESTING

Key Responsibilities:

- Choose appropriate test
- Check reliability & validity
- Ensure proper materials
- Prepare testing environment

Why This Matters: Wrong test = wrong conclusion.

DURING TESTING

Responsibilities:

- Establish rapport
- Follow standardized instructions
- Provide quiet environment
- Avoid giving hints

Example: If the examiner explains items differently to each person → results become invalid.

AFTER TESTING

Responsibilities:

- Score correctly
- Interpret in context
- Write clear report
- Provide feedback ethically

Special Populations

Accommodations May Include:

- Extended time
- Braille versions
- Sign language interpreters

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Ancient China - Imperial examinations (Sui dynasty) selected government officials.

Tested:

- Law
- Agriculture
- Literature
- Archery
- Strategy

Early example of merit-based system.

Charles Darwin - Introduced natural selection.

- **Key idea:** Individual differences matter for survival.

Francis Galton - Inspired by Darwin.

Contributions:

- Questionnaires
- Correlation
- Anthropometric Laboratory
- Self-report inventories

He measured physical and mental traits scientifically.

Wilhelm Wundt - Founded the first psychology lab. Focused on reaction time and perception.

James McKeen Cattell - Coined term “**mental test.**” Studied individual differences.

Intelligence Testing Movement

Alfred Binet & Theodore Simon - Created the first intelligence test in 1905.

David Wechsler - Developed adult intelligence scales.

- **Defined intelligence as:** Global ability to act purposefully, think rationally, and deal effectively with the environment.

Personality Testing

Robert S. Woodworth - Developed first self-report personality inventory.

PROJECTIVE TESTS - a type of psychological test where a person **responds to ambiguous or open-ended stimuli**, like pictures, words, or situations. The idea is that **people “project” their own thoughts, feelings, and personality onto what they see or imagine.**

How It Works

- The test shows ambiguous images, shapes, or scenarios.

- The person’s responses, stories, or drawings are analyzed to understand their hidden emotions, motives, or conflicts.

Example: Rorschach Inkblot Test

Person interprets ambiguous inkblots → reveals unconscious processes.

CULTURE AND ASSESSMENT

What Is Culture?

Shared system of:

- Values
- Beliefs
- Behaviors
- Norms

Culture affects:

- How people communicate
- How they view authority
- How they express emotion

Cultural Bias in Testing - Early tests excluded minorities from norm groups.

Example: Question about “buying bread” unfamiliar to children from tortilla-eating cultures.

Modern Cultural Sensitivity Includes:

- Diverse sampling
- Statistical bias analysis
- Independent review panels
- Representative census-based norms

Individualist vs Collectivist Cultures

Individualist: Emphasize independence

Collectivist: Emphasize group harmony

Impact: Dependent traits may be normal in collectivist societies but seen as problematic in individualist ones.

LEGAL AND ETHICAL ISSUES

Types of Discrimination

1. **Discrimination** - Unfairly favoring the majority group.
2. **Reverse Discrimination** - Unfairly favoring minority groups.
3. **Disparate Treatment** - Intentional discrimination.
4. **Disparate Impact** - Unintentional but systematic exclusion.

Important Laws

- Civil Rights Act (1964)
- Uniform Guidelines (1978)
- Truth-in-testing laws

Expert Witnesses - Psychologists may testify in court. Judges determine admissibility using the Daubert standard.

TEST USER QUALIFICATIONS

APA Levels:

- **Level A:** Basic achievement tests.
- **Level B:** Require technical psychology knowledge.
- **Level C:** Complex tests requiring advanced training.

Important: Testing ≠ Assessment. Assessment requires professional expertise.

RIGHTS OF TESTTAKERS

Informed Consent - Test Takers Must understand:

- **Purpose**
- **Use of results**
- **Who sees results**

Right to Feedback - Results must be explained clearly.

Confidentiality & Privacy

- **Confidentiality:** Information protected outside court.
- **Privilege:** Legal protection in courtroom.
- **Exceptions:** If risk of harm exists.

Least Stigmatizing Label. Avoid harmful labels. Historical misuse of labels caused psychological damage.

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Psychologists must:

- Safeguard data
- Maintain competence
- Update knowledge
- Respect diversity
- Follow evolving ethical standards

Psychological assessment is:

- Scientific
- Ethical
- Culturally aware
- Legally regulated
- Professionally controlled

It requires:

- ✓ Knowledge
- ✓ Judgment
- ✓ Responsibility
- ✓ Cultural sensitivity
- ✓ Legal awareness

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: PAP CODE OF ETHICS

THE 2022 CODE OF ETHICS FOR PHILIPPINE PSYCHOLOGISTS AND PSYCHOMETRICIANS

The **Code of Ethics** is a guide that tells psychologists and psychometricians **how to behave properly and responsibly** in their work.

- It helps make sure they **treat people fairly, safely, and with respect**.
- The Code is built on **4 main principles** and **specific rules** that guide daily practice.

The **Universal Declaration of Ethical Principles for Psychologists** is a guide that helps psychology practitioners (like psychologists and psychometricians) decide **what is right and fair** when working with people.

It reminds them that:

- Psychology affects **real lives**
- Their work happens inside a **society and culture**

- The **well-being of people always comes first**, not money, fame, or personal interests

In the Philippines, psychology practitioners follow these principles to make sure they act **responsibly, respectfully, and ethically**.

Why Ethics Is Important in Psychology

Ethics helps psychologists:

- Protect people from harm
- Treat everyone fairly
- Build trust with clients and the public
- Use psychology to **help society**, not hurt it

In simple terms: **Ethics is the moral compass of psychology**.

Important Reminder About These Principles

- These principles are **general guides**, not strict rules
- They must be applied **based on culture, laws, and local values**
- What matters most is the **spirit of doing good and avoiding harm**

THE FOUR MAIN ETHICAL PRINCIPLES

PRINCIPLE I: "RESPECT FOR THE DIGNITY OF PERSONS AND PEOPLES - EVERY PERSON HAS VALUE AND WORTH, NO MATTER WHO THEY ARE.

Psychologists must respect:

- Individuals
- Families
- Groups
- Communities
- Cultures and traditions

All people deserve respect. No exceptions.

Important Values Under This Principle

1. **Respect for every person** - No discrimination based on gender, culture, status, ability, etc.
 - **Example:** A psychologist treats a client with a disability with the same respect as any other client.
2. **Respect for diversity and culture** - Different cultures have different beliefs—and that's okay.
 - **Example:** A psychologist respects indigenous practices as long as they do not harm people.
3. **Informed consent** - People must clearly understand what they are agreeing to.
 - **Example:** Before therapy starts, the psychologist explains what will happen and asks permission.
4. **Privacy and confidentiality** - Personal information must be kept secret.
 - **Example:** A psychologist does not share a client's problems with friends or on social media.
5. **Fairness and justice** - Everyone must be treated equally and fairly.

- **Example:** Clients are not favored just because they are rich or famous.

6. **Respect for the environment** - A healthy environment supports human dignity.

- **Example:** Supporting mental health programs related to disaster recovery.

PRINCIPLE II: COMPETENT CARING FOR THE WELL-BEING OF PERSONS AND PEOPLES - Psychologists should **help people properly and safely**.

- **Do good, avoid harm, and know your limits.**

Important Values Under This Principle

1. **Do no harm** - Never intentionally hurt clients.
 - **Example:** Not giving advice beyond one's training.
2. **Maximize benefits, minimize harm** - Help as much as possible, harm as little as possible.
 - **Example:** Choosing a therapy approach that best fits the client's needs.
3. **Be competent** - Psychologists must be trained and skilled.
 - **Example:** A psychologist refers a client to another professional if the case is beyond their expertise.
4. **Self-awareness** - Know how personal beliefs and experiences affect decisions.
 - **Example:** A psychologist recognizes personal bias and avoids letting it affect treatment.
5. **Applies to online services too** - Ethics still apply in online therapy (telepsychology).
 - **Example:** Keeping online sessions private and secure.

PRINCIPLE III: INTEGRITY - PSYCHOLOGISTS MUST BE **HONEST, TRUTHFUL, AND TRUSTWORTHY**.

- Be honest and don't take advantage of people.

Important Values Under This Principle

1. **Honesty and transparency** - Give accurate and clear information.
 - **Example:** Not exaggerating qualifications or results.
2. **Avoid bias** - Stay fair and objective.
 - **Example:** Not letting personal opinions influence assessments.
3. **Avoid exploitation** - Never use clients for personal gain.
 - **Example:** Not using client stories for fame or money without permission.
4. **Avoid conflicts of interest** - Personal interests should not affect professional judgment.
 - **Example:** Not counseling a close friend or romantic partner.

PRINCIPLE IV: PROFESSIONAL AND SCIENTIFIC RESPONSIBILITIES TO SOCIETY - PSYCHOLOGY SHOULD BE USED TO **HELP SOCIETY AS A WHOLE**.

- **Psychology exists to improve lives and communities.**

Important Values Under This Principle

1. **Contribute knowledge** - Psychology should help people understand themselves and others.
 - **Example:** Research on stress management during disasters.
2. **Use knowledge responsibly** - Psychology should not be misused.
 - **Example:** Not using psychological techniques to manipulate people.
3. **Promote ethical practice** - Encourage ethical behavior among professionals.
 - **Example:** Teaching ethics to psychology students.
4. **Proper training and supervision** - New psychologists must be guided properly.
 - **Example:** Interns being supervised by licensed professionals.
5. **Be self-correcting** - Admit mistakes and improve.
 - **Example:** Updating practices when new ethical concerns arise.

GENERAL ETHICAL STANDARDS AND PROCEDURES

What are Ethical Standards?

Ethical standards are **rules that guide psychologists** on how to act properly, fairly, and responsibly.

- They exist to **protect clients, students, research participants, and the public**, and to keep the profession trustworthy.
- Doing the right thing, even when no one is watching.

I. RESOLVING ETHICAL ISSUES: How psychologists deal with ethical problems

1. **Misuse of a Psychologist's Work** - If someone **uses others' work wrongly or twists its meaning**, they should try to fix it.
 - **Example:** A psychologist's research is shared online but the results are exaggerated. The psychologist corrects the misinformation.
2. **Conflict Between Ethics and the Law** - If ethics and the law clash:
 - First, try to **respect both**
 - If impossible, **follow the law**

Example: A court orders a psychologist to release records. Even if confidentiality is important, the law must be followed.
3. **Conflict Between Ethics and an Organization** - If the workplace asks a psychology professional to do something unethical:
 - Tell them about the **Code of Ethics**

- Stay committed to ethical rules

Example: A company asks you to change test results. You refuse and explain ethical rules.

4. **Informal Resolution of Ethical Violations** - If another psychologist makes a mistake:

- Talk to them **privately first**, if safe and appropriate

Example: You notice a colleague posting client stories online. You remind them about confidentiality.

5. **Reporting Ethical Violations** - If someone may be seriously harmed:

- Report the issue to authorities
- **Except** if reporting breaks confidentiality rules

6. **Cooperating with Ethics Committees** - If an ethics investigation happens:

- Cooperate honestly and fully

7. **Improper Complaints - Do not:**

- File false complaints
- Force others to complain
- Ignore facts

Ethical complaints must be **truthful and supported by evidence**.

8. **Fair Treatment in Complaints** - Do not punish or discriminate against:

- People who file complaints
- People who are accused

Everyone deserves **fair treatment**.

II. COMPETENCE - Knowing your limits and doing your job well

1. **Boundaries of Competence** - Psychologists must:

- Work **only in areas they are trained for**
- Be licensed (as required by law)

Example: A psychologist trained in counseling should not perform clinical diagnosis without proper training.

2. **Referrals** - If you're not qualified:

- Refer the client to someone who is

Example: A child needs specialized therapy. You refer them to a child psychologist.

3. **Emergencies** - In emergencies:

- Help if no one else is available
- Stop once proper help is accessible

Example: You give basic emotional support during a crisis, then refer the person to a hospital.

4. **Maintaining Competence** - Psychologists must:

- Keep learning
- Attend trainings (CPD)

This ensures skills stay **updated and effective**.

5. **Scientific Judgment** - Decisions must be based on:

- Research
- Evidence
- Professional knowledge

Not guesses or personal opinions.

6. **Delegating Work** - When giving tasks to others:

- Make sure they are capable
- Inform clients
- Avoid conflicts of interest

7. **Personal Problems** - If personal issues affect your work:

- Seek help
- Reduce or stop work if needed

Healthy psychologists help better.

III. HUMAN RELATIONS - How psychologists treat people

1. **No Discrimination** - Never discriminate based on:

- Gender, age, culture, religion, status, etc.
- Everyone deserves **equal respect**.

2. **No Harassment** - Psychologists must not:

- Sexually harass
- Bully
- Demean others

3. **Avoiding Harm** - Always try to:

- Prevent harm
- Reduce harm if unavoidable

4. **Multiple Relationships** - Avoid having **more than one role** with a client if it causes harm.

Example: You should not be someone's therapist **and** close friend.

5. **Conflict of Interest** - Do not accept roles where:

- Personal interests affect judgment

Example: You shouldn't assess someone you're financially involved with.

6. **Third-Party Requests** - If someone else requests services:

- Clearly explain who the client is
- Explain confidentiality limits

7. **Informed Consent** - Clients must:

- Understand what they are agreeing to
- Know risks, benefits, and limits

This applies to **therapy, assessment, and research.**

8. **Service Interruption** - Plan ahead for:

- Illness
- Internet problems
- Relocation

Clients should not be abandoned.

IV. CONFIDENTIALITY - Keeping information private

1. **What is Confidentiality?** - It means **protecting client information.**

Example: Client files should be locked or password-protected.

2. **Limits of Confidentiality** - Confidentiality is not absolute. It may be broken when:

- Required by law
- Someone is in danger

Clients must be informed **beforehand.**

3. **Recording Sessions** - You must:

- Ask permission before recording
- Explain how recordings will be used

4. **Sharing Information** - Only share:

- What is necessary
- With authorized people

No unnecessary details.

5. **Using Information Publicly** - Do not share identifiable client info in:

- Classes
- Research
- Social media

Unless consent is given or identity is hidden.

V. ADVERTISEMENTS & PUBLIC STATEMENTS - Being honest in public

1. **No False Claims** - Do not:

- Exaggerate success
- Promise cures
- Misrepresent qualifications

2. **Respectful Communication** - Public statements should be:

- Accurate
- Respectful
- Clear about facts vs opinions

3. **Social Media Ethics** - Psychologists must:

- Avoid offensive jokes
- Avoid attacking others
- Act professionally online

4. **Testimonials** - Do not ask clients for testimonials because:

- Clients may feel pressured

VI. RECORDS & FEES - Handling documents and payments properly

1. **Records** - Records help:

- Continue care
- Support research
- Ensure legal compliance

They must be **accurate and secure.**

2. **Fees**

- Explain fees early
- Do not mislead clients
- Do not withhold records during emergencies due to unpaid fees

VII. ASSESSMENT - Psychological testing and evaluation

Key Rules:

- Use valid and updated tests
- Get informed consent
- Explain results in simple language
- Protect test materials

Example: A psychologist explains test results to parents using everyday words.

VIII. THERAPY - Providing psychological treatment

Important Points:

- Confidentiality is essential
- Consent must be given freely
- Client well-being comes first
- No sexual relationships with clients
- Maintain professional boundaries

IX. EDUCATION & TRAINING - Ethics in teaching and supervision

Psychologists must:

- Teach accurately
- Respect students' privacy
- Avoid romantic or sexual relationships with students
- Evaluate fairly

X. RESEARCH - Ethics in scientific studies

Core Principles:

- Respect participants
- Get informed consent
- Allow withdrawal anytime
- Avoid harm
- Do not falsify data
- Give proper credit
- No plagiarism

Example: Participants can leave a study without punishment.

I. Overview of the Law

ARTICLE I. Title

What is Republic Act No. 10029?

- This law is called the **Philippine Psychology Act of 2009**.
- Its main purpose is to **regulate the practice of psychology in the Philippines**.

In simple terms: It sets rules on **who can call themselves a psychologist, who can offer psychological services, and how psychology professionals should be monitored**.

Why this matters: Without this law, anyone could claim to be a psychologist—even without proper training—which could harm clients.

ARTICLE II. Statement of Policy (Why the Law Exists)

What does the government believe? The State believes that:

- Psychologists play an **important role in helping people and building the nation**
- Psychology has **many specializations**, and each has different responsibilities
- The public must be **protected from untrained or unqualified individuals**

Main goal of the law: To make sure psychologists are:

- **Competent** (skilled and knowledgeable)
- **Ethical** (morally upright)
- **Well-trained and licensed**
- **Globally competitive**

How will this be done?

- Through **licensure exams**
- Through **rules and regulations**
- Through **continuous professional growth**

Example: If someone is dealing with depression or trauma, this law ensures they are treated by a **properly trained and licensed psychologist**, not a random person claiming expertise.

ARTICLE III. Definition of Important Terms

A. Psychology - Psychology is the **scientific study of human behavior**.

It looks at:

- How people think (thoughts)
- How people feel (emotions)
- How people act (behavior)

It studies behavior from different angles like:

- Biological (brain, body)
- Cognitive (thinking, memory)
- Emotional
- Social and cultural
- Personality differences

Example: Studying why students feel anxious during exams or how childhood experiences affect adult behavior.

B. Practice of Psychology - The practice of psychology means **providing psychological services** to help individuals or groups function better.

It includes three main areas:

1. **1. Psychological Interventions** - These are activities that help improve mental and emotional well-being, such as:
 - Counseling
 - Psychotherapy
 - Coaching
 - Psychological debriefing
 - Group sessions

Example: A psychologist helping a student manage stress through counseling sessions.

2. **Psychological Assessment** - This involves:

- Collecting information about a person
- Using tests, interviews, and tools
- Understanding abilities, personality, emotions, and motivations

Purpose: To make informed decisions before giving treatment.

Example: Giving an IQ test or personality test to understand a client better before therapy.

3. **Psychological Programs** - This refers to:

- Planning and designing psychological services
- Implementing and evaluating mental health programs

Example: Creating a school-based mental health program for students experiencing anxiety.

C. Psychologist - A psychologist is:

- A **registered and licensed person**
- Holds a **valid certificate and professional ID**
- Authorized to provide **full psychological services**

Important: You cannot legally practice psychology without being licensed.

Example: A licensed clinical psychologist working in a hospital or private clinic.

D. Psychometrician - A psychometrician is also licensed but has a **more limited role**.

They can:

- Administer and score certain psychological tests
- Interpret results and write reports
- Conduct initial interviews

Very important rule: They must always work **under the supervision of a licensed psychologist**.

Example: A psychometrician gives personality tests to job applicants, but the psychologist reviews and approves the results.

ARTICLE IV. Professional Regulatory Board of Psychology

What is this Board? The **Professional Regulatory Board of Psychology** is the group that:

- Regulates psychologists and psychometricians
- Makes sure they follow the law

It works under the **Professional Regulation Commission (PRC)**.

Composition of the Board

The Board has:

- **1 Chairperson**
- **2 Members**

They are:

- Appointed by the **President of the Philippines**
- Chosen from nominees submitted by the national psychology organization

Qualifications of Board Members

To be a Board member, a person must:

- Be a **Filipino citizen**
- Be **at least 35 years old**
- Have **good moral character**
- Hold a **doctorate degree in psychology**
- Have:
 - At least **10 years of practice**
 - At least **5 years of teaching experience**
- Be a **licensed psychologist**
- Have **no conflict of interest**
- Have **no criminal conviction involving moral wrongdoing**

Why these strict rules? - To ensure only **experienced and ethical professionals** regulate psychology.

Term of Office

- Each member serves **3 years**
- They can be reappointed **once**
- Vacancies are filled only for the remaining term
- Members must take an **oath** before starting

Powers and Duties of the Board

The Board can:

- Enforce and update rules of the Psychology Act
- Supervise licensure and registration
- Issue, suspend, or revoke licenses
- Monitor ethical and professional standards
- Inspect clinics, schools, and institutions
- Help set continuing education requirements
- Work with CHED to ensure psychology programs meet standards
- Prepare licensure exam subjects
- Investigate violations of the law

Example: If a fake psychologist is reported, the Board can investigate and take action.

Compensation and Discipline

Compensation - Board members receive:

- The same pay and benefits as other PRC regulatory board members

Removal or Suspension - Board members can be removed for reasons such as:

- Neglect of duty
- Incompetence
- Unethical behavior
- Corruption
- Cheating or manipulating licensure exams

This ensures accountability.

Administrative Supervision

- The Board is supervised by the **PRC**
- PRC keeps all records
- PRC provides staff and support services

Meaning: The Board does not work alone—it is closely monitored.

ARTICLE V – LICENSURE EXAMINATIONS

This article explains **who needs to take exams, who can take them, and what the exams cover.**

Section 11. Examinations Required - Anyone who wants to legally practice **psychology or psychometrics** must **pass a licensure exam.**

- The exam is given by the **Professional Regulatory Board of Psychology**
- The **PRC** decides the date, place, and requirements

Example: You cannot work as a psychologist just because you finished your degree—you must **pass the board exam first.**

Section 12. Who Can Take the Psychologist Licensure Exam

To take the **Psychologist board exam**, you must:

1. **Be:**
 - A Filipino citizen, OR
 - A permanent resident, OR
 - A foreign citizen from a country that allows Filipinos to practice psychology
2. Have **at least a Master's degree in Psychology** (from a CHED-recognized school)
3. Have completed **at least 200 hours of supervised practicum or internship**
 - Must be supervised by a **licensed psychologist or mental health professional**
4. Be of **good moral character**
5. Have **no criminal conviction involving moral wrongdoing**

Example: A student with a Master's degree and internship experience in a clinic can apply for the psychologist board exam.

Section 13. Who Can Take the Psychometrician Licensure Exam - To take the **Psychometrician board exam**, you must:

1. Meet the citizenship or reciprocity rule
2. Have **at least a Bachelor's degree in Psychology**
3. Be of **good moral character**
4. Have **no criminal conviction involving moral wrongdoing**

Key difference: Psychometricians **do NOT need a Master's degree** or internship hours.

Example: A psychology graduate who wants to administer tests can apply for the psychometrician exam.

Section 14. Exam Subjects for Psychologists - Psychologist board exams include **advanced topics**:

- Advanced Theories of Personality
- Advanced Abnormal Psychology
- Advanced Psychological Assessment
- Psychological Counseling and Psychotherapy

Meaning: Psychologists are trained for **deeper and more complex work**, like therapy and diagnosis.

Section 15. Exam Subjects for Psychometricians - Psychometrician exams include:

- Theories of Personality
- Abnormal Psychology
- Industrial Psychology
- Psychological Assessment

Meaning: Psychometricians focus more on **testing, assessment, and workplace psychology**.

Section 16. Registration Without Exam (Psychologists) - This applies to **experienced psychologists before the law took effect**. They could register **without taking the exam** if they applied within **3 years** and met these conditions:

- Doctorate + 3 years experience
- Master's + 5 years experience
- Bachelor's + 10 years experience (with continuing education)

Why this exists: To recognize **long-time professionals** already practicing before the law.

Section 17. Registration Without Exam (Psychometricians) - Psychometricians could also register without exam if they had:

- A Bachelor's degree in Psychology
- At least **2 years of full-time experience**
- Applied within **3 years**

Section 18. Passing Grades - To pass the exam:

- **75% overall average**
- **No grade lower than 60% in any subject**

If:

- You get 75% overall but fail one subject → you can **retake that subject within 2 years**

Example: You passed all subjects except one—no need to retake everything.

Section 19. Report of Ratings

- The Board submits exam results to PRC within **10 days**
- Extensions are allowed if there's a valid reason

ARTICLE VI – REGISTRATION - This article explains **what happens after you pass**.

Section 20. Oath Taking - Before practicing, psychologists and psychometricians must:

- Take an **oath**
- Promise to **uphold ethical and professional standards**

Example: Similar to doctors and lawyers swearing an oath before practice.

Section 21. Certificate and Professional ID - After passing:

- You receive a **Certificate of Registration**
- You receive a **Professional Identification Card (valid for 3 years)**

To renew:

- You must complete **continuing education requirements**

Meaning: Learning doesn't stop after passing the board.

Section 22. Disclosure of Registration Info - Psychologists and psychometricians must include:

- License number
- Date of issuance
- Validity
- Professional tax receipt number

On:

- Reports
- Certificates
- Official documents

Purpose: Transparency and accountability.

Section 23. When Registration is Denied - Registration will NOT be issued if the person:

- Has committed a crime involving moral wrongdoing
- Has been found guilty of unethical conduct
- Is medically unfit (unsound mind)

The Board must **explain the reason in writing**.

Section 24. Foreign Reciprocity - Foreigners can only practice if **their country allows Filipinos to practice psychology too**.

Fairness rule: Equal treatment for Filipinos abroad.

Section 25. Special or Temporary Permits - Foreign psychologists may be allowed **temporarily** if they are:

- International experts
- Offering free services to poor patients
- Exchange professors

Permits:

- Valid for **1 year**
- Limited to a specific place

Section 26. Suspension or Revocation of License - A license may be suspended or revoked if a person:

- Obtained it through fraud
- Allowed others to misuse their license
- Violated ethics or the law
- Is mentally or physically unfit
- Practiced while suspended

Section 27. Reinstatement

- A revoked license can be reapplied for after **2 years**

- Only if the Board believes there is **good reason**

Section 28. Appeals

- Board decisions become final after **15 days**
- Appeals go to:
 1. PRC
 2. Court of Appeals

Section 29. Rights of the Respondent - Psychologists and psychometricians have the right to:

- A lawyer
- A fair and speedy process
- Face witnesses

ARTICLE VII – PRIVILEGED COMMUNICATION & PROFESSIONAL INTEGRATION

Section 30. Privileged Communication - Psychologists and psychometricians **cannot reveal client information** without consent.

- Applies to records and staff
- Evidence obtained illegally is **not allowed in court**

Example: A therapist cannot share what a client said in therapy without permission.

Section 31. Integration of the Profession - All licensed psychologists and psychometricians become members of:

- **One national professional organization**

They can still join other organizations.

Section 32. Code of Ethics and Practice - The Board adopts:

- A **Code of Ethics**
- A **Code of Professional Practice**

Purpose: To guide ethical behavior and professional conduct.

ARTICLE VIII – PROHIBITED ACTS, PENALTIES & ENFORCEMENT

Section 33. Prohibited Acts - It is illegal to:

- Practice without a license
- Use someone else's license
- Practice while suspended
- Lie to obtain a license
- Run a psychology clinic without a permit

Section 34. Penalties - Violators may face:

- **6 months to 3 years imprisonment**
- **₱10,000 to ₱100,000 fine**
- Or both

Section 35. Injunction - The Board can:

- Stop illegal practice
- File cases against violators

Section 36. Enforcement - All law enforcement agencies must:

- Help enforce the Psychology Act

ARTICLE IX – MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

Section 37. Funding - Funds for implementing the law come from:

- The **General Appropriations Act**

Section 38. Implementing Rules

- Rules must be issued within **90 days** after the Board is formed

Section 39. Separability Clause - If one part of the law is invalid:

- The rest **still applies**

Section 40. Repealing Clause - Old laws inconsistent with this Act are repealed or changed

Section 41. Effectivity

- The law takes effect **15 days after publication**

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: REPUBLIC ACT NO. 11036

REPUBLIC ACT NO. 11036 - THE PHILIPPINE MENTAL HEALTH ACT

Republic Act No. 11036, also called the **Mental Health Act**, is a Philippine law that:

- Protects **mental health as a basic human right**
- Makes **mental health services accessible and affordable**
- Protects people with mental health conditions from **abuse, discrimination, and stigma**
- Ensures mental health care is **humane, respectful, and rights-based**

Mental health is just as important as physical health, and the government must protect it.

CHAPTER I: GENERAL PROVISIONS

Section 1: Short Title

- The law is officially called the **Mental Health Act**.

Section 2: Declaration of Policy

The government promises to:

- Value and protect mental health
- Provide **quality, affordable, and timely mental health care**
- Respect human rights
- Prevent discrimination and stigma
- Follow international human rights standards

Example: A person with depression should not be treated unfairly at work or school.

Section 3: Objectives of the Law

The goals of the Mental Health Act are to:

1. Improve leadership and planning for mental health
2. Create a **complete mental health care system**
3. Protect the rights of people with mental health needs
4. Support research and data collection

5. Include mental health in basic health services
6. Promote mental health in schools, workplaces, and communities

Better services, better protection, better awareness.

Section 4: IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

Mental Health - A state where a person can cope with stress, work well, and contribute to society.

- **Example:** You feel stressed but can still function, ask for help, and recover.

Mental Health Condition - A problem affecting thoughts, feelings, or behavior that needs professional care.

- **Example:** Depression, anxiety, schizophrenia.

Service User - Anyone who has experienced or is receiving mental health care.

- **Example:** A student seeing a counselor for anxiety.

Mental Health Professional - Trained people who provide mental health care.

- **Examples:** Doctors, psychologists, nurses, social workers.

Mental Health Facility - A place that provides mental health services.

- **Example:** Hospitals, clinics, community centers.

Confidentiality - Keeping a person's mental health information private.

- **Example:** Your diagnosis cannot be shared without your permission.

Informed Consent - Agreeing to treatment **after** everything is clearly explained.

- **Example:** A doctor explains therapy options before you choose one.

Psychiatric Emergency - A situation where someone may harm themselves or others and needs immediate help.

- **Example:** A person attempting suicide.

Supported Decision-Making - Helping a person decide without forcing them.

- **Example:** A trusted family member helps explain treatment choices.

Deinstitutionalization - Moving care from hospitals to community-based settings.

- **Example:** Receiving counseling at a barangay center instead of staying long-term in a hospital.

CHAPTER II: RIGHTS

Section 5: Rights of Service Users

People receiving mental health care have the right to:

- Be free from discrimination and stigma
- Get **quality and affordable care**

- Be treated humanely
- Access their medical records
- Privacy and confidentiality
- Give or refuse consent
- Participate in treatment planning
- Communicate freely (calls, messages, visitors)
- Get legal help if needed
- File complaints for abuse or violations

Example: A patient can refuse treatment if they are fully informed and capable of deciding.

Section 6: Rights of Family Members and Carers

They have the right to:

- Receive support
- Help plan treatment (with consent)
- Join mental health advocacy

Example: Parents can help in a child's therapy plan if the child agrees.

Section 7: Rights of Mental Health Professionals

They have the right to:

- Safe working conditions
- Ongoing training
- Participate in policy-making
- Advocate for their patients

CHAPTER III: TREATMENT AND CONSENT

Section 8: Informed Consent

- Treatment needs **written consent**
- Everyone is assumed capable of deciding
- Children can express their opinions

Example: A teenager can say how they feel about counseling.

Section 9: Advance Directive

- A written plan stating treatment preferences **in advance**

Example: "I do not want a certain medication if I relapse."

Section 10-11: Legal Representative & Supported Decision-Making

- A trusted person can help or decide when the service user temporarily cannot.

Section 13: When Consent Is Not Required

Only during emergencies or temporary loss of decision-making ability—and with strict rules.

Example: A person is restrained briefly to prevent self-harm.

CHAPTER IV: MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

Key Points:

- Services must be **scientific, respectful, and appropriate**
- Mental health care must be available at:
 - Barangay
 - City/municipal
 - Provincial and national hospitals

Example: You can seek help at a barangay health center, not just big hospitals.

Suicide Prevention

- 24/7 hotlines
- Youth-focused programs

CHAPTER V: MENTAL HEALTH IN SCHOOLS & WORK

Schools must:

- Teach mental health topics
- Provide counselors
- Support students and teachers

Example: A university offers free counseling services.

Workplaces must:

- Reduce stigma
- Support employees' mental well-being

Example: Companies offering mental health days or counseling referrals.

CHAPTER VI: TRAINING & RESEARCH

- Mental health workers must receive proper training
- Barangay Health Workers are trained too
- Research must be ethical and respectful

CHAPTER VII-VIII: GOVERNMENT RESPONSIBILITIES

Different agencies (DOH, CHR, DepED, LGUs, etc.) must:

- Create programs
- Protect rights
- Monitor facilities
- Improve access nationwide

Example: LGUs must have local mental health programs.

CHAPTER X: PENALTIES

You can be punished if you:

- Treat without consent
- Break confidentiality
- Discriminate
- Use cruel or unscientific treatment

Penalty:

- Jail time, fines, or both

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: HOUSE BILL NO. 9611

HOUSE BILL NO. 9611

REVISED PHILIPPINE PSYCHOLOGY ACT (AMENDING RA 10029)

House Bill No. 9611 updates the **Philippine Psychology Act of 2009 (RA 10029)**. It was proposed for the following reasons:

- Mental health problems in the Philippines increased (especially during COVID-19)
- There are **too few psychologists** for millions of Filipinos
- The old law **limited what psychology graduates could do**

- The country now follows **more modern and global mental health standards**

The goal: Improve access to mental health services while protecting the public

II. Problems the Bill Tries to Fix

1. Too many people need help, too few professionals

- Millions of Filipinos experience mental health problems
- Suicide attempts among teens are alarming
- There are **less than 1 psychologist per 100,000 Filipinos**

Example: Imagine one school counselor serving **thousands of students**—help will be delayed or unavailable.

2. Psychology graduates are underused

Before:

- Psychology graduates could mostly work only as **psychometricians**
- Their role was very limited

Now:

- The bill expands their role so they can **help more people**, especially in communities, schools, and workplaces

III. Major Change in Terminology

Old Term: Psychometrician

New Term: Registered Associate Psychologist (RAP)

Why the change?

- Their role is now **bigger than just tests**
- The new name reflects **broader mental health work**

Example: Instead of just giving tests, they can now:

- Provide psychosocial support
- Conduct mental health education
- Run wellness programs
- Help provide **basic mental health services**
- Work in **schools, clinics, workplaces, and communities**
- Support psychologists and other professionals

They still **do not replace psychologists**. They work **under proper rules and supervision**.

IV. Definition of Terms

1. Psychology - The scientific study of how people think, feel, and behave

Example: Studying why people feel anxious before exams or how stress affects behavior.

2. Practice of Psychology - Using psychology knowledge to help people function better

Includes:

- Psychological assessment (tests, interviews)
- Psychological interventions (counseling, therapy)
- Can be done **in person or online (telepsychology)**

Example: Helping a worker manage burnout through counseling sessions.

3. Registered Psychologist (RPsy) - These are **fully licensed professionals** who handle **clinical cases**.

They can:

- Diagnose mental health conditions
- Conduct therapy and counseling
- Supervise other psychology professionals
- Teach psychology subjects
- Lead mental health programs

4. Registered Associate Psychologist (RAP) - These professionals usually handle **non-clinical populations**.

They can:

- Conduct screening and assessments
- Provide psychosocial support
- Teach mental health awareness
- Run wellness and training programs
- Assist psychologists in clinical work

Example: A RAP teaching stress management workshops in a company.

5. Clinical vs Non-Clinical Populations

Clinical population - People with serious mental health problems needing specialized care

- **Example:** Major depression, PTSD, schizophrenia

Non-clinical population - People experiencing stress, adjustment issues, or normal life challenges

- **Example:** Students with exam anxiety, employees with work stress

V. The Professional Regulatory Board of Psychology

This board:

- Regulates psychologists and associate psychologists
- Conducts licensure exams
- Enforces ethical practice
- Suspends or revokes licenses if needed

Example: If a psychologist violates ethical rules, the Board can investigate and penalize them.

VI. Licensure Examinations (Who Can Take Them?)

A. Registered Psychologist Exam

Requirements:

- Master's degree in Psychology
- At least **500 hours of supervised internship**
 - Increased to **1,000 hours after 3 years**
- Good moral character

Subjects include:

- Counseling & Psychotherapy
- Psychological Assessment
- Abnormal Psychology

Example: Someone with a master's degree who trained in a clinic under supervision.

B. Registered Associate Psychologist Exam

Requirements:

- Bachelor's degree in Psychology
- At least **200 hours of supervised internship**
- Good moral character

Subjects include:

- Mental Health & Well-Being
- Abnormal Psychology
- Work & Organizational Psychology

Example: A psychology graduate working in HR or community programs.

VII. Registration Without Examination

Some professionals can be licensed **without taking the exam** if they already have:

- Long years of experience
- Higher degrees
- Previous psychometrician license

Example: A psychometrician with 7 years of relevant work can become a Registered Associate Psychologist.

VIII. Rights and Protections

Privileged Communication - Psychologists **cannot be forced to reveal client information** without consent.

Example: What you say in therapy stays confidential unless the law requires disclosure.

IX. Psychology Professionals in Government

The bill:

- Creates **official government positions** for psychologists
- Sets **salary grades**

Example salary levels:

- Registered Associate Psychologist I – SG 11
- Registered Psychologist V – SG 26

This improves **job security and fair pay**

X. Prohibited Acts and Penalties

Illegal actions include:

- Practicing psychology without a license
- Using someone else's license
- Running a clinic without a licensed psychologist

Penalties:

- Fine
- Imprisonment
- Or both

Example: Someone offering therapy services online without a license can be penalized.

XI. Why This Law Matters

This revised law:

- Expands access to mental health care
- Uses psychology graduates more effectively
- Protects clients from unqualified practitioners
- Aligns with the **Mental Health Act (RA 11036)**
- Brings Philippine psychology closer to **global standards**

House Bill No. 9611 updates the Philippine Psychology Act to expand the roles of psychology professionals, improve access to mental health services, strengthen regulation, and align the profession with national and global mental health goals.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: APA ETHICAL PRINCIPLES OF PSYCHOLOGISTS AND CODE OF CONDUCT

APA ETHICAL PRINCIPLES & CODE OF CONDUCT

1. What Is the APA Ethics Code?

The **APA Ethics Code** is a set of rules and values that guide psychologists on how to behave **professionally, responsibly, and ethically**.

It helps psychologists:

- Protect clients, students, research participants, and the public
- Make good decisions when situations are confusing or risky
- Maintain trust in the psychology profession

The code applies when psychologists are:

- Providing therapy or counseling
- Conducting research
- Teaching or supervising students
- Giving psychological tests or assessments
- Working in schools, courts, organizations, clinics, or online settings

Important reminder: The Ethics Code applies **only to professional roles**, not a psychologist's personal or private life. However, unethical personal behavior that affects professional work can still be a concern.

2. Parts of the Ethics Code

A. Introduction: The **Introduction** explains how the Ethics Code works.

It tells us:

- Who must follow the code (APA members and psychology professionals)
- That psychologists are responsible for **knowing the rules**
- That saying *"I didn't know"* is **not an acceptable excuse**
- That ethics and laws are different, but **both must be followed**

Important ideas:

- If **ethics are stricter than the law**, follow ethics
- If the **law is stricter**, follow the law
- Ethics can **never** be used to justify discrimination, abuse, or human rights violations

This section sets expectations and accountability.

B. Preamble (Purpose): The **Preamble** explains the **values and goals** of psychology.

It emphasizes that psychologists should:

- Help individuals, groups, and society
- Respect human dignity and rights
- Use psychological knowledge responsibly
- Act ethically throughout their **entire career**, not just sometimes

Important note: The Preamble is **not punishable**. It does not list rules.

- Instead, it **guides thinking and decision-making** when situations are unclear.

Think of it as the **moral foundation** of the profession.

3. The Five General Principles (A-E)

These are **moral ideals**, not strict rules. They guide behavior but **cannot be used alone to punish** someone.

Principle A: Beneficence & Nonmaleficence "Do good and avoid harm."

Psychologists should:

- Aim to help clients and participants
- Prevent harm whenever possible
- Be aware of how stress, illness, or burnout affects their work
- Stop or adjust work if it could harm others

Example: If a therapist feels emotionally exhausted and notices poor judgment, they seek supervision or refer clients to protect them from harm.

Principle B: Fidelity & Responsibility "Be trustworthy and responsible."

Psychologists should:

- Build trust with clients and the public
- Keep professional promises
- Follow ethical and professional standards
- Take responsibility for their actions
- Address unethical behavior among colleagues

Example: A psychologist clearly explains their role—whether they are acting as a therapist, evaluator, or researcher—so the client is not confused.

Principle C: Integrity "Be honest and truthful."

Psychologists should:

- Be honest in teaching, research, therapy, and public statements
- Avoid lying, cheating, or misleading others
- Use deception only when necessary and justified
- Correct mistakes as soon as possible

Example: A researcher finds an error in their data analysis and reports it instead of hiding it.

Principle D: Justice "Be fair and unbiased."

Psychologists should:

- Treat people equally
- Avoid discrimination and favoritism
- Ensure that everyone has access to quality psychological services

- Work only within areas they are competent in

Example: A psychologist provides the same quality of care regardless of a client's gender, culture, or socioeconomic status.

Principle E: Respect for People's Rights & Dignity
"Respect autonomy, privacy, and diversity."

Psychologists should:

- Respect individuals' right to make their own decisions
- Protect confidentiality and privacy
- Respect cultural, religious, gender, and individual differences
- Give extra protection to vulnerable populations

Example: A psychologist adjusts explanations and materials to match a client's language and cultural background.

4. Ethical Standards

Unlike principles, **ethical standards are specific rules**. Violating them can lead to **disciplinary action or punishment**.

Section 1: Resolving Ethical Issues

Focus: Handling ethical problems properly

Psychologists must:

- Identify ethical conflicts early
- Try informal solutions first (discussion, clarification)
- Follow the Ethics Code when conflicts arise
- Report serious ethical violations
- Cooperate with ethics investigations

Example: If a colleague falsifies research data and refuses to correct it, the psychologist reports the violation.

Section 2: Competence

Focus: Knowing your limits

Psychologists must:

- Work only in areas they are trained in
- Seek supervision or training when needed
- Refer clients if a case is beyond their skills
- Avoid work when personal problems interfere

Example: A therapist does not treat complex trauma without proper training and instead refers to the client.

Section 3: Human Relations

Focus: Professional boundaries and respect

Psychologists must:

- Avoid discrimination and harassment
- Avoid harming others
- Avoid multiple relationships that may bias judgment
- Never exploit clients, students, or supervisees
- Obtain informed consent

Example: A professor does not enter a romantic relationship with a student they supervise.

Section 4: Privacy & Confidentiality

Focus: Protecting personal information

Psychologists must:

- Keep client information private
- Explain limits of confidentiality clearly
- Get consent before recording sessions
- Share information only when necessary

Example: A therapist breaks confidentiality only if a client poses serious danger to others.

Section 5: Advertising & Public Statements

Focus: Honesty in public communication

Psychologists must:

- Avoid false or exaggerated claims
- Be honest about qualifications and credentials
- Avoid exploiting vulnerable individuals
- Avoid asking current clients for testimonials

Example: A psychologist does not claim "100% success rate" in therapy ads.

Section 6: Record Keeping & Fees

Focus: Responsible documentation and payments

Psychologists must:

- Keep accurate and secure records
- Protect confidentiality of records
- Explain fees clearly in advance
- Never withhold emergency records due to unpaid fees

Example: A client receives records needed for emergency care even if they still owe money.

Section 7: Education & Training

Focus: Ethics in teaching and supervision

Psychologists must:

- Teach accurate and current information
- Maintain professional boundaries with students
- Avoid sexual relationships with students
- Evaluate students fairly and transparently

Example: A supervisor clearly explains grading standards and expectations in practicum.

Section 8: Research & Publication

Focus: Ethical research practices

Psychologists must:

- Obtain informed consent
- Minimize harm to participants
- Use deception only when justified
- Debrief participants afterward
- Avoid plagiarism and data fabrication

Example: After a deceptive study, participants are fully informed of the real purpose.

Section 9: Assessment

Focus: Fair and accurate testing

Psychologists must:

- Use reliable and valid tests
- Obtain informed consent before testing
- Interpret results carefully
- Protect test materials and security

Example: A test is modified or explained properly for a client with limited language skills.

Psychologists must be competent, honest, fair, respectful, and protective of the people they serve.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: STATISTICS REFRESHER

SCALES OF MEASUREMENT

What is Measurement? - Measurement means **giving numbers or labels to things** by following rules.

- We measure to describe something clearly.
- The numbers help us compare people, objects, or events.

Example:

- Giving a test score (85)
- Recording height (160 cm)

What is Sample Space? - The **sample space** means **all possible values** a variable can have.

Example:

- Test scores: 0 to 100
- Height: from very short to very tall
- Number of siblings: 0, 1, 2, 3, and so on

TYPES OF VARIABLES

1. Discrete Variables - These are values you can **count one by one**.

- Whole numbers only
- No decimals or fractions

Examples:

- Number of siblings (1, 2, 3)
- Year level (1st year, 2nd year)
- Number of students in a class

There can't be **2.5 siblings**, so no decimals.

2. Continuous Variables - These can have **any value within a range**.

- Decimals allowed
- Fractions allowed

Examples:

- Height (160.5 cm)
- Weight (55.2 kg)
- Anxiety score (45.7)

A person can always be **a little taller, shorter, heavier, or lighter**.

MEASUREMENT ERROR

Measurement error means **things that affect a score but are not part of what you are measuring**.

- It does **not** mean a mistake.
- It means **no measurement is perfectly exact**.

Common Sources of Error

- Distractions (noise, talking)
- Poor test questions
- Being tired or in a bad mood

Example: A student scores low not because they didn't study, but because they were sick.

- Because of this, **scores are only estimates**, not perfect values.

LEVELS OF MEASUREMENT (NOIR)

You can remember the four levels using **NOIR**.

1. **Nominal (Name or Label)** - Used for **categories only**.

- No order
- Just names

Examples:

- Gender
- Blood type
- Favorite color

It cannot be ranked

2. **Ordinal (Order)** - Used for **ranking**.

- Has order
- Gaps between ranks are not equal

Examples:

- Class rank (1st, 2nd, 3rd)
- Survey ratings (poor, fair, good)

You know who is higher, but **not how much higher**.

3. **Interval** - Has **equal spacing** between values.

- Differences are meaningful
- No true zero

Example: Temperature in Celsius

0°C does **not** mean "no temperature."

4. **Ratio** - Like interval, but with a **true zero**.

- Equal spacing
- Zero means none

Examples:

- Height
- Weight
- Age

0 kg means **no weight at all**.

Why Levels Matter - The level of measurement tells us:

- What math we can use
- What statistics are allowed

- Mean
- Median
- Mode

DESCRIBING DATA

1. **Raw Scores** - A **raw score** is the original score.

Example:

- 75 on a test
- 18 correct answers

Raw scores show performance, but **not patterns**.

2. **Distribution** - A **distribution** is a group of scores arranged for study.

Example: Test scores of 25 students from 0–100

3. **FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS** - It shows **how often each score appears**.

- a. **Simple Frequency Distribution**

- Lists exact scores
- Shows how many times each score appears

Example: Score 80 → 3 students

- b. **Grouped Frequency Distribution**

- Uses **score ranges**
- Easier to read

Example:

40–44
45–49
50–54

The lowest and highest ranges are called **lower and upper limits**.

GRAPHS (Visual Data)

Graphs help to see **patterns quickly**.

Common Graphs

- **Histogram** – connected bars (scores)
- **Bar graph** – separate bars (categories)
- **Frequency polygon** – line showing trends

Axes:

- X-axis → scores
- Y-axis → number of students

SHAPE OF DISTRIBUTIONS

Some distributions look like a **bell shape**. This is called the **normal curve**.

- Knowing the shape helps us **understand test results better**.

MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

These tell the **center or average** of scores.

Three Types:

Mean (Average) - Add all scores, then divide by how many scores.

Example: $(70 + 80 + 90) \div 3 = 80$

- Uses all scores
- Easily affected by very high or very low scores

Median (Middle) - The **middle score** when arranged in order.

Example: 70, 80, 90 → Median = 80

- Good when scores are uneven
- Good with extreme values

Mode (Most Common) - The score that appears **most often**.

Example: 70, 80, 80, 90 → Mode = 80

- Best for categories
- May not represent the center well

Choosing the Right Measure

- **Mean** → normal data
- **Median** → uneven data
- **Mode** → categories

MEASURES OF VARIABILITY

Variability means **how spread out the scores are**. Two groups can have the same average but very different spreads.

Common Measures

Range (Highest – Lowest): Simple, but affected by extreme scores

Interquartile Range (IQR): Shows the spread of the **middle 50%**. Less affected by extreme values

Semi-IQR: Half of the IQR, Helps describe the shape

Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD): Average distance from the mean. Easy to understand, rarely used

Variance and Standard Deviation

These show **how far scores usually are from the average**.

- Most commonly used
- Very important in testing

SKEWNESS

Skewness shows if scores lean to one side.

- **Positive skew** → tail on the right (few high scores)
- **Negative skew** → tail on the left (few low scores)
- **Symmetrical** → balanced

Skewness is **not a mistake**.

KURTOSIS

Kurtosis describes the **shape of a distribution**, specifically **how flat or how tall the peak of the data is compared to a normal distribution**.

- **Platykurtic (Flat)** – The distribution is **flatter and more spread out**. The data are more evenly distributed, and there are **fewer extreme values**.
- **Mesokurtic (Normal)** – The distribution has a **moderate peak**, similar to a **normal distribution**. The data are balanced with a typical amount of extreme values.
- **Leptokurtic (Tall)** – The distribution has a **higher and sharper peak**. The data are **more concentrated in the center**, and there are **more extreme values (outliers)**.

THE NORMAL CURVE

A smooth, bell-shaped curve where:

- Most scores are in the middle
- Few scores are at the ends

Key Features

- Symmetrical
- Mean = Median = Mode
- Never touches the line at the bottom

Area Under the Curve

- 68% within 1 step from average
- 95% within 2 steps
- Almost all within 3 steps

Scores far from the center are **rare**.

Why It Matters

It helps us:

- Know if a score is average or extreme
- Identify giftedness or learning difficulties
- Compare one student to others fairly

Measurement helps to **understand, compare, and explain data** clearly.

- Knowing scales, averages, and spread helps us **interpret scores correctly**—especially in education and psychology.

STANDARD SCORES, CORRELATION, TEST ASSUMPTIONS, AND NORMS

STANDARD SCORES

A **standard score** is a score that has been changed from a raw score into a new form.

- The new form follows a **fixed average** and a **fixed spread**.
- A **raw score** is the original score from a test.
- Raw scores alone are often confusing.

Why Convert Raw Scores?

Raw scores are hard to understand by themselves.

Standard scores help to:

- Show how performance compares to others
- Compare scores from different tests
- Make results easier to explain

Example: A score of 60 on one test and 80 on another test cannot be compared directly.

- Standard scores make fair comparison possible.

Z SCORES

A **z score** shows how far a score is from the average.

- The distance is measured using **standard deviation**.
- Standard deviation means the **usual distance from the average**.

For z scores:

- Average (mean) = 0
- Standard deviation = 1

Example:

- **Raw score** = 65
- **Average score** = 50
- **Standard deviation** = 15

A z score of **+1** means:

- The score is **above average**
- The score is **one step above the average**
- Only a small number of test-takers scored higher

Comparing Different Tests Using z Scores

Raw scores from different tests cannot be compared fairly. z scores solve this problem.

Example:

- Reading test z score = +1.32
- Math test z score = -0.75

Meaning:

- Reading performance is above average
- Math performance is below average

This result is true even if the math raw score is higher.

T SCORES

A **T score** is a type of **standard score** used to show how far a score is from the average.

- **Average (Mean) = 50**
- **Standard Deviation = 10**

This means most scores are around **50**, and each **10 points** shows how far a score is from the average.

Examples:

- **T = 50** → Average score
- **T = 60** → Above average
- **T = 40** → Below average

Why T scores are helpful: They **do not use negative numbers**, so they are easier to understand compared to z-scores.

OTHER STANDARD SCORES

A. Stanines

- Range: **1 to 9**
- Average: **5**

Stanines group scores into **9 broad levels** instead of many small scores. They are often used in **school tests** to quickly show if a student performed **low, average, or high**.

Example:

- **1-3** → Low
- **4-6** → Average
- **7-9** → High

B. IQ Scores

- **Average = 100**
- **Standard deviation = 15**

Most people's IQ scores fall between **70 and 130**.

Example:

- **100** → Average intelligence
- **115** → Above average
- **85** → Below average

LINEAR AND NONLINEAR CHANGES

A. Linear Transformation - changes scores but **keeps the same distance between them**.

Example: Changing **z-scores** into **T scores**.

The scores are just **rescaled**, but their **relative positions stay the same**.

B. Nonlinear Transformation - used when scores are **uneven or not normally distributed**.

- The scores are **adjusted to follow a normal curve**.
- These adjusted scores are called **normalized scores**.

CORRELATION

Correlation shows how strongly **two variables are related**. The symbol for correlation is **r**. The value of **r** **ranges from -1 to +1**.

Types of Correlation

1. **Positive Correlation** - Both variables **increase or decrease together**.

Example: More **study time** → **higher test scores**

2. **Negative Correlation** - One variable **increases while the other decreases**.

Example: More **phone use during class** → **lower grades**

3. **Zero Correlation** - There is **no clear relationship** between the variables.

Correlation Does Not Mean Cause:

Just because two things are related **does not mean one causes the other**.

Example: Children with **bigger hat sizes may spell better**, but hat size **does not cause** better spelling. Both simply increase with **age**.

Why Correlation Is Useful: Correlation helps with **prediction**. If we know **one variable**, we can **estimate the other**.

Example: Knowing how much a student studies may help **predict their exam score**.

Value of r	Meaning
+1.00	Perfect positive relationship
-1.00	Perfect negative relationship
0.00	No relationship

PEARSON R

Pearson r is the **most common method used to measure correlation**.

It is used when:

- The relationship between variables is **straight-line (linear)**
- Both variables are measured using **numbers** (like scores, time, height, etc.)

How Pearson r Works

Each score is compared to the average.

- Same signs (+ with + or - with -) → positive relationship
- Opposite signs → negative relationship
- Mixed signs → weak or no relationship

SIGNIFICANCE OF CORRELATION

- After finding **r**, a question is asked:
- Is the relationship real or due to chance?

This is answered using **significance levels**.

Common levels:

- **.05** → 5 out of 100 chance result is random
- **.01** → 1 out of 100 chance result is random

A significant result suggests a real relationship.

COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION (r^2)

The **coefficient of determination (r^2)** shows how much two variables are related or share in common.

Example: If **r = .90**, then **$r^2 = .81$** .

Meaning:

- **81%** of the change in one variable is related to the other variable.
- The remaining **19%** may be caused by **other factors or random error**.

In simple terms, **r^2 tells us how much of the relationship between two variables is explained by the correlation**.

SPEARMAN RHO

Spearman rho is another way to measure **correlation** between two variables.

It is used when:

- The **sample size is small**
- The data are **ranked (1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.)**
- The relationship is **not perfectly straight-line (not linear)**

In simple words, **Spearman rho measures the relationship between ranked data.**

SCATTERPLOTS

A **scatterplot** is a **graph that shows the relationship between two variables** using dots.

- **Horizontal axis (X)** → first variable
- **Vertical axis (Y)** → second variable

Scatterplots help us see:

- **Direction** – whether the relationship is positive or negative
- **Strength** – how strong the relationship is
- **Outliers** – unusual data points
- **Nonlinear patterns** – relationships that are not straight

In simple terms, **scatterplots visually show how two variables are related.**

OUTLIERS AND RESTRICTION OF RANGE

OUTLIERS - Outliers are **extreme or unusual scores that are very different from the rest of the data.**

- They may happen because of **measurement errors or rare cases**, and they can affect the correlation.

RESTRICTION OF RANGE - Restriction of range happens when **the data only includes a small part of the possible scores.**

Example: If you study the relationship between **IQ and grades but only include honor students**, the scores will be very similar.

This can make the **correlation appear weaker than it actually is.**

META-ANALYSIS

Meta-analysis combines results from many studies.

Advantages:

- More accurate results
- Focus on effect size
- Strong evidence for decisions

Effect size is often reported as correlation.

TEST ASSUMPTIONS

Assumption 1: Psychological Traits Exist

- Traits are stable characteristics.
 - **Examples:** intelligence, personality.
- States are temporary conditions.

- **Examples:** mood, anxiety.
- Traits and states cannot be seen directly.
 - Behavior is used as evidence.

Assumption 2: Traits Can Be Measured

- Traits differ in degree.
 - Differences can be measured using numbers.
- Clear definitions are needed before testing.
 - Tests sample behavior, not the whole trait.

Assumption 3: Test Behavior Predicts Real Behavior

- Test scores are used to predict real-life behavior.
 - **Examples:** school success, job performance.
- Tests measure only samples of behavior.

Assumption 4: Tests Have Limits

No test is perfect.
Responsible use requires:

- Knowing test purpose
- Knowing appropriate users
- Correct interpretation

Assumption 5: Error Is Always Present

All test scores contain error.
Sources of error include:

- Test-taker condition
- Test administrator
- Test design
- Random factors

Assumption 6: Bias Can Be Reduced

- Tests must be fair.
 - Bias must be identified and corrected.
- Misuse can cause unfair results.

Assumption 7: Testing Helps Society

Testing supports:

- Professional standards
- Fair decisions
- Diagnosis and support
- Large-scale planning

WHAT MAKES A GOOD TEST

A good test is:

- Clear
- Practical
- Reliable
- Valid

Reliability (Consistency) - Reliability means consistent results.

- A reliable test gives similar results each time.

Validity (Accuracy) - Validity means measuring the correct trait.

- A test must measure what it claims to measure.

Reliability vs Validity

Concept	Meaning	Key Question
Reliability	Consistency	Are results stable?
Validity	Accuracy	Is the right trait measured?

A test must be reliable before being valid.

NORMS

Norms are comparison data from a group.

Norms show whether a score is:

- High
- Average
- Low

Why Norms Matter

Without norms, scores have little meaning.

Norms answer:

- How performance compares to others
- Where a score stands

Norming and Standardization

Norming means testing a large, representative group.

- Standard conditions ensure fairness.

TYPES OF NORMS

Percentile Norms - Show the percentage of people scoring lower.

Example: 75th percentile → higher than 75% of test-takers

Age and Grade Norms - Compare scores to typical age or grade performance.

- Useful but sometimes misleading.

National, Local, and Subgroup Norms

- National norms → countrywide comparison
- Local norms → specific schools or groups
- Subgroup norms → specific populations

Standard scores, correlation, test assumptions, and norms help turn raw numbers into meaningful information.

- Careful measurement allows fair comparison, accurate interpretation, and responsible decision-making.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: RELIABILITY

What Is Reliability? **Reliability** is the degree to which a test produces **consistent and stable results**.

- If you measure the same thing under similar conditions, a reliable test gives **similar scores**.

Reliability answers this question: "Can I trust this score to be consistent?"

A test score is never purely ability. It always contains:

- Real ability (true score)
- Measurement error

Reliability tells **how much of the score reflects real differences versus random noise**.

Example:

- You step on a weighing scale three times:
 - 60.2 kg
 - 60.1 kg
 - 60.3 kg

That scale is reliable

Now imagine:

- 60.2 kg
- 64.8 kg
- 58.9 kg

That scale is unreliable.

In psychology, inconsistency happens much more easily because:

- Mood changes
- Energy changes
- Attention shifts
- Motivation fluctuates

Common Misconception: "If a test is reliable, it is automatically valid."

Correction: A test can consistently measure the wrong thing.

Example: A bathroom scale that is always 5 kg off is reliable but not valid.

MEASUREMENT ERROR - Measurement error is the unavoidable difference between a person's observed score and their true ability.

Why Measurement Error Exists

Even when:

- The test is well designed
- The examiner is trained
- The instructions are clear

Error still exists because:

- Humans change constantly
- Psychological traits fluctuate
- Testing conditions vary
- No instrument is perfectly precise

In psychology, error is rarely trivial.

Example: You take an intelligence test today and score 105. Next week you score 100. Did your intelligence drop 5 points? Probably not.

That difference may reflect:

- Fatigue

- Anxiety
- Hunger
- Noise in the room
- Temporary distraction

TRUE SCORE vs OBSERVED SCORE

Classical Test Theory Formula: $X=T+E$

Where:

- **X** = Observed Score
- **T** = True Score
- **E** = Error

Observed Score (X) - The actual score you receive.

Example: You scored 85 on a psychology exam.

True Score (T) - The score you would obtain if:

- There were zero measurement error
- The test were perfectly precise

Important: The true score is **theoretical**. We can estimate it, but never observe it directly.

Error (E) - The difference between observed and true score.

If:

Observed score = 85

True score = 88

Error = -3

Every test score is a **mixture**:

- Some real ability
- Some random noise

Common Misconception

"The score I see is the person's exact ability."

No. It is only an estimate.

CARRYOVER EFFECTS - When earlier testing influences later testing.

Examples:

1. Practice Effects

- You get better because you remember questions.
- Familiarity improves performance.

2. Fatigue Effects

- You get worse because you're tired.
- Mental exhaustion lowers performance.

Why This Matters

If you retake a test:

- Score changes may not reflect real ability changes.
- They may reflect testing experience.

This makes perfect measurement impossible because: Time always moves forward.

CONSTRUCT SCORE vs TRUE SCORE

Construct - A **theoretical psychological concept**.

Examples:

- Intelligence
- Depression
- Anxiety
- Personality

Construct Score - A person's real level on that psychological trait — independent of any specific test.

True Score - True score is tied to a **specific test**.

Example:

- Your "true score" on the WAIS is different from your "true score" on another IQ test.
- But your construct score for intelligence is your actual intelligence level.

True Score	Construct Score
Test-specific	Trait-specific
Theoretical	The actual psychological level
Depends on instrument	Independent of instrument

A test can be:

- Reliable but not valid
- Never valid if unreliable

Reliability is necessary but not sufficient for validity.

TYPES OF MEASUREMENT ERROR

Random Error - Unpredictable and inconsistent fluctuations.

Examples:

- Sudden noise
- Hunger
- Illness
- Distraction

Effect: Reduces consistency.

Over many administrations, random errors cancel out.

Systematic Error - Consistent and predictable distortion.

Examples:

- Biased instructions
- Cultural bias in items
- Faulty scoring key

Effect: Creates bias.

Systematic error affects **accuracy (validity)** more than reliability.

Random Error	Systematic Error
Unpredictable	Predictable
Affects consistency	Affects accuracy
Cancels out over time	Pushes scores in one direction

SOURCES OF ERROR VARIANCE

A. Test Construction

- Poor wording
- Ambiguous items
- Unequal difficulty
- Different test forms

Example: A vocabulary test that includes rare words favors students exposed to them.

B. Test Administration

- Noise
- Lighting
- Temperature
- Examiner attitude
- Time of day
- Sleep quality

C. Scoring & Interpretation

- Subjective essay grading
- Interview ratings
- Creativity scoring

Training raters improves reliability.

D. Other Errors

- Sampling error
- Poor research design
- Biased survey questions
- Underreporting or overreporting

RELIABILITY ESTIMATES

Reliability is not guessed — it is **estimated statistically**.

Reliability estimates are expressed as **correlation coefficients**.

Test-Retest Reliability

Measures **consistency over time**. If you take the same test twice, will you get similar results?

Example:

- A student takes a memory test today and then takes the **same test two weeks later**.
- If the student scores about the same both times, the test has **high test-retest reliability**.

Important: Some traits like mood can change over time, so test-retest works best for **stable characteristics** (e.g., IQ, general knowledge).

- **Same test, different time**

Procedure: Same test, Same group, Two occasions

Best For: Stable traits (e.g., intelligence)

Weakness: Practice effects, Real change over time

Alternate-Forms Reliability

Measures consistency **between different versions of a test** that are supposed to measure the same thing.

Example:

- A teacher creates **Test A** and **Test B** on the same topic.
- Both tests cover the same concepts but use different questions.
- If students score similarly on both, the test has **high alternate-forms reliability**.

Why use it: Helps prevent cheating or memorization, because students can't just remember answers from the first test.

- Different test, same thing

Purpose: Reduce memory effects.

Challenge: Forms must be truly equivalent.

Internal Consistency Reliability

Measures whether **all items on a test measure the same thing**.

Example:

- A depression questionnaire has 10 items.
- Internal consistency checks if **all 10 items are related** to depression.
- If they are, the questionnaire is internally consistent.

How it's measured: Often with **Cronbach's alpha**, which ranges from 0 to 1. Closer to 1 = better consistency.

Methods:

- Split-half
- Cronbach's alpha
- KR-20 / KR-21

Most commonly reported reliability type.

Inter-Scorer (Inter-Rater) Reliability

Measures how consistent **different people scoring or rating a test** are.

Example:

- Two judges watch a gymnastics performance.
- If both give **similar scores**, the scoring has high inter-rater reliability.

Why it matters: Especially important for **subjective tests** (e.g., essays, performance, art, interviews).

- Different scorers, same result

Crucial for:

- Essays
- Interviews
- Behavioral observations
- Clinical ratings

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT - A number between 0.00 and 1.00 that indicates consistency.

Interpretation Guide

Coefficient	Meaning
.90+	Excellent (clinical decisions)
.80-.89	Good
.70-.79	Acceptable (research)
Below .70	Limited

- Reliability depends on sample.
- Reliability depends on context.
- Reliability is not fixed.
- Group-level statistic.

RELIABILITY AND INDIVIDUAL SCORES

- Reliability coefficients describe **groups**.
- But we make decisions about **individuals**.

Standard Error of Measurement (SEM) - An estimate of how much an individual score may vary due to error.

Relationship

High reliability → Small SEM

Low reliability → Large SEM

Example: Observed score = 100

- SEM = ±5
- True score likely between 95 and 105.
- This creates a **confidence interval**.

You should never interpret:

“This student is exactly 100 IQ.”

Instead:

“This student’s true ability likely falls within a range.”

RELIABILITY FORMULA (Variance Perspective)

Reliability depends on:

Reliability = True Variance/Total Variance

If:

- True variance is high → Reliability increases
- Error variance is high → Reliability decreases

A test is more reliable when:

- It captures real differences between people

- It minimizes irrelevant influences

ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS

As future psychologists and researchers:

- Never interpret scores as exact truths.
- Always report reliability.
- Use multiple sources of evidence.
- Use high reliability for high-stakes decisions.
- Acknowledge measurement limitations.

Reliability = consistency of scores

All scores contain error

X = T + E

Random error affects consistency

Systematic error affects accuracy

Reliability does not equal validity

Reliability is group-based

SEM helps interpret individual scores

Higher stakes require higher reliability

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: VALIDITY AND UTILITY

VALIDITY

Validity refers to how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure and whether the interpretations made from the test scores are appropriate.

In simpler terms:

A test is valid if it truly measures what it claims to measure — and if the conclusions we draw from the scores are correct and meaningful.

Important Clarification

- Validity is **NOT a property of the test itself**.
- Validity is about the **interpretations and uses of test scores**.

Example: If a math test contains mostly reading comprehension questions:

- Even if students consistently score the same way (reliable),
- It is **not valid** as a math test because it does not measure math ability.

Reliability	Validity
Focuses on consistency	Focuses on accuracy and meaning
Are scores stable and consistent?	Do scores measure what they should?
Can exist without validity	Cannot exist without reliability

- A test can be **reliable but not valid**.
- A test **cannot be valid without being reliable**.

Example: A bathroom scale that always shows 5 kg heavier:

- It is **reliable** (consistent error).
- It is **not valid** (not accurate).

TYPES OF VALIDITY EVIDENCE

Modern psychometrics (e.g., Cohen et al.) treats validity as a **unitary concept** supported by different kinds of evidence.

A. Content-Related Evidence of Validity - Content validity examines whether the test items adequately represent the entire domain of the construct being measured.

In simple terms:

Does the test fully and fairly cover what it is supposed to cover?

Key Ideas

- Requires **careful sampling of content**
- Often established through **expert judgment**
- Very important for:
 - Achievement tests
 - Board exams
 - Licensing and certification exams

Example: If a final exam in Biology:

- Covers only plant cells
- But ignores genetics, evolution, and ecology

The test lacks content validity because it does not represent the full biology curriculum.

Comparison: Content Validity vs. Face Validity

Content Validity	Face Validity
Based on expert evaluation	Based on appearance
Scientific judgment	Looks valid "on the surface"
Stronger evidence	Weak form of evidence

Many people think if a test "looks good," it is valid.

Face validity alone is **not enough**.

Common Problems

- Poor domain definition
- Overemphasis on easy topics
- Ignoring difficult but important areas
- Cultural bias in item content

B. Criterion-Related Evidence of Validity - Criterion-related validity examines how well test scores relate to an external criterion (real-world outcome).

In simple terms: Do test scores relate to actual performance?

Two Types:

1. **Predictive Validity** - Measures how well a test predicts future performance.

Example: College entrance exam predicting GPA, Pre-employment test predicting job performance

There is a time gap between test and outcome.

2. **Concurrent Validity** - Measures how well a test correlates with an existing measure taken at the same time.

Example: New depression test compared with an established depression scale, New IQ test compared with a standard IQ test

No time gap — both measures taken simultaneously.

Predictive	Concurrent
Future outcome	Present outcome
Time gap exists	No time gap
Used in admissions & hiring	Used in test validation studies

Important Concept: Correlation

- **Strong positive correlation** → Strong evidence of validity
- **Weak correlation** → Weak support
- **Zero correlation** → No criterion validity

A high correlation does not mean perfect prediction. It just means strong relationship.

C. Construct-Related Evidence of Validity - Construct validity refers to how well a test measures a theoretical psychological construct.

A **construct** is an abstract concept like:

- Intelligence
- Anxiety
- Motivation
- Self-esteem

Why It's Important: Most psychological tests measure invisible traits. Construct validity is the foundation of psychological measurement.

Evidence Supporting Construct Validity

1. **Factor Analysis**

- Statistical method
- Determines whether items group together as expected
- Confirms test structure

Example: An anxiety test should show:

- Physical symptoms factor
- Cognitive symptoms factor

If items don't group correctly → weak construct validity.

2. **Convergent Validity** - Test correlates with other measures of the same or related constructs.

Example: Anxiety test correlates with stress test.

3. **Discriminant Validity** - Test does NOT correlate strongly with unrelated constructs.

Example: Anxiety test should not strongly correlate with height.

Convergent	Discriminant
Should correlate	Should not correlate
Similar constructs	Different constructs

Both are necessary for strong construct validity.

Threats to Construct Validity

- Poorly defined construct
- Cultural bias
- Overlapping constructs
- Response styles (e.g., social desirability)

THREATS TO VALIDITY

1. **Poor Construct Definition** - If the concept is vague, measurement becomes weak.
2. **Inadequate Item Sampling** - Test fails to represent full domain.
3. **Cultural Bias** - Items favor certain groups unfairly.
4. **Misinterpretation of Scores** - Using test beyond its intended purpose.
5. **Inappropriate Norms** - Using norms from a different population.

UTILITY

Utility refers to the practical value or usefulness of a test in real-world decision-making.

In simple terms: Even if a test is reliable and valid, is it worth using?

Key Idea

Utility balances:

- Scientific rigor
- Practical constraints

Example: A highly valid intelligence test:

- Takes 8 hours
- Very expensive
- Requires licensed psychologist

Low utility in mass hiring.

Factors Affecting Utility

1. **Reliability and Validity** - Without them → no utility.
2. **Cost** - Affordable tests have higher practical value.
3. **Time Required** - Shorter tests are often more useful.
4. **Ease of Scoring** - Automated scoring increases utility.
5. **Acceptance** - If users don't trust it, it won't be used.
6. **Relevance to Decision** - Test must provide information that matters.

Utility in Decision Making

Utility is crucial in:

- Personnel selection
- Educational placement
- Clinical diagnosis
- Program evaluation

Example (Personnel Selection): Company uses:

- Cognitive ability test (valid predictor)
- Structured interview

If the test improves hiring decisions → **High utility.**

If it does not change outcomes → **Low utility.**

Validity	Utility
Scientific accuracy	Practical usefulness
Does it measure correctly?	Is it worth using?
Focus on interpretation	Focus on decision value
Necessary for utility	Requires validity

COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS

"Validity is a fixed property of the test."

- Validity depends on interpretation and use.

"High reliability guarantees validity."

- Reliability is necessary but not sufficient.

"If a test is valid, it is automatically useful."

- It may still be impractical or too costly.

"Construct validity is just one type among others."

- **Modern view:** validity is unitary, and construct validity integrates all evidence.

When evaluating a test, ask:

1. What is it supposed to measure? (**Construct**)
2. Does content represent the full domain? (**Content evidence**)
3. Does it relate to real outcomes? (**Criterion evidence**)
4. Does it behave like theory predicts? (**Construct evidence**)
5. Is it reliable?
6. Is it practical and useful? (**Utility**)

Validity = Meaning and accuracy of score interpretation.

Reliability = Consistency of scores.

Utility = Practical usefulness in decision-making.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: TEST DEVELOPMENT

TEST DEVELOPMENT

Test development is a systematic and ethical process of creating a psychological test that accurately measures what it is supposed to measure, produces consistent results, treats people fairly, and serves a meaningful purpose.

In simple terms: It is the careful step-by-step creation of a psychological tool that is scientifically sound and ethically responsible.

Test development is not just writing questions and giving them to people. It is a **scientific process** that ensures:

- The test truly measures the intended construct (validity)
- The results are consistent and stable (reliability)
- The test is fair to different groups (fairness)
- The test has practical use (utility)

- The test is used ethically

According to **Cohen et al.**, test development is both:

- A **scientific endeavor** (requiring theory, statistics, validation)
- An **ethical endeavor** (requiring fairness, cultural sensitivity, responsible use)

A test that is rushed, poorly constructed, or biased can harm individuals — through misdiagnosis, unfair selection, or incorrect conclusions.

Example:

Imagine developing a **depression scale for college students**.

If you:

- Do not clearly define depression,
- Write vague or biased items,
- Fail to test reliability and validity,
- Ignore cultural differences,

Then the results may label healthy students as depressed or fail to identify students who truly need help. That is why test development must be systematic.

STEPS IN TEST DEVELOPMENT

STEP 1: DEFINING THE CONSTRUCT - A **construct** is the psychological concept you want to measure (e.g., anxiety, intelligence, empathy). Defining the construct means clearly explaining what it is and what it is not.

This is the most important step. If the construct is unclear, everything that follows will be flawed.

Three essential components:

1. **Theoretical Definition** - What does theory say about this construct?

- **Example:** If measuring anxiety, are you referring to:

- State anxiety (temporary)?
- Trait anxiety (long-term personality characteristic)?

2. **Identifying Behavioral Indicators** - How does the construct appear in real life? **For anxiety:**

- Sweating
- Excessive worrying
- Avoidance behavior
- Difficulty concentrating

3. **Operational Definition** - How will you measure it?

- **Example:** Anxiety may be operationally defined as: "The total score obtained on a 20-item self-report anxiety questionnaire."

Without operational definition, the construct remains abstract.

STEP 2: ITEM GENERATION - Item generation is the process of creating test questions that represent the defined construct.

Items must come from a clearly defined domain of the construct.

For example, If measuring empathy, items may include:

- Emotional empathy
- Cognitive empathy
- Perspective-taking

Items should be:

- **Clear** - Easily understood
- **Relevant** - Directly related to the construct
- **Free from bias** - Not favoring specific cultural or social groups

Multiple formats may be used:

- Multiple choice
- Likert-scale items
- True/False
- Open-ended responses

Example:

Bad item: "Do you feel weird sometimes?" This is vague and unclear.

Better item: "I feel nervous when speaking in front of a group." This is specific and measurable.

Misconception: "More items automatically mean better tests."

Quality matters more than quantity. Poor items reduce validity and reliability.

STEP 3: PILOT TESTING - Pilot testing is administering the test to a small, representative sample before finalizing it.

The purpose is to examine:

- How participants interpret items
- Whether items are too difficult or too easy
- Whether any items are confusing or biased

The sample must resemble the intended population. If your test is for college students, pilot testing on working professionals is **inappropriate**. Weak or problematic items are revised or removed.

Example: During pilot testing of a memory test, you discover:

- 95% of participants get Item 5 correct.

This means the item may be too easy and not useful for distinguishing performance.

STEP 4: ITEM ANALYSIS - Item analysis is the statistical evaluation of each item to determine its quality.

Three major components:

1. **Difficulty Index** - Indicates how easy or hard an item is.

- High difficulty index = Easy item
- Low difficulty index = Hard item

Balance is important.

2. **Discrimination Index** - Measures how well an item differentiates between high and low scorers.

- **A good item:** High scorers answer correctly, Low scorers answer incorrectly

- If both groups perform the same, the item does not discriminate well.

3. **Internal Consistency** - Measures how well items relate to each other.

- Commonly assessed using reliability coefficients like Cronbach's alpha.
- If items do not correlate well, they may not measure the same construct.

Comparison: Difficulty vs. Discrimination

- Difficulty tells you **how hard** an item is.
- Discrimination tells you **how useful** the item is in distinguishing performance.

An item can be moderate in difficulty but poor in discrimination.

STEP 5: RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY STUDIES

RELIABILITY - Reliability is the consistency of test scores. If the same person takes the test again under similar conditions, the results should be similar.

Types of Reliability

- **Test-retest reliability** - Test-retest reliability checks if a test gives **similar results when taken at two different times**.
- **Internal consistency** - Internal consistency checks if **all the items in a test measure the same thing**. Do the questions "match" each other?
- **Inter-rater reliability** - Inter-rater reliability checks if **different people (raters) give similar scores** to the same behavior.

Example:

If a personality test gives you:

- High extraversion today
- Very low extraversion tomorrow (without major life change)

The test may lack reliability.

VALIDITY - Validity refers to whether the test measures what it claims to measure.

Types of Validity

1. **Content Validity** - Does the test fully cover what it is supposed to measure?
 - **Example:** An aptitude test predicting job performance.
2. **Criterion Validity** - Does the test relate to real-world outcomes? Does the test actually predict or connect to something meaningful outside the test?
 - **Example:** Anxiety scores should correlate with stress levels.
3. **Construct Validity** - Does the test truly measure the psychological concept it claims to measure?
 - **Example:** Anxiety scores should correlate with stress levels.

Reliability is necessary but not sufficient for validity.

A test can be consistent but consistently wrong.

STEP 6: NORM DEVELOPMENT - Norms are standards used to interpret an individual's score by comparing it to others.

Normative data must be collected from a representative sample.

Norms allow us to say:

- "This score is above average."
- "This score falls in the 85th percentile."

Types of Norms

Percentile Ranks - A percentile rank tells you how you did compared to other people. It shows the percentage of people who scored lower than you.

- **Example:** 85th percentile = scored higher than 85% of sample.

Standard Scores - A **standard score** is a score that has been converted into a common scale so it can be compared easily.

- Instead of raw scores (like 42 out of 50), it transforms the score into a number that shows how far you are from the average.

Age or Grade Norms - Age or grade norms compare a person's score to **others in the same age or grade level**. This makes the comparison fair.

- **Example:** A 10-year-old's IQ score must be compared with other 10-year-olds, not adults.

STEP 7: TEST FINALIZATION AND DOCUMENTATION - This step involves preparing the official test manual and usage guidelines.

The test manual must include:

- Purpose of the test
- Administration procedures
- Scoring procedures
- Interpretation guidelines
- Reliability and validity evidence
- Norm data
- Ethical considerations

Without proper documentation, the test may be misused.

ETHICAL AND CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS - Ethical test use ensures that assessments are fair, respectful, and appropriate for the intended population.

Key Principles

1. Tests must be used only for their intended purpose.
2. Cultural and contextual factors must be considered.
3. Test users must be properly trained.
4. Evaluation does not end at publication — ongoing review is required.

Example: Using an English-language test for students who are not fluent in English may measure language ability instead of intelligence. That is unethical and invalid.

Misconception: "Once a test is published, it is complete."

Tests require continuous evaluation and updating to maintain relevance and fairness.

WHAT MAKES A GOOD PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST?

A good test is:

- **Psychometrically sound** (reliable and valid)

- **Practically useful**
- **Ethically developed**
- **Appropriately interpreted**
- **Culturally fair**

Test development is a **systematic, theory-driven, statistically grounded, and ethically guided process** that ensures a psychological test:

- Measures the intended construct
- Produces consistent results
- Allows meaningful comparison
- Respects cultural differences
- Is used responsibly

It does not end at publication. It requires continuous evaluation and refinement.

I/O PSYCHOLOGY: MODULE 1

What is Industrial-Organizational Psychology?

Industrial-Organizational Psychology (I/O Psychology) is the scientific study of human behavior in workplace settings and the application of psychological principles to improve both employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

It studies:

- How people behave at work
- How to improve employee performance
- How to improve employee well-being
- How to improve organizational effectiveness

According to Rucci (2008):

The purpose of I/O psychology is to enhance the dignity and performance of human beings and the organizations they work in by advancing the science and knowledge of human behavior.

What This REALLY Means

There are **two equally important goals**:

1. Improve employee well-being (dignity)
2. Improve organizational performance (productivity)

I/O psychology is not just about profit. It is about **human-centered productivity**.

Why Work Matters So Much

Think about a typical day:

- 8 hours working
- 8 hours sleeping
- Remaining hours commuting, eating, relaxing

Work occupies roughly one-third of adult life.

If someone is:

- Stressed at work
- Undervalued
- Experiencing conflict

That emotional state spills into:

- Family interactions
- Physical health
- Motivation in other areas of life

This is why I/O psychology connects:

QUALITY OF LIFE → EFFECTIVENESS → ORGANIZATIONAL EFFICIENCY

If workers are psychologically healthy:

- They perform better
- Organizations become stronger
- Society benefits

I/O psychology exists to help companies exploit workers (X)

In reality, it aims to balance productivity with psychological health (✓)

PSYCHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES USED IN I/O PSYCHOLOGY

I/O psychology is not isolated. It applies multiple areas of psychology.

1. Principles of Learning - Learning principles explain **how behavior is acquired, strengthened, or changed**. This is largely based on behavioral psychology.

Core Mechanisms

- Reinforcement (reward increases behavior)
- Punishment (reduces behavior)
- Modeling (learning by observing others)
- Feedback

Work behavior is not random. Employees respond to consequences.

Example: If an employee:

- Meets sales quota
- Receives bonus

The bonus reinforces performance.

If another employee:

- Performs poorly
- Receives no consequences

Poor performance may continue.

Organizations are full of reinforcement systems — whether intentional or not.

Real-World Application

- Incentive programs
- Employee recognition systems
- Training programs
- Safety compliance programs

Learning vs Motivation

Learning	Motivation
How behavior is acquired	Why behavior continues
Focuses on reinforcement	Focuses on internal drives

Learning builds the behavior. Motivation energizes it.

2. Principles of Social Psychology - Social psychology studies how individuals are influenced by others. Workplaces are social systems.

Employees rarely work alone. They function in:

- Teams
- Departments
- Leadership hierarchies

Social influence affects:

- Decision-making
- Conflict
- Conformity
- Communication

Examples:

- Groupthink in management teams
- Peer pressure in productivity
- Social loafing in group projects
- Workplace bullying

Important Concepts

- Conformity
- Authority influence
- Group dynamics
- Interpersonal attraction
- Communication patterns

3. Motivation and Emotion - Motivation explains what drives behavior. Emotion explains how feelings influence work behavior.

Even if someone has:

- Skills
- Training
- Intelligence

Without motivation, performance suffers.

Emotion affects:

- Job satisfaction
- Burnout
- Engagement
- Turnover

Example: Two employees have equal skills.

Employee A:

- Feels appreciated
- Has growth opportunities

Employee B:

- Feels ignored
- Experiences unfair treatment

Employee A will likely outperform Employee B long-term.

Money is the only motivator. (X)

Psychological needs (autonomy, recognition, fairness) are powerful drivers.

(✓)

WHO IS AN INDUSTRIAL-ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST?

An I/O psychologist studies workplace behavior using scientific methods and applies findings to improve organizational systems.

What They Actually Do

- Conduct job analyses
- Develop hiring systems
- Design performance appraisal systems
- Measure employee satisfaction
- Study leadership effectiveness
- Analyze organizational change

They Are NOT

- Therapists
- Counselors
- Clinical psychologists

They do not provide mental health treatment.

- Clinical psychology focuses on mental disorders.
- I/O psychology focuses on workplace systems and behavior.

MAJOR FIELDS OF I/O PSYCHOLOGY

1. Personnel Psychology (Industrial Side) - Personnel psychology focuses on **matching the right people to the right jobs.**

Main Activities:

- Job Analysis** - Systematically studying:
 - Tasks
 - Skills required
 - Responsibilities

Without job analysis, hiring is guesswork.

- Recruitment** - Attracting qualified applicants. Poor recruitment = small talent pool.
- Selection** - Using tools such as:
 - Cognitive ability tests
 - Personality assessments
 - Structured interviews

Goal: Predict job performance.

- Performance Evaluation** - Measuring how well employees perform. Poor evaluation systems cause:
 - Bias
 - Low morale
 - Legal risk

2. Organizational Psychology - Studies how employees behave within organizational systems.

Topics Covered:

- Leadership** - How leaders influence motivation and performance. Leadership is not just authority — it is influence.
- Job Satisfaction** - How employees feel about their job. Satisfaction affects:
 - Absenteeism

- Turnover
- Engagement

- c. **Organizational Change** - Why employees resist change. Resistance is often:
- Fear of uncertainty
 - Loss of control
 - Poor communication
- d. **Conflict Management** - Conflict can:
- Destroy teams
 - Or improve innovation

Depends on how it is managed.

3. Human Factors / Ergonomics - Studies the interaction between humans and tools, machines, and environments.

Why This Is Important

Poor design causes:

- Fatigue
- Errors
- Accidents

Good design improves:

- Safety
- Productivity
- Comfort

Example: Redesigning cockpit controls to reduce pilot error.

HISTORY: THE Hawthorne Studies

Conducted at the Western Electric.

- **What Happened:** Researchers changed lighting conditions to see effects on productivity.
- **Surprisingly:** Productivity improved regardless of lighting changes.

The Hawthorne Effect - People change behavior simply because they are being observed.

Why This Matters: It shows that **human behavior is influenced by attention and social awareness**. This changed workplace research forever.

RESEARCH IN I/O PSYCHOLOGY

Research Concepts

Hypothesis - A specific, testable prediction. Must be measurable.

Theory - A broader explanation built from multiple studies. Theories guide hypotheses.

Experiment - Has Manipulation and Random assignment

- Only experiments can establish causation.

Quasi-Experiment - No random assignment. Used when full control is impossible. Common in real organizations.

Surveys - Measure:

- Attitudes
- Perceptions

- Satisfaction

Weakness: Self-report bias.

Archival Research - Uses existing records.

- **Strength:** Large datasets.
- **Weakness:** Data may be incomplete.

Meta-Analysis - Statistically combines results from many studies.

Key Terms:

- Effect size
- Cohen's d
- Correlation coefficient

Small effects can still have huge financial value.

INTERNAL vs EXTERNAL VALIDITY

Internal validity: Confidence that X caused Y.

External validity: Generalizability to real world.

Lab = high internal validity

Field = high external validity

Correlation does NOT prove causation.

Example: High engagement correlates with performance. But performance could cause engagement.

I/O Psychology is:

- Scientific
- Evidence-based
- Focused on both performance and well-being
- Deeply rooted in research methodology
- Concerned with systems, not therapy

It integrates:

- Learning
- Social psychology
- Motivation
- Statistics
- Research design

I/O PSYCHOLOGY: MODULE 2

WHAT IS AN ORGANIZATION?

An **organization** is a coordinated group of people who perform structured tasks to produce goods or services in order to achieve shared goals.

Although organizations are abstract entities (they cannot be physically touched like objects), they are real in function and impact. They possess structure, systems, culture, goals, and identity. Because they coordinate human effort, they are often described metaphorically as "alive."

An organization:

- Brings together individuals
- Divides work into tasks
- Establishes authority relationships
- Coordinates effort toward a common objective

Goals are achieved more effectively through **collective effort** than through isolated individual action. A single individual may struggle to produce a car, manage a hospital, or operate a university, but coordinated effort makes these possible.

The metaphor of life and death applies:

- **Growth** = expansion and success
- **Decline** = reduced performance
- **Bankruptcy** = organizational "death"

Examples

- A hospital coordinates doctors, nurses, technicians, and administrators to provide healthcare.
- A manufacturing company organizes production, sales, and finance departments to produce and sell goods.
- A university coordinates faculty, staff, and administrators to deliver education.

THREE MAJOR SCHOOLS OF ORGANIZATIONAL THOUGHT

1. **Classical Theory**
2. **Neoclassical Theory**
3. **Systems Theory**

Each theory builds upon or reacts to the previous one.

1. CLASSICAL THEORY

Classical Theory is an early 20th-century organizational approach that focuses on structure, formal relationships, efficiency, and authority to achieve organizational goals.

Classical theory emerged during industrialization when large factories required systematic coordination. It emphasizes:

- Order
- Efficiency
- Hierarchy
- Clear authority lines
- Division of labor

Organizations are viewed as **formal, mechanical systems**. Workers are treated as components of a larger structure. The central question is:

How should an organization be structured to maximize efficiency?

Four Basic Components of Classical Theory

1. **Differentiated Activities** - Work is divided into specialized tasks. Specialization increases efficiency because repetition improves skill and speed.

Example: In a factory, one worker assembles parts, another paints, and another packages.

2. **People** - People perform tasks and exercise authority. However, classical theory emphasizes their functional role more than their psychological needs.

3. **Cooperation Toward a Common Goal** - Individuals must coordinate rather than act independently.

4. **Authority** - Authority flows from superior to subordinate to ensure coordination.

CLASSICAL THEORY: FOUR MAJOR STRUCTURAL PRINCIPLES

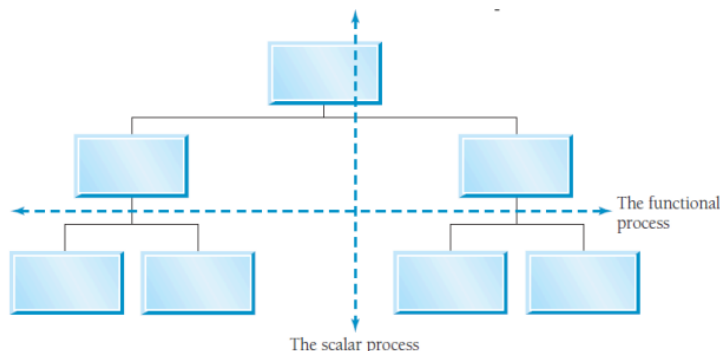
1. **Functional Principle** - Work is grouped according to similar activities or functions.

Division of labor creates departments such as:

- Production
- Sales
- Finance
- Marketing

This leads to **horizontal growth** of the organization.

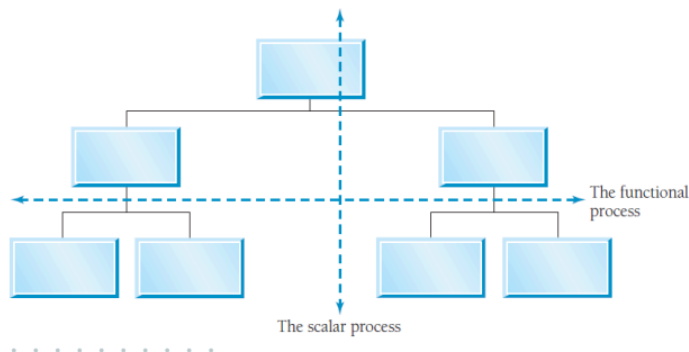
Example: A university separates departments into admissions, academics, finance, and student services.



2. **Scalar Principle** - Authority flows in a clear vertical chain of command from top to bottom. Each level has defined authority and responsibility.

- It supports **unity of command** — one subordinate reports to one superior. This leads to **vertical growth**.

Example: CEO → Vice President → Manager → Supervisor → Worker



3. **Line-Staff Principle** - Distinguishes between primary (line) and supportive (staff) functions.

- **Line functions:** Directly achieve core goals (production, sales)
- **Staff functions:** Provide support (HR, legal, quality control)

Example:

In a manufacturing firm:

- Production = Line
- Human Resources = Staff

4. **Span-of-Control Principle** - The number of subordinates directly supervised by a manager.

- **Small span** → **Tall structure**

- Many levels
- Close supervision

- **Large span** → **Flat structure**

- Fewer levels
- Greater autonomy

It affects:

- Communication speed
- Supervision quality
- Decision-making

Tall structure	Flat structure
<pre> X X X XX XX </pre>	<pre> X XXXXXXXXX </pre>
Levels 4	Levels 2
Span 2	Span 10

2. NEOCLASSICAL THEORY

Neoclassical Theory is a mid-20th century reinterpretation of classical theory that emphasizes human behavior, psychological needs, and informal social systems.

Developed in the 1950s and influenced by the **Hawthorne Studies**, neoclassical theory emerged as a reaction to classical rigidity.

Key shift: From structure → to people.

It argues that productivity depends not only on structure but also on:

- Motivation
- Job satisfaction
- Informal relationships
- Social needs

Organizations are viewed as **social systems**, not machines.

Neoclassical Critiques of Classical Principles

1. Division of Labor Critique - Excessive specialization can cause alienation. Highly repetitive tasks reduce meaning and personal fulfillment.

Consequences:

- Job dissatisfaction
- Absenteeism
- Lower productivity

Example: An assembly worker tightening the same bolt daily may lose engagement.

Correction Proposed More humanistic job design:

- Job rotation
- Job enrichment
- Greater autonomy

2. Critique of Scalar Principle - Formal authority is not the only source of influence. Informal groups and friendships strongly affect behavior. Employees may follow peer norms rather than formal orders.

Example: A worker may ignore a supervisor but follow group expectations.

3. Critique of Line Staff Principle - The neoclassical perspective argues that the distinction between **line** (directly achieving organizational goals) and **staff** (supporting functions) is often unclear and overly rigid.

In reality:

- The classification depends on the organization's context, industry, and strategy.
- Some staff functions (e.g., HR, IT, legal, compliance) are essential for survival.
- Many functions are highly interdependent, making strict separation unrealistic.
- Staff roles may strongly influence decisions even without formal authority.

Organizational value cannot always be neatly categorized as "primary" or "secondary." Both line and staff functions may be equally critical to effectiveness and long-term success.

4. Critique of Span of Control - The neoclassical perspective argues that there is **no single ideal number of subordinates** a manager should supervise. The classical theory assumed that efficiency could be achieved by identifying an optimal span of control, but real organizational situations are more complex.

The effectiveness of a span of control depends on several factors:

- **Leadership Style** - A participative or delegative leader may effectively manage a larger number of subordinates, while an authoritarian leader may require a smaller span due to close supervision.
- **Managerial Experience and Competence** - Experienced managers with strong coordination and communication skills can handle more subordinates than inexperienced managers.
- **Complexity of Tasks** - Routine and standardized tasks allow for a wider span of control. Complex, technical, or creative tasks often require closer supervision, leading to a narrower span.
- **Psychological Factors** - Employee motivation, maturity, independence, and group dynamics influence how much supervision is necessary. Highly self-directed teams require less direct oversight.

Span of control is situational rather than universal. It must be adjusted based on human, managerial, and task-related factors rather than applied as a fixed structural rule.

3. SYSTEMS THEORY

Systems Theory views organizations as complex, dynamic systems composed of interrelated parts that interact with each other and the external environment.

Developed by Katz and Kahn, and rooted in biological sciences, this theory compares organizations to living organisms.

Key idea: An organization is not a machine, but a living system.

Core principles:

1. **Interdependence** - All parts of the organization are connected and rely on one another. A change in one department affects others.
 - No unit operates in isolation. Performance, decisions, and problems in one area influence the entire system.

Example: If the production department slows down, sales cannot meet customer demand, which then affects revenue and financial planning.

Organizational effectiveness depends on coordination among all parts.

2. Environmental Interaction - Organizations continuously interact with their external environment.

- They receive inputs (resources, information, labor) from the environment and produce outputs (goods, services) that return to it.

External factors include:

- Market competition
- Technology
- Laws and regulations
- Economic conditions

Example: A company may change its strategy due to new government regulations or emerging technology.

Organizations cannot survive if they ignore external conditions.

3. Continuous Feedback - Organizations receive information about their performance and use it to adjust operations.

- Feedback helps identify whether goals are being achieved and whether changes are needed.

Example: Customer complaints may lead to product improvements.

Feedback allows correction, improvement, and learning.

4. Adaptability - Organizations must adjust to internal and external changes to survive.

- Adaptability involves modifying strategies, structures, processes, or technologies in response to change.

Example: Businesses shifting to online operations during economic disruption.

Survival depends on flexibility and the ability to evolve over time.

Assumptions of Systems Theory

1. All parts are interconnected.
2. Change in one part affects others.
3. Organizations depend on the environment.
4. Behavior must be understood contextually.

FIVE PARTS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEM

1. Individuals - Individuals bring unique **personalities, skills, experiences, attitudes, and personal goals** into the organization. These characteristics influence how tasks are performed, how others are treated, and how motivated individuals are to contribute.

- Motivation, competence, and attitude directly affect productivity.
- Individual differences create diversity in performance and interaction.

Example: A highly motivated employee can raise team morale and improve overall group performance.

2. Formal Organization - The formal organization refers to the **official structure of jobs, authority, rules, and reporting relationships**. It defines who is responsible for what and who reports to whom.

- Establishes order and coordination.
- Clarifies responsibilities and authority.
- Guides communication and decision-making.

It provides the framework within which all activities occur.

3. Small Groups - Small groups are **formal or informal clusters of individuals** who interact regularly within the organization.

- **Formal groups:** Project teams, committees, departments.
- **Informal groups:** Friendships, peer circles.

Groups help individuals adapt, share information, and develop norms that influence behavior.

Example: A project team collaborates to complete a task, while an informal social group may influence workplace attitudes.

4. Status and Role

- **Status** refers to an individual's rank or position in the hierarchy.
- **Role** refers to the expected behaviors associated with that position.

Status determines authority level, while role defines how a person is expected to act. For example, a manager (status) is expected to supervise and make decisions (role).

5. Physical Setting - The physical setting includes the **work environment, technology, tools, and infrastructure** that support organizational activities.

- Office layout influences communication.
- Technology affects efficiency.
- Infrastructure determines workflow capacity.

Example: An open office layout encourages interaction, while advanced technology speeds up task completion.

Interactions Within the System

All five components continuously interact:

- Individuals form small groups.
- Groups function within the formal organizational structure.
- Status and roles guide behavior and authority.
- The physical environment influences how work is performed.
- Feedback flows between all parts.

Because the system is interconnected, change in one part affects others. Effective interaction creates **stability**, while poor coordination leads to **instability or dysfunction**.

Goals of an Organizational System

1. Stability - Ensures that all parts function harmoniously and consistently. Clear structure, coordination, and cooperation maintain order.

2. Growth - Refers to expansion, development, and increased capability. Growth may involve increased size, innovation, or improved performance.

3. Adaptability - The ability to adjust to environmental changes such as market shifts, competition, or technological advances. Adaptability ensures long-term survival.

An organization operates as an interconnected system. Individuals, structure, groups, roles, and environment must align to achieve stability, growth, and adaptability.

1. Classical Theory

- Solved structural chaos.
- Emphasized order and efficiency.
- Ignored human factors.

2. Neoclassical Theory

- Corrected structural rigidity.
- Emphasized motivation and informal groups.
- Still relied on classical framework.

3. Systems Theory

- Integrated structure, people, and environment.
- Emphasized interaction and adaptability.
- Provided a holistic perspective.

I/O PSYCHOLOGY: MODULE 3

CLASSICAL THEORY

It developed during the **Industrial Revolution**, when:

- Factories were expanding rapidly.
- Thousands of workers had to be coordinated.
- Production was becoming mechanized.
- Efficiency meant survival in competitive markets.

Before this period, work was small-scale and craft-based. There was little need for formal structure. But once organizations became large and complex, chaos emerged:

- Workers performed tasks inconsistently.
- Supervisors relied on personal judgment.
- There were no standardized systems.
- Productivity varied widely.

Classical theorists responded to this problem with one central question:

“How can large organizations be structured and managed to operate efficiently and predictably?”

Their answer: through rational design, formal structure, and scientific principles.

THEORIES UNDER CLASSICAL THEORY

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT (Frederick W. Taylor) - a theory that applies scientific methods to analyze and improve work processes in order to maximize efficiency and productivity.

Taylor believed that work should not rely on tradition or “rule of thumb.” Instead:

1. Observe tasks scientifically.
2. Measure time and movement.
3. Identify inefficiencies.

4. Develop the “one best way.”
5. Train workers to follow that method exactly.

He separated **planning** from **doing**:

- Managers plan and design work.
- Workers execute tasks.

The organization is viewed like a machine—if every part performs optimally, output increases.

Major Contributions

1. **Time and Motion Studies** - Analyzing every movement to eliminate wasted effort.

- **Example:** Studying how factory workers lift boxes to reduce fatigue and improve speed.

2. **Scientific Selection** - Hiring workers based on ability, not favoritism.

- **Example:** Testing mechanical skills before hiring machine operators.

3. **Scientific Training** - Training workers systematically rather than leaving them to learn informally.

4. **Planning, Standardization, Specialization, Simplification**

- Plan in advance.
- Create one standard method.
- Assign specialized tasks.
- Remove unnecessary steps.

5. **Productivity Gains Benefit Workers** - Higher productivity should lead to higher wages or incentives.

6. **Reducing Physical Stress** - Work methods should minimize fatigue and strain.

7. **Eliminating the Traditional “Boss”** - Management becomes specialized:

- Planning department
- Training supervisors
- Technical experts

This limits unfair or random power.

TAYLORISM - The belief that there is one best way to perform any task, discovered through scientific analysis.

Misconception: Scientific Management is only about speeding up work.

Correction: It also aimed to reduce fatigue, improve fairness, and increase worker earnings.

BUREAUCRATIC THEORY (MAX WEBER) - Bureaucracy is a structured way of organizing work where authority is arranged in levels, tasks are clearly assigned, rules are written, and people are hired based on qualifications. The goal is to create fairness, order, and consistency.

Max Weber believed that big organizations, like governments or universities, need order to avoid confusion. Without structure, work becomes messy and unfair.

So he suggested a system where:

- Everyone knows who their boss is
- Everyone has a specific job
- Rules guide decisions
- Authority comes from a person's position, not personality

This is called **rational-legal authority** — meaning power comes from the role you hold, not because people like you.

Main Characteristics

1. **Formal Hierarchy** - There is a clear chain of command. Authority moves from top to bottom.
 - **Example:** In government offices, employees report to supervisors.
2. **Clear Division of Labor** - Each person has a specific task.
 - **Example:** In a court, judges decide cases, clerks manage papers, bailiffs keep order.
3. **Formal Rules and Procedures** - Written rules guide how things are done.
 - **Example:** Schools follow grading policies.
4. **Impersonal Relationships** - Decisions are based on rules, not friendships or favoritism.
5. **Merit-Based Employment** - People are hired and promoted based on skills and qualifications.
6. **Written Documentation** - Everything is recorded to ensure accountability and continuity.

Core Principles

- **Structure** – Organized chain of authority
- **Specialization** – Clear task assignment
- **Predictability and Stability** – Consistency through rules
- **Rationality** – Logical decision-making
- **Democracy** – Participation through formal systems

Myth: Bureaucracy is always slow and inefficient.

Truth: Bureaucracy is designed to create fairness and stability. It only becomes inefficient when there are too many outdated or unnecessary rules.

ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT (HENRI FAYOL) - While scientific management focuses on workers and how they do tasks, Fayol focused on **managers** and how they should organize and lead the whole company.

His main idea is simple: If managers plan well, organize properly, and lead fairly, the organization becomes productive and efficient.

FAYOL'S 14 PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

1. **Division of Specialization / Division of Labor** - This means work should be divided based on what people are good at. When employees focus on one type of task, they become faster and more skilled.

For example: In a hospital, nurses, doctors, and pharmacists have different roles. In an office, HR handles hiring, accounting handles money, and marketing handles promotion.

Because they focus on specific tasks, efficiency increases.

Connection to employment:

- **Employed** – working in your trained field.
- **Underemployed** – working, but not in your trained field.
- **Unemployed** – no job at all.

The more specialization matches skills, the better the performance.

2. **Authority and Responsibility** - Managers must have the right to give orders (**authority**). But they must also be accountable for the results (**responsibility**).

- Authority without responsibility can lead to abuse.
- Responsibility without authority can lead to stress and failure.

They must always go together.

3. **Discipline** - Employees must follow company rules and standards. Discipline is not about being strict all the time. It means:

- Clear rules
- Fair enforcement
- Respect between managers and workers

When discipline is fair, employees feel secure and organized.

4. **Unity of Command** - Each employee should have only one boss. If one worker receives instructions from two supervisors, confusion happens.

- One boss = clear instruction = less conflict.

5. **Unity of Direction** - All employees working on the same goal should follow one plan and one leader.

- **Example:** If a company launches a new product, everyone involved should follow one strategy, not different strategies.

This keeps everyone moving in the same direction.

6. **Subordination of Individual Interest** - Personal interests should not be more important than company goals.

- **Example:** If an employee wants to leave early but there is an urgent deadline, the company's goal must come first.

Team success should be prioritized over personal gain.

7. **Remuneration of Personnel** - Employees should receive fair pay.

Remuneration includes:

- Salary
- Bonuses
- Benefits
- Recognition
- Promotion opportunities

When employees feel valued and fairly compensated, motivation increases.

8. **Centralization and Decentralization** - This refers to who makes decisions.

- **Centralization** – Top managers make most decisions.
- **Decentralization** – Authority is shared with lower managers.

There should be balance. Large companies may decentralize more. Smaller ones may centralize decisions.

9. **Scalar Chain** - This means there must be a clear chain of command from top to bottom.

- **For example:** CEO → Manager → Supervisor → Employee

This ensures proper communication and order.

10. **Order** - There are two types:

- **Material Order** – Tools and resources are in the right place.
- **Social Order** – The right people are assigned to the right jobs.

If tools are misplaced or workers are assigned incorrectly, productivity decreases.

11. **Equity** - Managers must treat employees fairly and with respect. Equity means:

- No favoritism
- No discrimination
- Fair decisions

When fairness exists, trust grows.

12. **Stability of Tenure** - Employees should not frequently leave the company. High turnover causes:

- Loss of skill
- Extra training costs
- Lower efficiency

Organizations should retain workers to build loyalty and expertise. Progressive discipline often follows:

- Verbal warning
- Written warning
- Suspension
- Termination

This keeps fairness and order.

13. **Initiative** - Employees should be encouraged to share ideas and take action. When workers are allowed to think and suggest improvements:

- Creativity increases
- Confidence grows
- Innovation develops

Managers should not suppress ideas.

14. **Esprit de Corps** - This means team spirit. When employees feel united:

- Morale improves
- Cooperation strengthens

- Productivity increases

Team unity builds loyalty and organizational commitment.

KEY IDEAS IN ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

Administrative Management emphasizes:

- Managers drive success.
- Work is organized through departments.
- Planning and structure are important.
- Order, discipline, and coordination create efficiency.
- Management usually follows a top-down approach.

ELEMENTS OF ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

1. Line and Staff

- **Line positions** – Directly achieve company goals.
 - **Example:** Production workers, sales team.
- **Staff positions** – Support and advise line workers.
 - **Example:** HR, legal team, finance department.

Line does the main work. Staff supports them.

2. Committees - Committees are groups formed to:

- Make decisions
- Coordinate tasks
- Share ideas

They reduce the burden on one manager and promote participation.

3. Functions of Management - These are the main responsibilities of managers:

- **Planning** – Setting goals and deciding how to achieve them.
- **Organizing** – Assigning tasks and arranging resources.
- **Commanding (Leading)** – Guiding and motivating employees.
- **Coordinating** – Making sure all departments work together smoothly.
- **Controlling** – Checking performance and correcting mistakes.

Henri Fayol believed that: Good management + Clear structure + Fair leadership = Strong and efficient organization

His principles help managers understand how to properly organize people, assign work, maintain discipline, and build teamwork.

NEOCLASSICAL AND MODERN ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

Classical theory focused on structure, hierarchy, efficiency, and rules. It treated organizations as machines. But by the mid-20th century, researchers noticed a problem:

- Even in well-structured organizations, productivity varied.
- Even with perfect systems, morale sometimes declined.
- Even with incentives, motivation was inconsistent.

This led to a powerful realization:

Organizations do not succeed because of structure alone.
They succeed because of people.

Neoclassical (Humanistic) Theory emerged as a response to the rigidity of classical theory.

OVERVIEW OF NEOCLASSICAL / HUMANISTIC THEORY

Neoclassical or Humanistic Theory emphasizes that organizational effectiveness depends largely on human behavior, motivation, emotions, relationships, and personal growth.

Unlike classical theory, which asked: "How do we structure work efficiently?"

Neoclassical theory asks: "How do people feel at work?" "What motivates them?" "How do relationships influence performance?" It recognizes that employees are not mechanical parts but:

- Individuals with needs
- Emotional beings
- Members of social groups
- Contributors with personal goals

This theory integrates structure and human psychology.

Core Assumption

Productivity is strongly influenced by social and psychological factors, not just physical conditions or economic incentives.

NATURE AND BACKGROUND OF THE THEORY

1. Focus on Human Behavior - Human behavior in organizations includes emotions, motivation, attitudes, relationships, and group dynamics.

Why It Matters: Even if tasks are perfectly designed, people may underperform if:

- They feel unappreciated.
- They lack belonging.
- They distrust management.

Example: Two departments have identical resources. One performs better because the manager listens and supports employees.

2. Origins in the Hawthorne Studies - The Hawthorne Studies were the foundation of the Human Relations Movement. They revealed something revolutionary:

Workers are motivated by social attention and group relationships.

3. Importance of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship - Managers are not just controllers. They are social leaders. Supportive supervision increases:

- Trust
- Morale
- Engagement
- Performance

4. Emphasis on Individual Motivation and Goals - Employees have personal ambitions. Organizations perform better when individual goals align with organizational goals.

KEY THEMES OF NEOCLASSICAL THEORY

1. HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT - The Human Relations Movement emphasizes that employees perform better when their social and psychological needs are recognized and supported.

Researchers discovered that:

- Social interactions shape behavior.
- Feeling valued increases effort.
- Belonging influences productivity.

This movement shifted attention from "work conditions" to "human experience."

Example:

In a call center, Team A has a manager who:

- Recognizes achievements.
- Encourages collaboration.
- Organizes team bonding.

Team B has a manager who:

- Focuses only on quotas.
- Rarely interacts with staff.

Even if pay and lighting are the same, Team A often performs better.

Misconception: Being nice is enough to increase productivity.

Correction: Support must be genuine and combined with structure. Human relations complement structure, they do not replace it.

2. BEHAVIORAL MOVEMENT - The Behavioral Movement studies how managers' actions and leadership styles influence employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

It asks:

- How should managers behave?
- How do leadership styles affect morale?
- What behaviors encourage teamwork?

This movement recognizes that leadership style directly shapes organizational climate.

Example:

A manager who:

- Listens to employee suggestions
- Gives constructive feedback
- Encourages autonomy

Creates a more engaged workforce than one who relies on strict control.

3. INFORMAL ORGANIZATION - The informal organization refers to natural social networks, friendships, and alliances that form within formal organizational structures.

- **Formal organization** = official structure (departments, hierarchy).
- **Informal organization** = social connections (friend groups, alliances).

These informal groups influence:

- Communication flow
- Morale
- Cooperation
- Resistance to change

Sometimes informal groups are more powerful than formal authority.

Example: In an office, even if a supervisor announces a new rule, employees may wait to see how influential peers react before accepting it.

THEORIES UNDER NEOCLASSICAL /HUMANISTIC THEORY

ELTON MAYO AND THE HAWTHORNE STUDIES

In the 1920s and 1930s, researchers studied workers at the **Hawthorne Works** factory of Western Electric in Chicago. **The goal was simple:** find out what makes workers more productive.

- At that time, many managers believed that **money, lighting, temperature, and physical conditions** were the main reasons people worked harder.

But the results surprised everyone.

A. Illumination Experiment - Researchers changed the lighting inside the factory to see if brighter light would increase productivity. They tried:

- Increasing the light
- Decreasing the light

What Was Expected?

They expected:

- Brighter light → Higher productivity
- Dimmer light → Lower productivity

That sounds logical because better working conditions should help workers perform better.

What Actually Happened: No matter what they did to the lighting, productivity increased.

Even when the lighting was reduced, workers still performed better. This confused the researchers.

Why Did Productivity Increase: It was not really about the lighting.

Workers knew they were part of an experiment. They felt:

- Observed
- Important
- Chosen
- Special

Because of this attention, they became more motivated. They worked harder not because of the light, but because someone cared enough to study them.

B. Hawthorne Effect - The **Hawthorne Effect** happens when people improve their performance simply because they know they are being observed or given special attention.

1. When someone observes you, **you feel noticed.**
2. When you feel noticed, **you feel important.**
3. When you feel important, **your motivation increases.**
4. When motivation increases, **effort increases.**

5. When effort increases, **performance improves.**

So the improvement is psychological, not physical.

This showed that **human emotions and social factors** strongly affect productivity.

Before this study, managers believed:

- Better tools = Better output
- Higher wages = Better effort
- Better lighting = Better performance

After Mayo's findings, managers realized:

- Social relationships matter.
- Feeling valued matters.
- Group belonging matters.

Sometimes these are even more powerful than money.

Key Insights of Elton Mayo

Mayo concluded that productivity depends heavily on:

1. **Group Norms** - Workers are influenced by the behavior of their group.
 - If the group works hard, individuals tend to follow.
 - If the group slows down, individuals may also slow down.
2. **Peer Pressure** - People adjust their performance to fit in. No one wants to be seen as too lazy or too different.
3. **Morale** - High morale creates positive energy. Low morale reduces effort, even if wages are high.
4. **Positive Relationships** - When workers feel respected and supported by supervisors and coworkers, they perform better.
 - **Example:** An employee works harder during performance review month. Why? Because management is paying attention.
 - **Or in school:** Students participate more actively when the teacher is closely observing the class.

CHESTER BARNARD'S THEORY (FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS)

Chester Barnard believed that an organization works well when people willingly cooperate with each other to achieve a shared goal. This cooperation must be guided by leaders who are honest, morally upright, and good at communication.

- For Barnard, leadership is not just about giving orders. It is about earning trust so that people choose to follow.

Barnard focused on one major idea: **cooperation.**

- He believed an organization is not just a building or a system. It is a group of people working together. If people stop cooperating, the organization slowly weakens.

According to Barnard, an organization can only survive if five important conditions are present:

1. **Willingness to Cooperate** - Employees must choose to participate. They cannot be forced forever. If workers feel unappreciated or

mistreated, they may physically stay but mentally withdraw.

2. **Clear Common Purpose** - Everyone must understand why the organization exists. If goals are unclear, people move in different directions and confusion begins.
3. **Effective Communication** - Instructions, expectations, and feedback must be clearly shared. Poor communication creates misunderstanding and conflict.
4. **Moral and Trustworthy Leadership** - Leaders must show integrity. When leaders act fairly and consistently, people trust them. Trust builds loyalty.
5. **Authority Must Be Accepted** - This is one of Barnard's most important ideas. Authority does not automatically work just because someone has a title. It only works when subordinates accept it.

If employees do not believe in a leader's decisions, they may ignore instructions, resist, or comply poorly. In that case, authority becomes weak.

Example: A school principal.

If the principal clearly explains the school's vision, listens to teachers' concerns, and treats everyone with respect, teachers are more likely to cooperate willingly.

- They follow not because they are afraid, but because they believe in the leader and the goal.
- But if the principal constantly commands without listening, teachers may follow only minimally or lose motivation.

Barnard introduced a powerful idea: **Authority flows upward from acceptance, not just downward from position.**

- This means power is not fully controlled by the leader. It depends on whether people accept that power.

In simple terms: Position gives you authority on paper. Acceptance gives you authority in reality.

HERBERT SIMON'S BEHAVIORAL DECISION THEORY

A. Challenge to Classical Rationality - Herbert Simon argued that managers and decision-makers are not perfectly logical. Instead of making the best possible decision, they usually make a decision that is "good enough." He called this idea **bounded rationality**.

- "Bounded" means limited.
- Our rational thinking is limited by time, information, and mental capacity.

Traditional management theories assumed managers are fully rational. They believed managers:

- Have complete information
- Carefully compare every option
- Always choose the best solution

Simon observed that this is unrealistic.

In real life, managers face:

1. **Limited Time** - Deadlines force quick decisions.

2. **Incomplete Information** - Not all facts are available. Some data may be missing or uncertain.

3. **Mental Constraints** - Humans cannot analyze unlimited information. Our brains have limits.

Because of these limits, managers do not search endlessly for the perfect answer. Instead, they look for a solution that meets minimum requirements and is acceptable.

- Simon called this behavior "**satisficing**."
- Satisficing = satisfy + suffice
- It means choosing something that is good enough to work.

Example: A manager needs a supplier for materials. Ideally, they could:

- Research every supplier worldwide
- Compare every price
- Study every contract detail

But that would take too much time and energy.

So instead, the manager:

- Looks at a few options
- Picks the first supplier that meets standards and budget

That choice may not be the absolute best in the world, but it works. It is satisfactory and sufficient.

Simon changed the understanding of decision-making.

He showed that managers are human. They operate under pressure and limits. Decision-making is not about perfection. It is about practicality.

In simple terms:

Classical theory says: "Find the best possible choice."

Simon says: "Find a choice that works well enough under real conditions."

This makes his theory more realistic and relatable to everyday management situations.

MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

(Douglas McGregor introduced)

Theory X and Theory Y to explain how managers view their employees.

- **How a manager thinks about workers affects how they treat them — and how workers behave in return.**

These are not types of employees. They are **assumptions held by managers**.

THEORY X (Traditional View) - Theory X represents a more old-school way of thinking about workers.

Core Assumptions

A manager who believes in Theory X thinks that:

- Employees naturally dislike work and will avoid it if possible.
- People prefer to be told what to do rather than take initiative.
- Employees avoid responsibility.
- Workers must be closely supervised.
- Motivation mainly comes from punishment, fear, or money.

In short, Theory X assumes that people work only because they have to.

Managerial Style Under Theory X

Because of these beliefs, managers tend to:

- Be strict and controlling
- Give direct orders
- Monitor employees closely
- Make decisions alone
- Use warnings or threats to push performance

The work environment under Theory X often feels rigid. Employees have little freedom.

THEORY Y (Modern View) - Theory Y presents a more positive and modern view of employees.

Core Assumptions

A manager who believes in Theory Y thinks that:

- Work is a normal and natural part of life
- People can enjoy working
- Employees are capable of self-direction
- Many employees want responsibility
- People are motivated by personal growth and achievement

In short, Theory Y assumes that people can be trusted and want to do well.

Managerial Style Under Theory Y

Because of these beliefs, managers tend to:

- Encourage participation in decision-making
- Delegate tasks and authority
- Support employee development
- Provide guidance instead of constant supervision
- Focus on motivation and growth

The work environment under Theory Y feels more supportive and collaborative.

Comparison:

A Theory X Manager:

- Watches employees constantly
- Does not trust them to work independently
- Rarely asks for suggestions
- Uses fear or strict rules to control behavior
- Limits freedom

Employees may become quiet, dependent, or disengaged over time.

A Theory Y Manager:

- Trusts employees to complete tasks
- Delegates responsibilities
- Asks for ideas and suggestions
- Encourages skill development
- Provides feedback and support

Employees often become more confident and motivated.

McGregor did not say Theory X is wrong and Theory Y is always correct. Instead, he wanted to show that: **Managers' beliefs influence employee behavior.**

- If a manager assumes workers are lazy and unmotivated, they may treat them with distrust and strict control.
- Over time, employees may actually lose motivation and perform poorly.

If a manager assumes workers are capable and responsible, they give trust and opportunities. Employees often respond positively and try to meet expectations.

- This is sometimes called a **"self-fulfilling prophecy"** - People tend to behave according to how they are treated.

Theory X = Control

Theory Y = Trust

Theory X focuses on supervision and discipline.

Theory Y focuses on growth and empowerment.

STRUCTURAL THEORY

Structural Theory examines how organizations are formally arranged—how tasks, authority, responsibilities, and coordination are distributed to achieve goals efficiently and effectively.

Structural Theory asks:

- How is work divided?
- Who makes decisions?
- How is authority distributed?
- How do different units coordinate?

Unlike Classical Theory (which focuses on principles like hierarchy and specialization) and Neoclassical Theory (which emphasizes people and behavior), Structural Theory focuses on the **architecture of the organization itself.**

It views organizations as systems made up of interconnected parts. Each part has a role, and the way these parts are arranged determines:

- Efficiency
- Flexibility
- Communication flow
- Decision-making speed
- Organizational stability

One of the most influential structural thinkers is **Henry Mintzberg**, who proposed that every organization consists of five basic parts.

MINTZBERG'S FIVE BASIC PARTS OF AN ORGANIZATION

Mintzberg argued that regardless of size or industry, every organization can be understood through five core components:

1. Operating Core
2. Strategic Apex
3. Middle Line
4. Technostructure
5. Support Staff

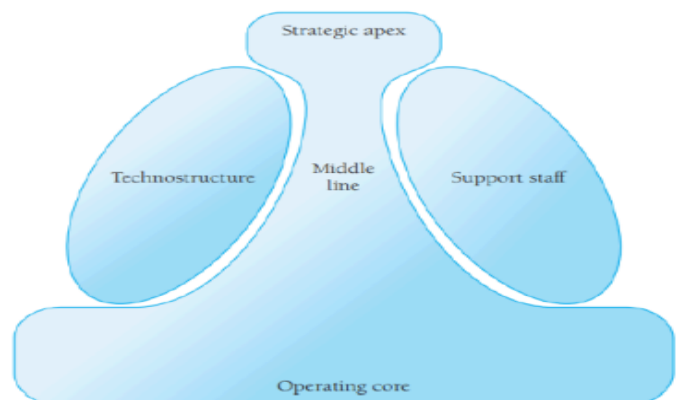


Figure 8-4 The five basic parts of an organization

1. OPERATING CORE - The **Operating Core** consists of employees who perform the basic work of producing goods or delivering services.

They transform inputs into outputs.

The operating core is the foundation of the organization. Without it, the organization cannot fulfill its purpose. These individuals:

- Directly create value.
- Perform essential tasks.
- Implement day-to-day operations.

Their work is usually specialized and guided by established procedures.

In many organizations, this group is the largest.

Examples:

- Doctors and nurses
- Factory workers
- Cooks and servers
- Teachers

They are the ones doing the “real work” that customers experience.

Misconception: The operating core is less important than top management.

Correction: The organization cannot function without the operating core. Strategic decisions are meaningless if no one executes them.

2. STRATEGIC APEX - The **Strategic Apex** includes top-level executives responsible for the overall direction, vision, and survival of the organization.

This part focuses on:

- Long-term strategy
- External environment
- Resource allocation
- Organizational survival
- Stakeholder relations

They answer big questions:

- Where is the organization going?
- How will it compete?
- How will it grow?
- How will risks be managed?

The strategic apex ensures alignment between internal operations and the external environment.

Examples:

- CEO
- President
- Board of Directors

They decide *where the organization is going*.

If the strategic apex fails:

- The organization loses direction.
- Resources are misallocated.
- Long-term sustainability is threatened.

3. MIDDLE LINE - The **Middle Line** connects the strategic apex to the operating core. It translates strategic decisions into operational actions.

Middle managers:

- Communicate goals downward.
- Report performance upward.
- Supervise and coordinate daily activities.
- Ensure strategy is implemented correctly.

They act as both messengers and managers. Without the middle line, there would be a disconnect between planning and execution.

Examples:

- Department managers
- Supervisors
- School principals

They turn plans into action.

The middle line ensures:

- Alignment between vision and action.
- Consistency across departments.
- Problem resolution at operational levels.

4. TECHNOSTRUCTURE - The **Technostructure** consists of analysts and specialists who design systems, procedures, and standards that influence how work is done. They do not directly produce goods or services but shape how production occurs.

This group standardizes and optimizes work through:

- Planning systems
- Performance measurement
- Training programs
- Budget control
- Process improvement

They increase efficiency through expertise. They influence the operating core indirectly by establishing rules and standards.

Examples of Departments in the Technostructure

- Accounting
- Human Resources
- Information Technology
- Legal Services
- Quality Assurance

Example: An HR department designs a performance evaluation system.

- The operating core follows it.
- Management uses the data for decisions.

The technostructure shaped behavior without directly supervising workers.

5. SUPPORT STAFF - Support Staff provide internal services that help the organization operate smoothly but are not part of core production.

These units handle supportive functions such as:

- Maintenance
- Security
- Cleaning
- Mail handling

They make operations possible by maintaining a functional environment.

Examples:

- Security guards
- Janitorial staff
- Maintenance technicians
- Mailroom personnel

Without support staff:

- Facilities deteriorate.
- Safety declines.
- Communication slows.

Though not directly producing output, they sustain the infrastructure.

HOW THE FIVE PARTS WORK TOGETHER

An organization functions properly only when these five parts are coordinated.

Example: Hospital Structure

- **Strategic Apex:** Hospital Director sets policy.
- **Middle Line:** Department heads implement policies.
- **Operating Core:** Doctors and nurses treat patients.
- **Technostructure:** HR designs hiring policies and Accounting manages budgets.
- **Support Staff:** Maintenance ensures equipment works and Security protects premises.

Each part has a distinct function, but all are interdependent.

Mintzberg's framework helps answer advanced questions:

- Where is power concentrated?
- Who controls workflow?
- How centralized is authority?
- How much standardization exists?

For example:

- If technostructure dominates → highly standardized organization.
- If strategic apex dominates → centralized decision-making.
- If the operating core dominates → professional autonomy (e.g., hospitals, universities).

COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT STRUCTURAL THEORY

- 1. Structure is just hierarchy.**
 - Structure includes systems, roles, coordination, and support functions—not just levels.
- 2. Only top management matters.**
 - Every structural part contributes to organizational stability.
- 3. Support staff are unimportant.**
 - Infrastructure failure can collapse the organization.

OPEN SYSTEMS THEORY

Before Open Systems Theory, many organizational models viewed organizations as closed systems—self-contained, internally focused, and largely unaffected by the external environment. But reality showed otherwise.

Organizations:

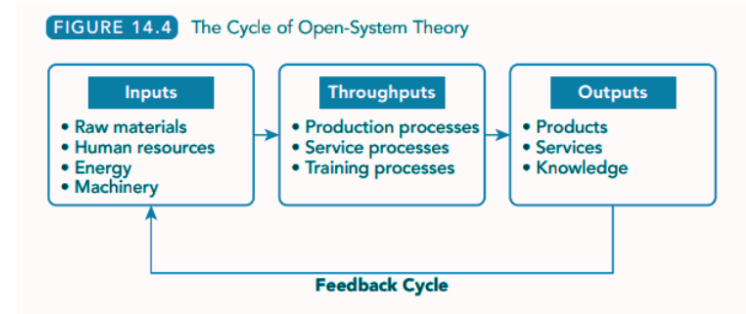
- Depend on customers.

- Compete in markets.
- Respond to government regulations.
- Adjust to economic crises.
- Adapt to technology changes.

This led to a transformative idea:

Organizations are not isolated machines. They are living systems constantly interacting with their environment.

OPEN SYSTEMS THEORY BY KATZ AND KAHN - Open Systems Theory views organizations as dynamic systems that continuously exchange resources, information, and energy with their external environment in order to survive and grow.



An open system:

1. Takes inputs from the environment.
2. Transforms those inputs.
3. Produces outputs back to the environment.
4. Uses feedback to adjust and improve.

Unlike closed systems, open systems:

- Depend on external resources.
- Are influenced by environmental changes.
- Must adapt to survive.

This theory emphasizes **interdependence, adaptation, and survival.**

THE INPUT-THROUGHPUT-OUTPUT MODEL - This is the structural core of Open Systems Theory.

1. INPUTS - Inputs are resources taken from the external environment to support organizational operations.

Types of Inputs

- Raw materials
- Employees
- Capital
- Technology
- Information
- Energy

No organization can operate without external resources.

Inputs provide:

- The foundation for production.
- The capacity to function.
- The fuel for transformation.

The quality and availability of inputs directly influence performance.

Example:**A university receives:**

- Students (human input)
- Tuition fees (financial input)
- Faculty expertise (intellectual input)
- Technology systems (technical input)

Without these inputs, it cannot function.

2. THROUGHPUTS (TRANSFORMATION PROCESSES) - Throughputs are the internal processes that convert inputs into outputs.

Throughputs include:

- Production activities
- Training programs
- Administrative coordination
- Decision-making processes
- Service delivery

This stage is where value is created. Efficiency and effectiveness largely depend on how well this transformation process is managed.

Example: Car manufacturer

- **Inputs:** Steel, labor, machinery
- **Throughput:** Assembly line production
- **Output:** Finished vehicles

3. OUTPUTS AND FEEDBACK - Outputs are the products, services, or results exported to the environment. Feedback is the information received about those outputs.

Outputs return to the environment in the form of:

- Products sold
- Services delivered
- Graduates produced
- Public policies implemented

Feedback then tells the organization:

- Are customers satisfied?
- Are profits increasing?
- Is quality improving?
- Are goals being achieved?

Feedback allows correction and adjustment.

Example: A car manufacturer sells cars (output). Sales data and customer reviews (feedback) reveal quality issues. The company adjusts production processes accordingly

Negative Feedback (Corrective Mechanism) - Negative feedback identifies deviations and triggers corrective action.

- **Example:** Low sales → Improve marketing → Adjust pricing → Upgrade product features.

Negative does NOT mean bad. It means corrective.

ENERGY FLOW - Energy flow refers to the continuous movement of resources between the organization and the environment.

Organizations require ongoing energy (resources) to survive. If inputs stop:

- Production halts.
- Employees leave.
- Operations collapse.

This constant exchange keeps the organization alive.

Example: A factory needs:

- Continuous raw material supply
- Electricity
- Skilled labor

If any of these stop, the system weakens.

NEGATIVE ENTROPY (MAINTAINING ORDER) - Negative entropy refers to an organization's ability to resist disorder, decline, or collapse by adapting and renewing itself.

Entropy means natural decay. All systems naturally move toward disorder unless energy is applied. Organizations fight entropy through:

- Innovation
- Strategic planning
- Skill development
- Process improvement
- Adaptation

Without adaptation, decline is inevitable.

Example: A retail company that fails to adopt online selling during digital transformation risks extinction. Companies that innovate (e.g., shift to e-commerce) resist entropy.

- Stability does not guarantee survival. Adaptation guarantees survival.

CORE PRINCIPLES OF OPEN SYSTEMS THEORY

1. EQUIFINALITY - Equifinality means that there are multiple paths to achieving the same goal.

- There is no single best way (contrary to classical theory).
- Different organizations can achieve similar outcomes using different strategies.
- This reflects flexibility and adaptability.

Example: Two car companies

- Company A uses highly automated production.
- Company B uses skilled manual craftsmanship.
- Both produce high-quality cars.
- Different paths. Same outcome.

2. DIFFERENTIATION AND INTEGRATION - Differentiation refers to specialization of functions. Integration refers to coordination among those specialized units.

As organizations grow:

- Departments become specialized (marketing, finance, HR).
- Complexity increases.

Specialization improves expertise. But without coordination, fragmentation occurs. **Integration ensures alignment toward common goals.**

Example: Marketing promises fast delivery.

- Production must coordinate to meet deadlines.
- HR ensures sufficient staffing.
- Finance allocates budget.

Without integration, specialization causes conflict.

Efficiency requires both specialization AND coordination.

3. ADAPTATION - Adaptation is the ability of an organization to respond to environmental changes.

The environment constantly changes:

- Technology evolves.
- Consumer preferences shift.
- Regulations change.
- Competitors innovate.

Organizations must:

- Monitor the environment.
- Adjust strategies.
- Redesign processes.

Failure to adapt leads to decline.

Example: During market disruption, many physical retail stores shifted to:

- Online platforms
- Delivery services
- Digital marketing

Those that adapted survived.

ORGANIZATIONS AS LIVING ORGANISMS - Open Systems Theory compares organizations to living organisms.

Like humans:

- They require energy (food/resources).
- They process inputs (metabolism).
- They produce outputs (activity).
- They receive feedback (sensory information).
- They adapt to survive.

This biological analogy emphasizes:

- Interdependence
- Growth
- Continuous change
- Environmental interaction

CONTINGENCY THEORY

Contingency Theory states that there is no single best way to manage, lead, or structure an organization. The most effective approach depends on the specific situation, environment, and context.

Earlier theories (Classical and even some Neoclassical ideas) often assumed:

- There is one best structure.
- There is one best leadership style.
- There is one best management method.

Contingency Theory challenged this assumption.

It argues:

Effectiveness comes from *fit* — the alignment between organizational practices and situational factors.

These factors may include:

- Type of technology
- External environment
- Nature of tasks
- Leadership context
- Organizational size
- Market uncertainty

If structure and leadership do not match the situation, performance suffers.

Why It Matters: Contingency Theory is practical and realistic. Managers operate in dynamic conditions, not laboratory settings. What works in one company may fail in another.

- This theory encourages flexible thinking instead of rigid adherence to rules.

Management effectiveness = **Approach + Situation Alignment**

HOW CONTINGENCY THEORY DIFFERS FROM EARLIER THEORIES

Classical Theory	Neoclassical Theory	Contingency Theory
One best way	Focus on people	It depends on situation
Emphasizes structure	Emphasizes relationships	Emphasizes fit
Universal principles	Human needs matter	Context determines method

Contingency Theory does not reject earlier theories.

It integrates them but asks: **When does each apply?**

JOAN WOODWARD'S CONTINGENCY MODEL Woodward studied manufacturing firms and discovered something important:

Organizational structure should match the type of production technology.

Her model applies specifically to manufacturing organizations.

Woodward's model states that organizational effectiveness depends on aligning structure (span of control, chain of command) with the type of production technology used.

SMALL-BATCH PRODUCTION (Custom or Specialty Items) - Production of unique or customized products in small quantities.

Small-batch production:

- Requires flexibility.
- Often involves skilled workers.
- Needs close coordination.
- Encourages creativity.

Because work is less standardized, managers must supervise more personally.

Structural Requirements

- Moderate span of control
- Short chain of command
- Closer supervision
- Less rigid bureaucracy

Example: Custom furniture shop

- Craftsmen design unique pieces.
- Manager works closely with artisans.
- Too much bureaucracy would slow creativity.

2. MASS PRODUCTION (Standardized, Large Volume) - Production of standardized goods in large quantities using assembly-line systems.

Mass production requires:

- Efficiency
- Standardization
- Predictability
- Clear procedures

Because tasks are repetitive and structured, larger spans of control are possible.

Structural Requirements

- Large span of control
- Long chain of command
- Clear formal procedures

Example: Automobile assembly plant

- Workers perform specialized repetitive tasks.
- Standardized processes ensure uniform output.

3. CONTINUOUS PRODUCTION (Chemical, Oil, Automated Systems) - Highly automated production that runs continuously with minimal interruption.

This type relies heavily on:

- Technology
- Monitoring systems
- Skilled technicians

Because systems are automated, supervision can cover even larger spans.

Structural Requirement

- The largest span of control
- High technical coordination

Example: Oil refinery

- Automated processing systems run 24/7.
- Engineers monitor systems rather than manually produce goods.

Key Insight from Woodward: Technology influences structure. A mismatch between production type and structure leads to inefficiency.

LAWRENCE AND LORSCH'S CONTINGENCY MODEL - Lawrence and Lorsch's contingency model states that an organization becomes effective when its internal structure matches the conditions of its external environment.

- In simple terms, there is **no one best way to organize a company**—the right structure depends on the situation the organization faces.

Lawrence and Lorsch focused on **environmental uncertainty**, which refers to how fast and unpredictable changes are in the market, technology, customers, or regulations. They explained that organizations usually fall into two main structural types:

1. **Mechanistic structure**
2. **Organic structure**

The key idea is **fit**:

- If the environment is **stable** → **mechanistic works better**.
- If the environment is **changing and uncertain** → **organic works better**.

A. MECHANISTIC STRUCTURE - A mechanistic structure is a **rigid, highly controlled, and centralized organization design** that works best in stable and predictable environments.

Characteristics:

1. **Formal rules**
 - Many written procedures and policies
 - Employees must follow step-by-step instructions
2. **Centralized decisions**
 - Top managers make most decisions
 - Lower employees have little authority
3. **Small span of control**
 - Managers supervise only a few workers closely
 - Tight supervision
4. **Clear hierarchy**
 - Strict chain of command
 - Everyone knows who reports to whom

When It Works Best: Mechanistic structures are effective in **stable industries**, such as when there is:

- Slow change
- Predictable customer demand
- Clear and consistent government regulations
- Routine, repetitive work

Example: Government agency

Why mechanistic fits:

- Work follows fixed procedures
- Authority is clearly defined
- Stability and consistency are very important
- Innovation is less urgent than accuracy and control

B. ORGANIC STRUCTURE - An organic structure is a **flexible, decentralized, and adaptive organization design** suited for environments that change quickly and are uncertain.

Characteristics:

1. Flexible roles

- Job duties can change when needed
- Employees often wear multiple hats

2. Decentralized decisions

- Decision-making power is shared
- Employees are empowered to act quickly

3. Larger span of control

- Managers supervise more people
- Less micromanagement

4. Informal communication

- More teamwork and collaboration
- Less reliance on strict paperwork

5. When It Works Best: Organic structures are effective in **dynamic and fast-moving industries**, such as:

- Technology
- Startups
- Fashion
- Creative industries

These environments require quick responses and innovation.

Example: Tech startup

Why organic fits:

- Teams collaborate freely
- Decisions are made quickly
- Roles change as the company grows
- Innovation is a top priority

FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL (Leadership)

Fiedler's Contingency Model says that a leader becomes effective not just because of their personality or skills, but because their leadership style matches the situation they are in.

- **In short: The right leader + the right situation = effective leadership.**

Fiedler believed that **there is no single "best" leadership style**. What works in one situation may not work in another.

Leaders Have Fixed Styles: Fiedler believed that leaders **do not easily change their leadership style**.

A person is usually:

- **Task-oriented** (focuses on completing the job) OR
- **Relationship-oriented** (focuses on people and teamwork)

He argued that instead of changing the leader, it is better to **match the leader to the right situation**.

The Two Leadership Styles

Task-Oriented Leader

- Focuses on tasks, goals, and performance.
- Gives clear instructions.
- Prioritizes getting the job done.
- Less focused on feelings.

Best question they ask: "Did we finish the work?"

Relationship-Oriented Leader

- Focuses on people, trust, and communication.
- Encourages teamwork.
- Cares about morale and harmony.
- Supports members emotionally.

Best question they ask: "Is everyone okay and working well together?"

Situational Favorableness - Fiedler said leadership effectiveness depends on how **favorable** the situation is. A situation is favorable when the leader has:

- Good relationships
- Clear tasks
- Strong authority

He identified **three important factors**:

1. **Leader-Member Relations** - This refers to **trust and respect** between the leader and the group.

- If members trust and like the leader → situation is favorable.
- If members dislike or distrust the leader → situation is unfavorable.

Good relationships = easier leadership.

2. **Task Structuredness** - This refers to how **clear and organized** the task is.

- Highly structured task → clear steps and clear goals.
- Unstructured task → unclear instructions and flexible goals.

The clearer the task, the more control the leader has.

Example:

- Assembly line work = highly structured.
- Brainstorming new ideas = low structure.

3. **Leader Position Power** - This refers to the leader's **formal authority**.

- Strong power → can reward, promote, punish.
- Weak power → little authority.

More authority = more favorable situation.

Contingency Theory teaches:

1. There is no universal best way.
2. Structure must fit technology.
3. Structure must fit the environment.

4. Leadership must fit the situation.
5. Effectiveness = alignment.

I/O PSYCHOLOGY: MODULE 4

WHAT IS MOTIVATION

Motivation refers to the internal and external forces that initiate, direct, and sustain behavior toward achieving goals.

- In the workplace, motivation explains why employees choose to exert effort, persist in tasks, and maintain performance over time.

Motivation answers three essential questions:

1. **Why does behavior start?** (Initiation)
2. **Why is behavior directed toward a specific goal?** (Direction)
3. **Why does behavior continue despite obstacles?** (Persistence)

Ability determines whether performance is possible. Motivation determines whether performance is consistent and sustained.

- **An employee may possess strong technical skills but still perform poorly if motivation is low.**
- **Conversely, moderate ability combined with high motivation often produces strong results due to effort and persistence.**

Motivation is not a fixed trait. It fluctuates depending on internal beliefs, workplace environment, feedback, and expectations.

Example: Two employees possess equal qualifications

- Employee A completes tasks quickly and seeks additional responsibilities.
- Employee B delays tasks and avoids extra work.

Ability is similar. Motivation explains the difference in behavior.

SOURCES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation comes from two primary sources: intrinsic and extrinsic.

A. Intrinsic Motivation - Intrinsic motivation originates from internal satisfaction, enjoyment, interest, or personal meaning derived from the task itself.

- Behavior is driven by internal fulfillment rather than external rewards. The activity becomes rewarding on its own.

Intrinsic motivation is powerful because:

- Effort is sustained even without supervision.
- Performance quality is often higher.
- Creativity and engagement increase.

The internal reward becomes the driving force.

Example: A teacher continues developing creative lesson plans because student understanding brings personal fulfillment. No bonus or recognition is required for effort to continue.

B. Extrinsic Motivation - Extrinsic motivation originates from external rewards or consequences such as pay, bonuses, promotions, recognition, or fear of punishment.

- Behavior is performed to obtain something desirable or avoid something negative. The task itself may not be enjoyable, but the outcome makes it worthwhile.

Extrinsic motivation is effective when:

- Clear rewards are linked to performance.
- Consequences are predictable.
- Goals are measurable.

However, when external rewards disappear, effort may decline unless intrinsic motivation develops.

Example: An employee works overtime to earn additional pay. The extra compensation is the primary driver of behavior.

Aspect	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
Source	Internal satisfaction	External reward or consequence
Sustainability	Often long-term	Often short-term
Example	Passion for teaching	Working for overtime pay

Both types can operate simultaneously.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES RELATED TO WORK MOTIVATION

SELF-ESTEEM - Self-esteem refers to the degree to which individuals value themselves and believe in their competence.

Self-esteem influences:

- Effort level
- Reaction to feedback
- Response to challenges
- Persistence after failure

Self-esteem shapes behavioral expectations. Individuals tend to behave in ways that confirm their self-view.

- **High self-esteem promotes challenge acceptance.**
- **Low self-esteem promotes avoidance behavior.**

Self-esteem does not equal arrogance. Healthy self-esteem reflects realistic confidence.

CHARACTERISTICS

High Self-Esteem

- Strong confidence
- Accepts challenges
- Persists through difficulty
- Accepts constructive feedback

Low Self-Esteem

- Self-doubt
- Avoids difficult tasks
- Gives up easily
- Fears criticism

Example: An employee who believes in personal competence volunteers for a difficult project and persists after setbacks.

- An employee who doubts ability avoids the same project and interprets small mistakes as confirmation of incompetence.

CONSISTENCY THEORY (Self-Consistency Framework) - Consistency Theory states that individuals strive to behave in ways that are consistent with their self-concept and self-esteem.

Behavior aligns with self-beliefs. Self-perception becomes a behavioral guide.

- **If self-belief is positive, behavior confirms competence.**
- **If self-belief is negative, behavior confirms inadequacy.**

Self-esteem functions like a self-fulfilling prophecy.
 Self-belief → Behavior → Reinforcement of self-belief
 This cycle strengthens over time.

Example of Self-Consistency

Self-Belief	Typical Behavior
“Capable and competent”	Accepts challenges, works confidently
“Not good enough”	Avoids tasks, performs below potential

Performance does not only reflect skill; performance reflects self-concept.

Misconception: Poor performance is always caused by lack of ability.
Correction: Poor performance may result from low self-esteem rather than low competence.

TYPES OF SELF-ESTEEM

A. Chronic Self-Esteem - A stable, long-term self-evaluation across most life situations.

- Represents a person's general self-view.
- Remains relatively consistent over time.

Example: An employee who generally views personal competence positively across work, relationships, and challenges.

B. Situational Self-Esteem - Self-worth that changes depending on the specific task or context.

- Confidence may vary across situations.
- Strong confidence in teaching may coexist with insecurity in public speaking.

Example: A manager confident in leadership but anxious during technical presentations.

C. Socially Influenced Self-Esteem - Self-esteem shaped by feedback, expectations, and treatment from others.

- Repeated messages from leaders, peers, and society influence self-perception.
- External evaluations can gradually reshape internal beliefs.

Example: Consistent recognition from a supervisor increases confidence and effort.

WAYS TO INCREASE SELF-ESTEEM AT WORK

1. **Workshops on Strengths and Self-Awareness** - Employees identify strengths and development areas. Clarity increases confidence and direction.
2. **Experience-with-Success** - Initial tasks are structured for achievable success. Success builds confidence. Confidence increases motivation for more difficult tasks.
3. **Galatea Effect** - Performance improves when individuals hold high expectations of their own potential.

- Internal belief drives effort and persistence.
- Self-confidence becomes a performance amplifier.

Example: An employee who believes promotion is attainable increases effort and skill development.

4. **Pygmalion Effect** - Performance improves when leaders communicate high expectations. Leader expectations influence:

- Opportunities given
- Feedback quality
- Support level

Employees take in and follow these expectations.

Example: A supervisor who communicates belief in an employee's leadership potential encourages higher performance.

5. **Golem Effect** - Performance decreases when others communicate low expectations.

- Low expectations reduce opportunities, feedback, and encouragement.
- Employees may internalize negative beliefs.

Example: A manager who assumes incompetence assigns only simple tasks, limiting growth and reducing confidence.

THE TRIANGLE OF EXPECTATION

Work motivation is influenced by three interacting forces:

1. Expectations from leaders → **Pygmalion Effect**
2. Self-expectations → **Galatea Effect**
3. Low external expectations → **Golem Effect**



High internal and external expectations create a powerful motivational cycle. Low expectations—internally or externally—create a limiting cycle.

IMPACT ON WORK MOTIVATION

High Self-Esteem Leads To:

- Higher effort
- Greater persistence
- Confidence during challenges
- Resilience after failure

Low Self-Esteem Leads To:

- Avoidance of difficult tasks
- Fear of failure
- Reduced effort
- Lower overall performance

Motivation is not only about rewards. Motivation is shaped by:

- Internal satisfaction (intrinsic forces)
- External rewards (extrinsic forces)
- Self-esteem
- Self-beliefs
- Expectations from leaders

Ability determines capacity. Motivation determines sustained performance. Strong motivation emerges when:

- Work feels meaningful
- Self-belief is positive
- Leaders communicate high expectations
- Early success builds confidence

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

(Theory advanced by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan)

A. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION - Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity because the activity itself is satisfying, interesting, or personally meaningful.

- Intrinsic motivation is internally generated. The task becomes its own reward. No external incentive is required for effort to continue.

This type of motivation strengthens when three psychological conditions are present:

1. **Competence** – Feeling capable of mastering tasks.
2. **Autonomy** – Feeling a sense of control over actions.
3. **Relatedness** – Feeling connected to others or to a meaningful purpose.

When these needs are fulfilled, work feels energizing rather than draining.

Intrinsic motivation produces:

- Deep focus
- Creativity
- Higher-quality performance
- Long-term persistence
- Greater emotional satisfaction

Because effort is rooted in meaning, persistence remains strong even without monitoring or supervision.

Example: A software developer voluntarily learns a new programming language because solving technical problems feels intellectually stimulating. A

nurse continues studying patient care techniques because helping others creates a sense of purpose.

Why Intrinsic Motivation Is Powerful: Intrinsic motivation aligns effort with identity. Work becomes part of self-expression rather than obligation. This alignment increases:

- Engagement
- Ownership
- Commitment

Long-term career success is strongly linked to intrinsic drivers rather than rewards alone.

B. EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION - Extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity to obtain rewards or avoid negative consequences.

- Extrinsic motivation is outcome-focused. The activity functions as a pathway to a desired external result.

Common external motivators:

- Salary
- Incentives
- Promotion
- Awards
- Performance evaluations
- Avoidance of discipline

Extrinsic motivation is highly effective when:

- Goals are clearly defined
- Rewards are contingent on performance
- Tasks are routine or structured

However, extrinsic motivation often depends on continuous reinforcement. When rewards stop, effort may decline.

Example: A salesperson increases daily calls to qualify for a performance bonus. An employee completes compliance training primarily to avoid disciplinary action.

Controlled vs Informational Rewards - Rewards perceived as controlling ("work harder or else") reduce intrinsic motivation.

- Rewards perceived as informational ("excellent performance demonstrates competence") may enhance confidence and intrinsic drive.

Intrinsic motivation builds internal commitment. Extrinsic motivation builds behavioral compliance.

- Intrinsic motivation supports creativity and long-term growth.
- Extrinsic motivation supports measurable short-term output.

Strong organizational performance integrates both forms.

MCCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

(Developed by David McClelland)

Motivation is shaped by three learned needs acquired through life experiences and cultural influences.

- Every individual possesses all three needs, but one typically dominates behavior.

- A. **NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT (nAch)** - Desire to accomplish challenging goals and excel according to standards of excellence.

Individuals high in achievement motivation:

- Prefer moderate risk tasks
- Seek measurable feedback
- Take personal responsibility
- Focus on improvement

Moderate difficulty tasks are preferred because outcomes depend on effort rather than luck. High achievement motivation drives innovation and productivity. However, **extremely high achievement may reduce delegation and teamwork.**

Example: An entrepreneur continuously sets higher revenue targets and measures performance weekly.

Common Misconception

High achievement motivation does not automatically indicate strong leadership ability. Leadership requires power orientation toward group goals.

- B. **NEED FOR AFFILIATION (nAff)** - Desire to build harmonious relationships and maintain social approval.

High affiliation motivation leads to:

- Strong teamwork
- Conflict avoidance
- Emphasis on collaboration
- Emotional sensitivity

Individuals high in affiliation value acceptance and belonging.

However, excessive affiliation motivation may lead to avoidance of necessary confrontation or difficult decisions.

Example: A team member prioritizes group consensus before finalizing a project plan.

- C. **NEED FOR POWER (nPow)** - Desire to influence others and shape outcomes.

Power motivation focuses on impact rather than personal achievement. Two types exist:

1. **Personal Power** - Influence for self-interest, prestige, or dominance.
2. **Institutional (Socialized) Power** - Influence used to advance organizational goals and collective success.

Institutional power is associated with effective leadership because influence benefits the organization rather than personal ego.

Example: A department head restructures workflow to improve productivity and employee development.

JOB EXPECTATIONS THEORY

Motivation depends on the alignment between expected job conditions and actual job experience.

Before employment, individuals form expectations regarding:

- Work tasks
- Workload
- Salary

- Organizational culture
- Growth opportunities

Motivation increases when reality confirms expectations. **Motivation decreases** when reality violates expectations.

The gap between expectation and reality determines satisfaction.

Expectation alignment strengthens trust and psychological stability.

Expectation violation produces:

- Frustration
- Disengagement
- Cynicism
- Reduced commitment

Example: An applicant expecting creative marketing tasks is assigned repetitive data entry. Misalignment decreases motivation regardless of pay level.

REALISTIC JOB PREVIEW (RJP)

Realistic Job Preview (RJP) involves providing accurate, balanced information about job demands before hiring. RJP communicates both advantages and challenges of a job.

Purpose:

- Prevent unrealistic expectations
- Reduce early resignation
- Improve job fit

RJP increases organizational credibility and psychological preparedness.

Employees entering with accurate expectations demonstrate higher adjustment and lower turnover.

Example: A hospital informs applicants about long shifts, emotional stress, and patient demands before employment.

Connection to “Quiet Quitting”

“Quiet quitting” reflects minimal effort beyond formal requirements. Often linked to:

- Expectation mismatch
- Perceived unfairness
- Lack of meaningful work

Expectation management reduces such disengagement behaviors.

JOB CHARACTERISTICS THEORY

(Developed by J. Richard Hackman and Greg R. Oldham)

Core Assumption: Jobs themselves influence intrinsic motivation. Motivation increases when job design creates psychological fulfillment.

Psychological States

1. Experienced Meaningfulness
2. Experienced Responsibility
3. Knowledge of Results

When these states exist, intrinsic motivation strengthens.

FIVE CORE JOB CHARACTERISTICS

1. **Skill Variety** - Use of multiple skills and talents.
 - Higher variety increases meaningfulness.
 - Low variety leads to monotony.
2. **Task Identity** - Completion of a whole piece of work.
 - Seeing a complete outcome strengthens ownership.
3. **Task Significance** - Degree to which work impacts others.
 - Perceived importance enhances motivation.
4. **Autonomy** - Freedom in scheduling and decision-making.
 - Autonomy increases responsibility and ownership.
5. **Feedback** - Clear information about performance effectiveness.
 - Feedback strengthens learning and improvement.

“Wanda” Example (Low Motivation Case)

Eight hours daily sewing shirt tags.

Low:

- Skill variety
- Task identity
- Task significance
- Autonomy
- Feedback

Psychological result:

- Low meaningfulness
- Low responsibility
- Limited performance awareness

Outcome: Reduced intrinsic motivation

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

(Proposed by Abraham Maslow)

Human behavior is driven by a progression of needs. Lower-level needs require satisfaction before higher-level needs become dominant motivators.

A. Existence Needs (*Physiological and Safety Needs*) - Existence needs refer to basic survival requirements such as food, water, shelter, safety, and physical security.

- Survival is the foundation of motivation. When survival or safety is threatened, higher-level ambitions lose priority.

In organizational settings, existence needs translate into:

- Fair salary
- Job security
- Safe working conditions
- Stable employment

Unmet existence needs produce anxiety and stress, reducing focus on achievement or growth.

Example: An employee worried about sudden termination focuses on job stability rather than innovation or leadership development.

B. Relatedness Needs (*Love, Belongingness, Social Needs*) - Relatedness needs involve maintaining meaningful relationships, social connections, and social status.

- Humans seek acceptance, belonging, and positive social identity. Social isolation weakens motivation even when salary and security are adequate.

In the workplace, relatedness appears as:

- Team belonging
- Peer support
- Recognition
- Positive workplace culture

When relatedness is satisfied, commitment and engagement strengthen.

Example: An employee remains in a company primarily because of strong team relationships despite receiving higher external offers.

C. Growth Needs (*Esteem and Self-Actualization*) - Growth needs involve the desire for personal development, competence, creativity, and fulfillment of potential.

- Growth needs represent intrinsic motivation. Focus shifts from survival and belonging to mastery and self-improvement.

In the workplace, growth needs appear as:

- Desire for promotion
- Creative problem-solving
- Skill development
- Leadership aspiration

Growth motivation leads to innovation and high performance.

Example: A manager enrolls in advanced leadership training despite already holding a secure position.

ERG THEORY

(Developed by Clayton Alderfer)

ERG Theory is a motivation theory that simplifies Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs into **three core categories**:

1. **Existence**
2. **Relatedness**
3. **Growth**

Unlike Maslow's model, ERG does **not require strict step-by-step progression**. A person can pursue multiple needs at the same time.

The Three Needs

1. Existence Needs - These refer to basic material and physiological desires necessary for survival and security.

They include:

- Salary and financial stability
- Safe working conditions
- Job security

- Benefits (healthcare, insurance)

In the workplace, employees often prioritize existence needs when they feel uncertain or financially pressured.

2. Relatedness Needs - These focus on relationships and social interactions.

They include:

- Good relationships with coworkers
- Support from supervisors
- Recognition
- Sense of belonging

People are motivated when they feel valued, connected, and respected in their work environment.

3. Growth Needs - These involve personal development and self-fulfillment.

They include:

- Career advancement
- Skill development
- Challenging tasks
- Creativity and autonomy

Growth needs push individuals toward improvement and achieving their full potential.

The Frustration-Regression Principle (Key Feature of ERG) - What makes ERG Theory more realistic.

- If a **higher-level need is frustrated**, a person may **regress** to focusing on lower-level needs that are easier to satisfy.

Example: An employee wants a promotion (Growth need). If the promotion is denied, the employee may:

- Demand higher salary (Existence need), or
- Seek stronger workplace relationships (Relatedness need)

Instead of moving upward in a fixed ladder, people shift their focus based on what feels attainable.

Why ERG Is More Realistic Than Maslow

In real organizations, employees:

- Want promotion and friendship at the same time
- May seek higher pay after being denied advancement
- Do not always move in a straight upward path

ERG explains this better than Maslow's rigid structure.

Example: Imagine an employee who wants to become a team leader (Growth need). The company rejects the promotion request. Instead of giving up, the employee:

- Negotiates for higher pay (Existence need), or
- Builds stronger alliances with coworkers (Relatedness need)

This shift in focus demonstrates **frustration-regression**.

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

(Proposed by Frederick Herzberg)

Herzberg proposed that **job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not opposites of each other**. Instead, they are influenced by **two completely different sets of factors**.

This means:

- Removing dissatisfaction does **not automatically create satisfaction**.
- Increasing satisfaction does **not automatically remove dissatisfaction**.

They operate on **two separate continua**, not one single line.

A. Hygiene Factors (Prevent Dissatisfaction) - Hygiene factors are **job context factors** — the environment surrounding the job.

- They do not motivate employees to perform better, but they prevent them from becoming unhappy.

They keep the workplace stable but do not inspire excellence.

Examples:

- Salary
- Benefits
- Company policies
- Supervision quality
- Working conditions
- Job security
- Interpersonal relationships

Hygiene factors are connected to the **conditions of employment**, not the actual work itself.

When hygiene factors are:

- **Poor or absent** → Employees feel dissatisfied.
- **Adequate or good** → Employees feel neutral (not dissatisfied, but not highly motivated either).

For example:

- If the salary is very low → employees complain.
- If the salary is fair → employees stop complaining.
- But even with a high salary → employees may still feel bored or unfulfilled.

So salary prevents dissatisfaction, but it does not automatically create passion or commitment.

B. Motivators (Create Satisfaction) - Motivators are **job content factors** — elements related to the actual work itself.

- These factors create real satisfaction and internal motivation.
- They fulfill psychological growth needs.

Examples:

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Advancement
- Meaningful work
- Responsibility

Motivators are linked to:

- Accomplishment
- Mastery
- Purpose
- Growth

These factors produce **intrinsic motivation**, meaning motivation that comes from within.

For example:

- Completing a challenging project successfully creates achievement.
- Being promoted creates advancement.
- Being trusted with leadership responsibility creates pride.
- Being recognized publicly creates fulfillment.

These experiences make employees say:

"I feel proud of my work."
 "I enjoy what I do."
 "I feel important here."

This is genuine job satisfaction.

Herzberg found that people become truly motivated not because of salary, but because they feel:

- Competent
- Valued
- Responsible
- Growing

Hygiene Factors	Motivators
Prevent dissatisfaction	Create satisfaction
Related to job environment	Related to the work itself
Extrinsic (external)	Intrinsic (internal)
Example: Salary	Example: Achievement
Create neutrality	Create enthusiasm

You can eliminate dissatisfaction without creating motivation.

For example: An employee receives:

- Good pay
- Good office
- Good benefits

But if the **job is repetitive and meaningless**, the employee may still feel **bored**. On the other hand: **An employee may accept moderate pay but feel highly motivated because:**

- The job is meaningful
- They are trusted
- They are recognized

Why This Theory Is Important

Herzberg's theory teaches managers that:

1. First, remove dissatisfaction (fix hygiene problems).

2. Then, create motivation (add meaningful work and responsibility).

A company that only increases salary but ignores growth opportunities will not create highly motivated employees. True engagement comes from meaningful contribution — not just compensation.

McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory (Application)

(Work of David McClelland)

McClelland proposed that people are primarily driven by **three learned needs**:

1. **Need for Achievement (nAch)**
2. **Need for Power (nPow)**
3. **Need for Affiliation (nAff)**

These needs are **not inborn** but are developed through life experiences and culture. The application in management is simple but powerful:

Managers improve employee performance by assigning roles that match the employee's dominant motivational need.

When a person's job aligns with their strongest need:

- Performance increases
- Job satisfaction improves
- Motivation becomes self-sustaining

Incentive Program Effectiveness

Incentives are rewards designed to increase desired behavior. However, they only work if properly structured.

Key Factors That Make Incentives Effective

1. **Timing of Incentive** - The reward must be given **immediately or soon after the behavior**.

- **Why:** Behavioral psychology shows that reinforcement loses strength when delayed.

Example: If an employee achieves a target today but receives a bonus 6 months later, the motivational impact weakens.

2. **Immediate Feedback** - People need to know:

- What they did right
- Why they are being rewarded

Feedback strengthens learning and repetition of behavior. Without feedback, incentives become unclear and less motivating.

3. **Clear Link Between Behavior and Consequence** - Employees must clearly see: **"If I do X behavior, I will receive Y reward."**

If rewards seem random or unfair:

- Motivation decreases
- Perceived injustice increases
- Trust declines

Types of Incentives

1. **Financial Incentives**

- Bonuses
- Salary increases

- Commission
- Performance pay

Best for measurable, performance-based tasks.

2. **Recognition** - Public acknowledgment of achievement.

Example:

- Employee of the Month
- Award ceremonies

Recognition strengthens self-esteem and status.

3. **Social Recognition** - More personal and relational.

Example:

- Verbal appreciation from supervisor
- Thank-you messages
- Public praise during meetings

Sometimes social recognition is more powerful than money, especially for high-affiliation individuals.

4. **Travel Rewards** - Trips or experiences given as rewards.

Effective because:

- They are memorable
- They signal prestige
- They combine financial and emotional value

Premack Principle (Grandma's Rule)

The Premack Principle states: A preferred activity can reinforce a less preferred activity.

In simple terms: "If you finish your work, you can do something you enjoy."

Example:

- If you complete your report, you may leave early.
- If you meet your quota, you earn a trip.

The enjoyable activity becomes the reward that strengthens the less enjoyable task.

This principle explains why:

- Breaks are used as rewards
- Gaming time is used to reinforce homework
- Flexible schedules motivate task completion

Goal-Setting Theory

(Developed by Edwin Locke)

Specific and challenging goals lead to higher performance than vague or easy goals. This means people perform better when they know exactly what they are aiming for and when the goal pushes them to stretch their abilities.

- Goal-Setting Theory explains that performance improves when individuals pursue **clear, challenging, and well-defined goals** instead of general or ambiguous ones.

Simply put: When people know *what* to do and *how well* they must do it, they are more likely to succeed.

Goals act as **psychological regulators** — they guide thinking, effort, and behavior.

According to Locke, goals influence performance in four major ways:

1. **Direction of Attention** - Clear goals focus attention on relevant tasks and reduce distractions.

- If your goal is specific, your mind automatically filters out activities that do not contribute to achieving it.

Example: If a student's goal is "Score 90% on the board exam," their attention shifts toward reviewing difficult topics instead of casually browsing notes.

2. **Effort Mobilization** - Challenging goals require greater energy investment.

- When a goal is difficult but achievable, people exert more effort compared to when a goal is easy. Easy goals do not demand extra energy.

Example: A salesperson aiming for a 5% increase may not change behavior much. But aiming for a 20% increase may push them to contact more clients, improve strategies, and work longer hours.

3. **Persistence** - Clear goals increase determination during obstacles.

- When people have a clear target, they are more likely to persist even when facing difficulty because they understand what they are working toward.

Without a clear goal, people give up easily since there is no concrete benchmark.

4. **Strategy Development** - Specific goals encourage planning and problem-solving.

When a goal is precise, individuals naturally ask:

- "What strategy should I use?"
- "What steps do I need to take?"
- "What skills must I improve?"

Vague goals like "Do better" do not stimulate planning because they do not specify what "better" means.

Why Vague Goals Fail

A goal such as "Try harder" or "Do your best" lacks:

- Clear standards
- Measurement criteria
- Direction

Because there is no clear endpoint, behavior remains unfocused and inconsistent.

The Importance of Challenge

Goals must be **challenging but realistic**.

- Too easy → No motivation, no growth.
- Too difficult → Frustration, discouragement.
- Moderately difficult → Maximum motivation and performance.

The key is balance. The goal should stretch abilities without being impossible.

SMART Goals Framework

To make goals effective, they should follow the SMART principle:

- **Specific** – Clearly defined target
- **Measurable** – Quantifiable criteria
- **Attainable** – Realistically achievable
- **Relevant** – Aligned with broader objectives
- **Time-bound** – Clear deadline

Example:

Vague Goal: “Improve sales.”

This does not explain:

- By how much?
- By when?
- Using what standard?

SMART Goal: “Increase monthly sales revenue by 15% within the next quarter.”

This version:

- Provides a clear percentage (Measurable)
- Sets a time frame (Time-bound)
- Clarifies performance expectation (Specific)

Because expectations are defined, behavior becomes focused and strategic.

EQUITY THEORY

(Proposed by John Stacey Adams)

Equity Theory explains that people are motivated not just by how much they receive, but by whether what they receive feels **fair compared to others**. Employees constantly and unconsciously ask:

“Is what I’m getting proportional to what I’m giving — compared to others?”

It is not the amount alone that drives motivation. It is the **comparison**.

Equity Theory states that motivation is influenced by a person’s perception of fairness between:

- **Inputs** (what they contribute)
- **Outputs** (what they receive in return)

If a person believes the exchange is fair, motivation remains stable.

- If the person believes it is unfair, tension occurs, and behavior changes to restore fairness.

The key word here is **perception**. Even if the system is objectively fair, if someone *perceives* unfairness, motivation will still be affected.

Key Elements

1. **Inputs** - These are what the employee contributes to the organization. Examples include:

- Effort
- Time
- Skills
- Experience
- Education
- Loyalty

- Hard work
- Creativity

Inputs are not just physical effort — they include emotional and intellectual contributions too.

2. **Outputs** - These are what the employee receives in return. Examples include:

- Salary
- Bonuses
- Recognition
- Promotions
- Benefits
- Job security
- Praise
- Respect

Outputs are not limited to money. Psychological rewards matter just as much.

3. **Equity** - Equity means the employee believes: **“What I receive is proportional to what I give, compared to others.”**

When equity exists:

- Employees feel valued.
- Motivation remains steady.
- Job satisfaction increases.
- Trust in management strengthens.

4. **Inequity** - Inequity is perceived unfairness. It happens when:

- Someone believes they give more but receive less.
- Someone believes they give less but receive more (this can also create discomfort).

Inequity creates **psychological tension**. Humans naturally want balance. When balance is disturbed, action follows.

What Happens When Inequity Occurs?

When unfairness is perceived, individuals try to restore balance. They may:

1. **Reduce Inputs**

- Work slower
- Stop volunteering
- Do only minimum requirements
- Arrive late or leave early

Example: “If I’m underpaid, I won’t overwork.”

2. **Increase Outputs**

- Ask for a raise
- Request promotion
- Demand recognition

3. **Change Comparison Target** - They may stop comparing themselves to a high-paid coworker and instead compare with someone at a similar level. This psychologically reduces tension.

4. **Distort Perception** - They may convince themselves:

- “Maybe the other person has more responsibilities.”

- "Maybe they have more experience."

5. Withdraw

- Absenteeism
- Quiet quitting
- Resignation

Turnover is one of the strongest consequences of inequity.

Why Perception Matters More Than Objective Reality

A company may:

- Have a structured salary system
- Follow standard pay scales
- Provide equal benefits

But if employees **believe** favoritism exists, inequity is still felt. Motivation is driven by perceived fairness, not accounting records. This makes communication and transparency very important in leadership.

Example: Two employees perform the same job.

Both:

- Have similar experience
- Handle similar workloads
- Produce similar output

However:

- Employee A earns ₱35,000
- Employee B earns ₱42,000

If Employee A finds out, and no clear justification is provided, Employee A may:

- Reduce effort
- Feel resentment
- Become less cooperative
- Look for another job

Even if the pay difference has a valid reason, lack of explanation can create perceived inequity.

Equity vs Equality

Equality - Everyone receives the same outcome.

- Same salary
- Same reward
- Same benefits

Equality ignores differences in contribution.

Equity - Rewards are proportional to contribution.

- More effort → More reward
- Greater responsibility → Higher compensation

Equity focuses on fairness, not sameness.

A high performer receiving higher pay is equitable — not unequal.

EXPECTANCY THEORY

(Developed by Victor Vroom)

Expectancy Theory explains motivation as a **rational decision-making process**. According to Vroom, People do not act randomly or purely emotionally at work. Instead, they mentally calculate:

- "If I try harder, will I perform better?"
- "If I perform better, will I actually get rewarded?"
- "Is that reward even worth it to me?"

Motivation, therefore, is not just about wanting something — it is about believing that effort will realistically lead to something valuable.

Expectancy Theory states that motivation is determined by **three cognitive evaluations**:

1. **Expectancy** – Effort → Performance
2. **Instrumentality** – Performance → Reward
3. **Valence** – Value of the Reward

These are psychological judgments people make before they decide how much effort to exert.

The Three Core Factors

1. Expectancy (Effort → Performance) - The belief that putting in more effort will improve performance. This is about **self-confidence and situational support**.

Internal Question: "If I work harder, can I actually perform better?"

Expectancy is HIGH when:

- The person has the necessary skills.
- Training is adequate.
- Resources and tools are available.
- Goals are realistic.
- The person believes in their ability.

Expectancy is LOW when:

- Skills are insufficient.
- Instructions are unclear.
- Equipment or resources are lacking.
- Goals are unrealistic.
- The person feels incompetent.

Example: A student will study harder for an exam if they believe studying will actually improve their score. If they believe the exam is impossible regardless of effort, expectancy becomes low.

2. Instrumentality (Performance → Reward) - The belief that good performance will lead to a reward. This is about **trust in the system or organization**.

Internal Question: "If I perform well, will I really get rewarded?"

Instrumentality is HIGH when:

- Performance evaluations are transparent.
- Rewards are clearly linked to results.
- Management keeps promises.
- The system feels fair.

Instrumentality is LOW when:

- Promotions seem political.
- Favoritism exists.
- Reward criteria are unclear.
- High performers are ignored.

Example: An employee may work hard only if they believe good performance leads to promotion.

- If they see promotions given based on favoritism, instrumentality drops.
- Even if expectancy is high, motivation collapses if instrumentality is low.

3. Valence (Value of the Reward) - The importance or attractiveness of the reward to the individual. This is about **personal values and priorities**.

Internal Question: "Do I even care about this reward?"

Valence is subjective. What motivates one person may not motivate another.

High Valence:

- The reward matches personal goals.
- It fulfills personal needs (money, recognition, time, growth).

-

Low Valence:

- The reward does not match priorities.
- The person already has enough of that reward.
- The reward conflicts with personal values.

Example: A salary increase may have:

- High valence for someone supporting a family.
- Low valence for someone who prioritizes flexible time over money.

A promotion requiring longer hours may have low valence for someone who values work-life balance.

Motivation Formula

Vroom proposed that: **Motivation = Expectancy × Instrumentality × Valence**

This is multiplicative, not additive.

That means:

- If one factor is zero → overall motivation becomes zero.
- All three must be present for strong motivation.

Illustration:

- High expectancy (I can perform well)
- High instrumentality (Good performance will be rewarded)
- Low valence (I don't care about the reward)

Result: Low motivation.

Real-Life Workplace Scenario

Imagine an employee:

1. They know how to do the task (High Expectancy).
2. They believe management rewards good performance (High Instrumentality).

3. The reward is extra vacation leave, which they strongly value (High Valence).

Motivation is strong.

But if:

- Performance standards are unclear → Expectancy drops.
- Promotions are political → Instrumentality drops.
- Reward is something they do not value → Valence drops.

Motivation weakens immediately.

Expectancy Theory is powerful because it explains:

- Why incentives sometimes fail.
- Why raising salaries does not always increase motivation.
- Why talented employees sometimes disengage.
- Why trust in leadership is critical.

It emphasizes that **perception matters more than reality**. If employees *believe* the system is broken, motivation decreases — even if management thinks it is fair.

Expectancy Theory says:

People are motivated when they believe:

1. Effort leads to performance.
2. Performance leads to reward.
3. The reward is valuable.

If any one of these beliefs fails, motivation declines.

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE THEORY

Organizational Justice Theory explains how **employees' perceptions of fairness** inside an organization affect their **motivation, trust, commitment, and behavior at work**.

- It is not just about what employees receive — it is about **how they receive it** and **how they are treated during the process**.

Organizational Justice refers to employees' perceptions of fairness in:

- The **outcomes** they receive
- The **procedures** used to decide those outcomes
- The **interpersonal treatment** they experience

In simple terms, employees constantly ask themselves three questions:

1. Is the result fair?
2. Was the process fair?
3. Was I treated with respect?

The Three Types of Justice

1. Distributive Justice - Perceived fairness of outcomes such as pay, promotion, workload, rewards, or recognition. **Focus:** "Is the result fair?"

It is based on comparison. Employees often compare:

- Their effort vs. reward
- Their reward vs. others' rewards

Example: Two employees perform equally well. If both receive similar bonuses, distributive justice is perceived as fair. If one works harder but

receives the same reward as someone who did less, distributive justice is perceived as unfair.

Distributive justice is closely linked to **Equity Theory** — people evaluate fairness by comparing input and output ratios.

2. Procedural Justice - Perceived fairness of the methods and procedures used to make decisions. **Focus:** *"Is the process fair?"*

Even if the outcome is unfavorable, employees may still accept it if:

- Rules are consistent
- The process is unbiased
- There is opportunity to voice concerns
- Decisions are based on accurate information

Example: An employee is not promoted, but:

- Clear criteria were provided
- Performance evaluations were transparent
- The employee had a chance to explain their side

This increases acceptance of the decision.

Key Principle: Fair procedures create **long-term trust** in leadership.

3. Interactional Justice - Perceived fairness in interpersonal treatment and communication. **Focus:** *"Was I treated with respect?"*

This includes:

- Respect
- Politeness
- Honesty
- Clear explanations
- Dignity

Interactional justice has two subcomponents:

- **Interpersonal justice** – being treated with dignity
- **Informational justice** – being given honest and adequate explanations

Example: A manager delivers bad news but:

- Speaks respectfully
- Explains the reasons clearly
- Shows empathy

The employee may feel disappointed, but not disrespected.

Important Insight: Lack of interactional justice often creates **strong emotional reactions**, even when pay or decisions are fair.

Why Organizational Justice Is Powerful

Organizational justice influences:

1. **Trust** - When processes are fair and leaders are transparent, employees trust management.
2. **Organizational Commitment** - Fair treatment increases emotional attachment to the organization.
3. **Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)** - Employees are more willing to:
 - Help coworkers
 - Go beyond job descriptions

- Volunteer for extra tasks

4. **Turnover Intentions** - Perceived injustice increases:

- Withdrawal behaviors
- Job search behavior
- Resignation rates

Fairness reduces the desire to leave.

One of the strongest findings in justice research is:

People may accept negative outcomes if they believe the process and treatment were fair.

This means:

- You can lose a promotion but still feel respected.
- You can receive lower pay but accept it if the criteria were clear.
- You can disagree with a decision but remain motivated if you were treated with dignity.

However: If someone receives good pay but is treated disrespectfully, motivation still declines. That is why interactional justice is often emotionally powerful.

Example: Two employees are denied promotion.

Employee A:

- Receives no explanation
- Is informed through email
- Was not aware of promotion criteria

Result: Feels angry, unmotivated, and considers resigning.

Employee B:

- Is invited to a meeting
- Receives clear explanation
- Is given feedback for improvement
- Is treated respectfully

Result: Feels disappointed but motivated to improve.

Even though the outcome is the same, perceptions of justice differ.

MARS MODEL OF INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE

It explains why employees perform well—or poorly—by identifying four core factors that must work together.

Employee performance is not caused by just one thing (like motivation). Instead, performance results from the **interaction of four elements:**

Motivation × Ability × Role Perception × Situational Factors

All four must be present and aligned for effective performance.

The **MARS Model** states that individual performance is a function of:

- **M – Motivation**
- **A – Ability**
- **R – Role Perception**
- **S – Situational Factors**

If even one component is weak, overall performance declines.

A. **Motivation** - Motivation is the **internal drive that directs effort toward goals.**

It answers:

- How hard will the employee try?
- How persistent will they be?
- Where will they focus their energy?

Key Components of Motivation:

- **Direction** – Choosing the right goals.
- **Intensity** – How much effort is exerted.
- **Persistence** – How long effort is sustained.

Important Insight: Even if someone is highly capable, **without motivation, they won't apply their ability.**

Example: A smart employee who feels unappreciated may reduce effort.

B. **Ability** - Ability refers to the **skills, knowledge, and competencies required to perform a task.**

It includes:

- Technical skills
- Cognitive skills
- Physical skills
- Experience
- Talent

Important Insight: Motivation cannot replace ability. You cannot motivate someone to perform a task they do not know how to do.

Example: A highly motivated new employee may still perform poorly if they lack training.

C. **Role Perception** - Role perception is the employee's **understanding of what tasks to do, when to do them, and how to do them.**

It answers:

- What are my responsibilities?
- What are my priorities?
- What standards am I expected to meet?

Why It Matters:

If role perception is unclear:

- Effort may be misdirected.
- Employees may focus on the wrong tasks.
- Important duties may be ignored.

Example: An employee spends time perfecting reports when management prioritizes sales calls. **High effort + high skill but wrong direction = poor performance**

D. **Situational Factors** - Situational factors are **external conditions beyond the employee's control** that affect performance.

Examples:

- Equipment availability

- Organizational support
- Budget limitations
- Time constraints
- Team cooperation
- Market conditions

Important Insight: Even motivated and skilled employees cannot perform well in poor environments.

Example: A top-performing sales agent cannot meet targets during a severe market downturn.

The model is expressed as: **Performance = M × A × R × S**

This means:

- If Motivation = high
- Ability = high
- Role perception = low
- Situational support = high

Overall performance drops because one factor is weak.

- It is not additive (not M + A + R + S).
- One weak element reduces the whole outcome.

Real-Life Application

Scenario 1: The Wrong Diagnosis

A manager sees low performance and assumes: "The employee is lazy." But the real issue might be:

- Lack of training (Ability)
- Unclear job expectations (Role Perception)
- Broken equipment (Situational Factor)

Blaming motivation alone leads to incorrect solutions.

Scenario 2: Situational Problem

A skilled and motivated employee fails to meet targets.

Investigation shows:

- Outdated software
- Frequent system crashes
- No technical support

The problem is not motivation — it is **situational factors.**

Why the MARS Model Is Important

It helps managers:

- Diagnose performance problems accurately
- Avoid unfair blame
- Create targeted interventions
- Improve training programs
- Clarify job expectations
- Improve workplace systems

It also teaches that performance is **system-based**, not just personality-based.

Factor	Question It Answers
Motivation	Does the employee want to perform?

Ability	Can the employee perform?
Role Perception	Does the employee know what to do?
Situational Factors	Is the environment supportive?

All four must work together.

IMPACT Theory

(Leadership Styles Based on Situation)

IMPACT Theory emphasizes that **leadership effectiveness is situational**. A leader's behavior must match what the environment currently demands. The "impact" of a leader is not determined by personality alone, but by how well their behavior solves the most urgent need of the group.

- This idea is consistent with situational approaches to leadership such as Situational Leadership Theory and Path-Goal Theory, which also argue that flexibility—not a fixed style—is what produces results.

In simple terms: The right leadership behavior at the wrong time is ineffective. The right behavior at the right time creates impact.

IMPACT Theory proposes that **leadership effectiveness results from diagnosing the organization's immediate condition and selecting the behavior that best addresses that condition**.

The leader must constantly ask:

- What is missing right now?
- Is the problem clarity, morale, structure, emotion, discipline, or strategy?

Each style exists to solve a specific type of organizational need.

The Six Leadership Styles and Their Situational Fit

1. **Informational Style** - Provides knowledge, clarification, and structured explanation.

When It's Needed: When there is **confusion, misinformation, or lack of clarity**.

Confusion creates anxiety and poor decisions. When employees don't understand expectations, procedures, or goals, performance drops.

The informational leader:

- Explains procedures clearly
- Defines expectations
- Clarifies misunderstandings
- Provides step-by-step guidance

This style reduces uncertainty and cognitive overload. When people understand what to do, they perform better.

Example: A company introduces new software. Employees feel overwhelmed and make errors. The leader:

- Conducts training
- Breaks processes into simple steps
- Answers questions clearly

Result: Performance stabilizes because clarity replaces confusion.

2. **Magnetic Style** - Inspires through enthusiasm, optimism, and emotional energy.

When It's Needed: When **morale is low** or motivation is declining.

- Sometimes the issue is not confusion—but discouragement. After failures, financial loss, or repeated setbacks, people lose belief.

The magnetic leader:

- Communicates a compelling vision
- Shows confidence in the team
- Uses emotional influence to restore hope

This style energizes rather than instructs.

Example: After major company losses, employees fear closure. The leader:

- Shares a recovery plan
- Expresses belief in the team
- Frames the crisis as a challenge to overcome

Result: Motivation increases because emotional energy is restored.

3. **Position Style** - Uses formal authority and role-based power.

When It's Needed: When there is **role confusion or boundary uncertainty**.

- Organizations need structure. When reporting lines are unclear, conflict increases. Decision-making slows because no one knows who has authority.

The position leader:

- Clarifies hierarchy
- Enforces role definitions
- Establishes accountability

This style restores order through authority.

Example: During restructuring, departments overlap responsibilities. The leader:

- Defines who reports to whom
- Clarifies decision-making authority
- Sets clear performance expectations

Result: Order replaces ambiguity.

4. **Affiliation Style** - Provides emotional support and strengthens relationships.

When It's Needed: In **stressful, traumatic, or emotionally heavy environments**.

- When people experience stress, fear, or burnout, productivity declines—not because of incompetence—but because of emotional strain.

The affiliative leader:

- Listens actively
- Shows empathy

- Encourages team bonding
- Prioritizes well-being

This style rebuilds psychological safety.

Example: After layoffs, remaining employees feel anxious and insecure. The leader:

- Holds open discussions
- Acknowledges emotions
- Provides reassurance and counseling resources

Result: Emotional stability improves, allowing productivity to recover.

5. **Coercive Style** - Gives direct commands and expects immediate compliance.

When It's Needed: During **emergencies or crises**.

- In high-risk situations, discussion wastes time. Safety or survival may depend on instant action.

The coercive leader:

- Makes quick decisions
- Gives clear, direct orders
- Enforces strict control

This style sacrifices collaboration for speed.

Example: A factory detects a chemical leak. The leader:

- Orders immediate evacuation
- Shuts down operations
- Directs emergency response

Result: Immediate compliance prevents disaster.

6. **Tactical Style** - Strategic planning, coordination, and systematic problem-solving.

When It's Needed: When there is **disorganization, inefficiency, or poor coordination**.

- Sometimes the team is motivated and emotionally stable—but systems are failing. Deadlines are missed due to poor coordination.

The tactical leader:

- Redesigns workflow
- Clarifies goals
- Aligns resources
- Assigns roles strategically

This style improves structure and execution.

Example: Projects repeatedly miss deadlines. The leader:

- Creates a new timeline
- Assigns responsibilities clearly
- Implements progress tracking

Result: Efficiency improves through strategic organization.

Key Principle of IMPACT Theory

Each style addresses a different organizational deficiency:

Problem	Needed Style
Confusion	Informational
Low morale	Magnetic
Role ambiguity	Position
Emotional stress	Affiliation
Crisis	Coercive
Disorganization	Tactical

PATH-GOAL THEORY

Path-Goal Theory explains **how leaders motivate followers**.

Main Idea: A leader's job is to **make the path to success clear and easier to travel**.

If employees understand:

- What they need to do
- How to do it
- What reward they will get

— they become more motivated to perform well.

Path-Goal Theory states that **leaders increase employee motivation by making sure that effort leads to valued rewards**.

This idea is rooted in Expectancy Theory, which explains that people are motivated when they believe:

1. **Effort → Performance** (If I try hard, I can do it.)
2. **Performance → Reward** (If I perform well, I will be rewarded.)
3. **Reward is valuable** (The reward actually matters to me.)

So the leader's role is to:

- Clarify expectations
- Remove obstacles
- Provide support
- Connect performance to rewards

If the "path" is blocked or confusing, motivation decreases. If the path is clear, motivation increases.

Leadership Styles in Path-Goal Theory - Path-Goal Theory says leaders should **adjust their style depending on the situation and employees' needs**.

There are four main leadership styles:

1. Instrumental (Directive) Leadership

- Gives specific instructions
- Sets clear standards
- Explains exactly what needs to be done
- Clarifies deadlines and rules

Best Used When:

- Tasks are unclear
- Employees are inexperienced
- There is confusion or ambiguity

Why It Works: When employees don't know what to do, they feel anxious and unsure. Directive leadership reduces uncertainty and increases confidence.

Example: A new employee doesn't understand the reporting format. The manager provides step-by-step instructions and a sample report.

Result: The employee performs better because expectations are clear.

2. Supportive Leadership

- Shows concern for employee well-being
- Provides emotional support
- Creates a friendly and respectful environment

Best Used When:

- Work is stressful
- Morale is low
- Tasks are repetitive or frustrating

Why It Works: Employees feel valued and emotionally safe, which increases job satisfaction and motivation.

Example: A team is overwhelmed by deadlines. The leader checks in, encourages them, and adjusts workload where possible.

Result: Stress decreases and motivation improves.

3. Participative Leadership

- Involves employees in decision-making
- Asks for suggestions and opinions
- Encourages collaboration

Best Used When:

- Buy-in is important
- Employees are skilled
- Decisions affect the team directly

Why It Works: When employees help make decisions, they feel ownership and responsibility.

Example: Before implementing a new policy, the leader asks the team for feedback and suggestions.

Result: Employees feel respected and are more committed to the outcome.

4. Achievement-Oriented Leadership

- Sets challenging goals
- Expresses confidence in employees
- Encourages high standards

Best Used When:

- Employees are capable
- Work requires high performance
- Team is motivated but needs a push

Why It Works: High expectations signal trust and competence. Employees often rise to the challenge.

Example: A manager tells a high-performing team, "I know you can exceed last quarter's sales target."

Result: The team works harder to meet the challenge.

How Path-Goal Theory Increases Motivation

Path-Goal leaders improve motivation by:

- Reducing confusion
- Increasing confidence
- Removing barriers
- Aligning rewards with effort
- Matching leadership style to employee needs

The leader does not use one fixed style. Instead, they adjust based on:

- Task structure
- Employee ability
- Work environment
- Level of stress

Comparison: Path-Goal Theory vs Impact Theory

Path-Goal Theory

- **Focus:** Motivation through goal clarity
- Emphasizes removing obstacles
- Strongly linked to expectancy and reward systems
- Leader's role is to clarify and support the path

Impact Theory (IMPACT Theory)

- **Focus:** Matching leadership style broadly to context
- Emphasizes flexibility in style depending on situation
- Concerned with overall leadership effectiveness

Path-Goal Theory asks: **"How can I make it easier for my employees to succeed and feel rewarded?"**

Impact Theory asks: **"What leadership style fits this situation best?"**

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

There is no single "best" leadership style. Effective leadership depends on the **readiness level of followers.**

$$\text{Readiness} = \text{Ability (Competence)} + \text{Willingness (Commitment/Confidence)}$$

A leader must diagnose where followers are developmentally and then adjust leadership behavior accordingly.

Situational Leadership Theory states that leadership effectiveness depends on the leader's ability to adjust their style based on the follower's competence and commitment in performing a specific task.

This means:

- Leadership is **flexible**, not fixed.
- Different employees may require **different leadership styles at the same time**.
- Even the same employee may require different styles for different tasks.

Key Concepts

1. **Readiness (Development Level)** - Readiness refers to a follower's capacity and motivation to perform a task. **It consists of two components:**

A. Ability (Competence)

- Skills
- Knowledge
- Experience
- Technical capability

B. Willingness (Commitment)

- Motivation
- Confidence
- Responsibility
- Enthusiasm

Both components must be assessed together.

2. **Leadership Styles (Behavioral Responses)** - Leadership style in this theory is defined by:

- **Task behavior** (amount of direction given)
- **Relationship behavior** (amount of support given)

Why flexibility matters

Employees evolve over time. A rigid leadership style can:

- Over-control competent employees → reduces motivation
- Under-guide inexperienced employees → increases errors

Situational Leadership emphasizes:

- Diagnostic ability
- Emotional intelligence
- Behavioral flexibility

It assumes leadership effectiveness depends more on **leader adaptability** than personality traits.

LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) THEORY

Not all employees experience leadership the same way. LMX Theory proposes that leaders naturally develop **different quality relationships** with each subordinate.

- These relationships range from high-quality (close, trust-based partnerships) to low-quality (formal, role-based interactions).

Leadership effectiveness, therefore, depends not only on a leader's traits or style — but on the **quality of individual dyadic (one-on-one) relationships**.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory states that leadership effectiveness is determined by the quality of the exchange relationship between a leader and each follower.

- High-quality exchange → trust, support, mutual respect
- Low-quality exchange → formal, contractual, role-bound interaction

The theory shifts focus from "How does a leader treat the group?" to "**How does a leader treat each individual?**"

Key Assumptions of LMX Theory

1. Leaders have limited time and resources.
2. Leaders cannot develop identical relationships with everyone.
3. Relationship quality develops over time.
4. These relationships affect outcomes like performance, job satisfaction, and turnover.

Relationship Groups

A. In-Group (High-Quality LMX)

Members in the in-group experience:

- High trust
- Frequent communication
- Emotional support
- Greater autonomy
- Challenging assignments
- More feedback and mentoring
- Higher motivation

These employees often:

- Go beyond formal job duties (organizational citizenship behavior)
- Show loyalty to the leader
- Receive career opportunities

Important: In-group status is usually based on:

- Reliability
- Competence
- Initiative
- Alignment with leader's goals

B. Out-Group (Low-Quality LMX)

Members in the out-group experience:

- Formal interaction only
- Communication limited to job requirements
- Low trust
- Strict role boundaries
- Fewer growth opportunities
- Lower engagement

These employees:

- Perform assigned tasks only
- Show minimal extra-role behavior
- May feel excluded or undervalued

High-Quality LMX Leads To:

- Higher job satisfaction
- Greater organizational commitment
- Stronger performance
- Lower turnover
- Increased innovation
- Higher psychological safety

Why?

Because employees in high-quality exchanges feel:

- Valued
- Trusted
- Supported
- Recognized

This activates intrinsic motivation.

Low-Quality LMX Leads To:

- Reduced initiative
- Emotional withdrawal
- Lower engagement
- Higher absenteeism
- Increased intention to leave

Employees may think:

“Why should I go beyond my job if my leader doesn’t trust or support me?”

Example: Imagine a department supervisor.

Employee A:

- Consistently meets deadlines
- Volunteers for extra work
- Communicates proactively

The supervisor:

- Assigns them complex projects
- Recommends them for training
- Shares strategic information

This employee becomes part of the **in-group**.

Employee B:

- Performs adequately but avoids extra responsibility
- Communicates only when required

The supervisor:

- Assigns routine tasks
- Maintains formal communication

This employee remains in the **out-group**.

Over time:

- Employee A grows faster.
- Employee B stagnates.

The relationship quality influences career trajectory.

SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY (SDT)

(Developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan)

Human beings are naturally growth-oriented. We are not passive organisms waiting for rewards or punishments — we actively seek mastery, connection, and meaning.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) proposes that **intrinsic motivation becomes stronger when three basic psychological needs are satisfied:**

- Autonomy
- Competence
- Relatedness

When these needs are supported, people thrive. When these needs are frustrated, motivation weakens — even if rewards are present.

Self-Determination Theory states that **optimal motivation, performance, and psychological well-being occur when the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied.**

It distinguishes between:

- **Intrinsic motivation** – Doing something because it is interesting or enjoyable.
- **Extrinsic motivation** – Doing something because of rewards, pressure, or external outcomes.

SDT does not reject extrinsic motivation — it explains when external motivation becomes internalized.

The Three Core Psychological Needs

1. Autonomy - The need to feel that one’s actions are self-chosen and self-endorsed.

- It does NOT mean independence.
- It means **volition** — feeling that “I am choosing this.”

When Autonomy is Supported:

- Choice is provided
- Explanations are given
- Perspectives are acknowledged
- Individuals feel ownership

When Autonomy is Thwarted:

- Micromanagement
- Threats and punishments
- Excessive surveillance
- “Because I said so” environments

Psychological Effect: Lack of autonomy produces **compliance**, not engagement. People may perform, but they feel controlled.

2. Competence - The need to feel effective, capable, and able to master tasks. Humans naturally seek challenge — but optimal challenge.

Competence is Strengthened By:

- Clear structure
- Realistic challenges
- Skill-building opportunities
- Constructive feedback
- Recognition of improvement

Competence is Damaged By:

- Constant criticism
- Tasks that are too easy (boredom)
- Tasks that are too difficult (helplessness)
- Lack of guidance

When people feel competent:

- They persist longer
- They take initiative
- They experience mastery satisfaction

3. Relatedness - The need to feel connected, cared for, and valued by others. Humans are social beings. Motivation is stronger when we feel that we belong.

Relatedness is Supported By:

- Warm leadership
- Team cohesion
- Trust
- Inclusion
- Emotional safety

Relatedness is Thwarted By:

- Isolation
- Toxic competition
- Exclusion
- Indifference

Relatedness increases:

- Commitment
- Loyalty
- Emotional investment
- Resilience under stress

What Happens When All Three Are Fulfilled?

When autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied:

- Intrinsic motivation increases
- Work becomes self-driven
- Psychological well-being improves
- Burnout decreases
- Creativity increases
- Persistence strengthens

People do not just work harder — they work with meaning.

The Dark Side: Controlling Environments

Environments that are:

- Highly controlling
- Reward-obsessed
- Punishment-focused
- Micromanaged

...can reduce intrinsic motivation. This is called the “**crowding-out effect**” — excessive external control can weaken natural interest.

Example: If a child loves drawing, but is paid for every drawing, they may begin drawing *only* for money — reducing intrinsic enjoyment.

Example: An employee demonstrates high engagement when:

- They are allowed to design their own workflow (Autonomy)
- They receive proper training and skill development (Competence)
- They work in a supportive and respectful team (Relatedness)

Result:

- High initiative

- Voluntary effort
- Innovation
- Lower turnover intention

Why SDT Matters in Modern Organizations

In today's workforce:

- Employees seek meaning
- Younger generations value autonomy
- Burnout is rising
- Engagement is declining

Organizations that support autonomy, competence, and relatedness:

- Increase retention
- Improve innovation
- Strengthen culture
- Enhance psychological safety

Self-Determination Theory argues that people perform best not when controlled by rewards, but when they feel autonomous, capable, and connected.

I/O PSYCHOLOGY: MODULE 5

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Organizational structure refers to the formal system that determines how tasks are divided, coordinated, and supervised within an organization. Structure defines reporting relationships, communication patterns, workflow, and authority distribution.

Organizational structure answers the questions:

- Who does what?
- Who reports to whom?
- How do different parts work together?

Every organization, whether small or large, **must divide work so that goals can be achieved efficiently. Without structure, confusion arises.** Employees may duplicate work, neglect important tasks, or conflict over authority.

Organizational structure serves four major purposes:

1. **Clarifies roles** – Each employee knows specific responsibilities.
2. **Establishes authority** – Decision-making power becomes clear.
3. **Creates communication pathways** – Information flows through defined channels.
4. **Aligns behavior with strategy** – Structure shapes how employees act to achieve organizational goals.

Organizational structure also functions as a tool for change. **When leaders modify structure, communication patterns shift.** New responsibilities form. Employee behavior adjusts. Strategy becomes easier to implement. Structure is not merely an organizational chart. **Structure is a system that influences efficiency, coordination, cost, and adaptability.**

Example: Jollibee Foods Corporation separates major functions such as:

- Operations
- Supply chain
- Franchising
- Marketing

Thousands of stores require clear authority and coordination. Without defined structure, supply shortages, marketing inconsistencies, and operational errors would occur. Structure allows large-scale operations to function smoothly across many locations.

FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES IN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Two core processes shape all organizational structures:

1. **Division of Labor**
2. **Coordination of Work Activities**

Both processes must balance each other.

1. **DIVISION OF LABOR** - refers to breaking down work into smaller tasks and assigning each task to different individuals. This process leads to **job specialization**, meaning each job focuses on a narrow set of tasks.

Complex work becomes more manageable when divided. Instead of one person completing an entire process, multiple individuals handle specific parts.

Division of labor increases:

- Efficiency
- Speed
- Skill development
- Consistency

However, excessive specialization may cause problems:

- Employees may lose sight of the overall goal.
- Coordination becomes more difficult.
- Jobs may become repetitive and reduce motivation.

Therefore, organizations divide work only to the point where coordination remains manageable. **Division of labor creates expertise, but coordination ensures alignment.**

Example: In a fast-food restaurant

- One employee handles cooking.
- Another handles cashier duties.
- Another manages drive-through orders.

Specialization increases speed and reduces errors. However, coordination is necessary to ensure food reaches customers correctly and on time.

2. **COORDINATION OF WORK ACTIVITIES** - **Coordination** refers to the process of aligning individual efforts so that all tasks fit together effectively. **Division without coordination leads to wasted effort.**

As division of labor increases, coordination becomes more expensive and complex. Each additional specialized role increases the need for communication.

Without coordination:

- Tasks may overlap.
- Deadlines may conflict.
- Work may be completed at the wrong time.
- Resources may be misused.

Organizations choose coordination methods based on:

- Size
- Complexity
- Task type
- Environmental stability

Three primary coordination methods exist:

1. Informal Communication
2. Formal Hierarchy
3. Standardization

INFORMAL COMMUNICATION - **Informal communication** refers to coordination through direct conversations rather than formal reporting systems.

Informal communication works best when:

- Organization size is small
- Employees work closely together
- Tasks require quick adjustments
- Speed is more important than formal documentation

Informal coordination is flexible, fast, and inexpensive. However, informal systems become unreliable as organizational size increases.

Example: In a small family-owned business

- Employees discuss daily tasks verbally.
- Problems are solved through immediate conversation.
- Instructions are communicated directly without paperwork.

Speed and closeness allow smooth coordination.

ORGANIZATIONAL SIZE AND INFORMAL COMMUNICATION

Organizational size strongly affects how communication flows inside a company. As organizations grow, the simple and informal ways people coordinate their work often become less effective, requiring more structured support mechanisms.

SMALL ORGANIZATIONS

Typically have **fewer employees**, which makes communication more personal and immediate. Workers are often located in **close physical proximity**, allowing them to easily talk face-to-face. Because of this environment, **direct communication** is common—employees can quickly clarify tasks, solve problems, and share updates without needing formal procedures.

- Another key characteristic is **high flexibility**. Small firms can adapt quickly because decisions pass through fewer layers of authority. Informal conversations, quick meetings, and spontaneous collaboration usually provide enough coordination. In this setting, **informal coordination functions effectively** because everyone is relatively aware of what others are doing.

LARGE ORGANIZATIONS

As organizations expand, communication becomes more complex. With growth:

- **Physical distance increases** — employees may be spread across floors, buildings, cities, or even countries.

- **Departments become specialized** — functions like marketing, finance, operations, and HR develop their own goals and language.
- **Informal coordination becomes insufficient** — casual conversations alone can no longer ensure alignment.

Because of these challenges, large organizations introduce **supportive coordination mechanisms** to maintain efficiency while still allowing some flexibility.

SUPPORTIVE MECHANISMS IN LARGE ORGANIZATIONS

1. **Liaison Roles** - positions specifically created to connect two departments that must frequently coordinate.

- **Function:** Act as communication bridges between units
- **Focus:** Usually links specific departments
- **Authority:** Typically limited formal authority; influence comes from relationships and information flow

Example: A marketing liaison regularly communicates customer feedback to the production team so products can be adjusted to market needs.

Why important: Without a liaison, departments may work in isolation (“silos”), leading to delays, misunderstandings, or products that don’t match customer demand.

2. **Integrator Roles** - they go beyond simple liaison work. These individuals coordinate activities **across multiple departments**, often centered on a product line, brand, or major project.

- **Function:** Ensure alignment of plans, schedules, and goals across functions
- **Scope:** Broader than liaison roles
- **Authority:** Often higher influence, sometimes with decision-making power

Example: A brand manager ensures that marketing messages, production specifications, and distribution plans all support the same brand strategy.

Why important: As organizations grow, different departments may optimize their own goals but hurt overall performance. Integrators maintain a **big-picture perspective**.

3. **Temporary Cross-Functional Teams** - bring together employees from different departments for a specific, time-bound objective.

- **Purpose:** Solve complex problems or complete special projects
- **Duration:** Temporary; disband after objectives are met
- **Composition:** Members from multiple functional areas

Example: A crisis response team formed during a product recall may include members from quality control, legal, marketing, and operations.

Why important: Some problems are too complex for one department alone. Cross-functional teams allow organizations to respond quickly while combining diverse expertise.

FORMAL HIERARCHY - refers to coordination through a **structured chain of command** where **authority flows from top to bottom** in an organization.

A **hierarchy** is like a ladder of authority inside an organization. Each level has people who **give instructions** and people who **report to them**.

Hierarchy helps establish:

- **Legitimate authority** - who officially has the power to make decisions
- **Supervisory relationships** - who supervises whom
- **Resource allocation power** - who decides how money, people, and materials are used

It also makes clear:

- **Reporting relationships** - who you report to
- **Decision-making authority** - who makes the final call
- **Accountability** - who is responsible for results

Traditionally, hierarchy has been considered the **most reliable coordination method** for **large organizations** because it creates order and control.

Limitations of Hierarchy

While useful, hierarchy also has downsides:

- **Slower communication** - messages must pass through many levels
- **Information distortion** - messages may change as they move up or down
- **Increased bureaucracy** - more rules and paperwork
- **Higher administrative costs** - more managers and offices to maintain

Another key issue: Managers can only supervise a **limited number of employees** (called the **span of control**).

- When organizations grow, they add more management layers.
- **More layers = higher cost and lower agility (slower response).**

Example:

Department of Education structure: Decisions usually flow like this:

Central Office → Regional Offices → Division Offices → Schools

Authority and responsibility move through clearly defined levels, which is a classic example of formal hierarchy.

TYPES OF HIERARCHICAL STRUCTURESE

1. **Geographic Structure** - In a **geographic structure**, leaders manage **all major functions within a specific location or region**.

They usually control:

- Production
- Customer service
- Operations

Best used when: markets or customer needs **differ by region**

Simple idea: One boss handles everything in their territory.

2. **Product-Based Structure** - In a **product-based structure**, managers focus on **one product line across many regions**. They oversee activities related to that specific product.

Best used when: products are **very different from each other**

Simple idea: One boss handles everything for one product.

Strengths of Hierarchy

- **Clear accountability** — easy to know who is responsible
- **Strong control** — managers closely monitor work

- **Effective for routine tasks** — works well when work is repetitive and stable

Limitations of Hierarchy

- Slower communication
- Reduced flexibility
- Increased bureaucracy
- Less adaptability in fast-changing environments

Hierarchy works best when tasks are stable and predictable, but it becomes less effective in **fast-changing or highly innovative environments**.

STANDARDIZATION - refers to coordination through **established rules, procedures, and processes** that guide how work is done.

Instead of managers watching every employee all the time, organizations create **clear step-by-step procedures**. These procedures tell employees exactly what to do in common situations.

Because of standardization, organizations achieve:

- **Consistency** - work is done the same way every time
- **Fairness** - everyone follows the same rules
- **Predictability** - outcomes become easier to expect
- **Efficiency** - less time is wasted deciding what to do

In simple terms: Employees follow **predefined steps** rather than waiting for constant instructions from a manager. This is why **standardization reduces the need for direct supervision**.

Example: The **Land Transportation Office (LTO)** during license renewal.

Every applicant goes through the same:

- **Document submission**
- **Testing process**
- **Payment procedure**

Because the process is standardized:

- People are treated **fairly**
- Processing becomes **faster**
- Results are **consistent**

BALANCING DIVISION AND COORDINATION

For an organization to work well, it must maintain **balance**.

When There Is Too Much Division of Labor

Problems can occur:

- Creates **coordination difficulties**
- Increases **operating costs**
- Departments may become too isolated

People become highly specialized but may struggle to work together.

When There Is Too Little Division of Labor

Other problems appear:

- **Lower efficiency**
- **Limited expertise**
- Employees may become overloaded

Work is not specialized enough to be efficient.

When There Is Too Much Hierarchy

- Communication becomes **slow**
- Organization becomes **bureaucratic**
- Decision-making is delayed

Too many approval levels, slows down work or gets stuck

When There Is Too Little Hierarchy

- Roles become **unclear**
- **Accountability weakens**
- Employees may not know who is in charge

Lack of structure creates confusion.

What Effective Organizations Do

Strong organizations design structures that **fit** their situation:

- **Fit size** - small vs. large organizations
- **Fit strategy** - goals and direction
- **Fit environment** - stable vs. changing markets
- **Fit task complexity** - simple vs. complex work

There is **no one-size-fits-all structure**.

COORDINATION THROUGH STANDARDIZATION

Coordination through Standardization is a method of organizing work by creating **routine patterns, clear expectations, or shared expertise** so that people can work together smoothly without constant supervision.

- Instead of always relying on a manager to give instructions, work becomes coordinated because everyone follows the same system, goals, or professional training.

Organizations must ensure that activities move in the same direction. One way to achieve alignment is through **standardization**, which reduces confusion and inconsistency.

Standardization works by answering one of these questions:

- What exact steps should be followed? → **Standardized Processes**
- What results should be achieved? → **Standardized Outputs**
- What knowledge or skills must employees have? → **Standardized Skills**

Standardization creates predictability. Predictability reduces errors. Reduced errors increase efficiency and quality.

However, effectiveness depends on task type:

- **Routine tasks** → Standardization works very well.
- **Complex or creative tasks** → Standardization may limit flexibility.

THREE FORMS OF STANDARDIZATION

1. **STANDARDIZED PROCESSES** - refer to coordination through clearly defined procedures, job descriptions, and step-by-step instructions.

Focus: How work should be done.

- This form works best when tasks are repetitive, simple, and predictable.

- Employees follow documented instructions. Less decision-making is required. Performance becomes consistent because everyone performs tasks the same way.
- However, strict procedures may reduce innovation when tasks require creativity.

Examples:

- Fast food chains follow exact cooking procedures.
- Assembly line workers follow specific production steps.
- Customer service scripts in call centers guide conversations.

When It Works Best

- Mass production
- Routine administrative work
- Food preparation
- Basic manufacturing

When It Does NOT Work Well

- Product design
- Research and development
- Creative industries
- Complex medical diagnosis

2. **STANDARDIZED OUTPUTS** - refer to coordination through clearly defined goals, targets, or measurable performance results.

Focus: What results should be achieved, not how.

- Management does not dictate procedures. Instead, performance standards are set. Employees choose how to achieve those targets.
- This method increases autonomy while maintaining accountability.
- Performance becomes measurable. Evaluation becomes objective.

Examples:

- Sales teams assigned monthly sales quotas.
- Customer service departments measured by satisfaction scores.
- Manufacturing units evaluated based on production volume.

Key Advantage: Encourages innovation while maintaining control through measurable goals.

Standardized Processes	Standardized Outputs
Focus on procedures	Focus on results
Less employee freedom	More employee freedom
Best for routine tasks	Best for goal-driven work

3. **STANDARDIZED SKILLS** - refer to coordination achieved through extensive training, education, or hiring individuals with specialized expertise.

Focus: What employees know and can do.

- Some work cannot be controlled through rules or targets because tasks are complex and unpredictable.
- Instead of giving strict instructions, organizations rely on professional competence.
- Coordination occurs naturally because trained professionals share similar knowledge frameworks.

Examples:

- Surgeons and nurses in operating rooms.
- Lawyers in law firms.
- Engineers in construction projects.

In hospital operating rooms, medical professionals coordinate based on training and medical standards rather than scripts or sales targets.

Why This Method Works: Professional education creates shared understanding. Shared understanding reduces the need for constant supervision.

Comparison with Other Forms

Processes	Outputs	Skills
Controls behavior	Controls results	Controls expertise
Good for routine tasks	Good for measurable tasks	Good for complex tasks

MAIN ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

1. **SPAN OF CONTROL** - refers to the **number of employees who directly report to one manager.**

- It answers the question — **“How many people does one boss supervise?”**

Types of Span of Control

a. Wide Span of Control

- One manager supervises **many employees**
- Fewer managers overall
- Employees usually have **more independence**

Example: 1 supervisor managing 15 workers

b. Narrow Span of Control

- One manager supervises **only a few employees**
- More managers are needed
- Employees receive **closer supervision**

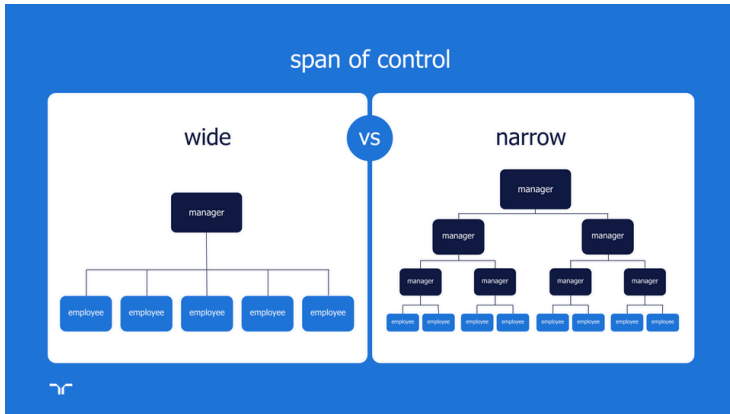
Example: 1 supervisor managing 4 workers

The **span of control affects supervision intensity.**

- **Wide span** → Less direct supervision, more employee autonomy
- **Narrow span** → More supervision and closer monitoring

It also shapes:

- **Organizational hierarchy**
- **Communication flow**
- **Manager workload**



Factors Influencing Optimal Span of Control

1. Self-Directed Teams

These are teams that:

- Manage their own work
- Communicate informally
- Rely on expertise rather than strict supervision

Result: **Wider span becomes possible**

Why? Because employees need less direct oversight.

2. Routine Tasks

These are jobs that are:

- Repetitive
- Standardized
- Predictable

Result: **Wider span is manageable**

Why? Routine work requires less monitoring.

3. Degree of Interdependence - This refers to how much employees depend on each other.

- a. **High interdependence** → work is tightly connected
- b. **Low interdependence** → work is more independent

When interdependence is high → **Narrow span is better**

Why? Because close coordination is needed.

Example: A call center supervisor handling **15 agents following scripts** shows a **wide span of control** because:

- Tasks are routine
- Work is standardized
- Employees need minimal supervision

4. TALL VS. FLAT STRUCTURES

- **Tall Structure** → Many hierarchical levels
- **Flat Structure** → Few hierarchical levels

Relationship with Span of Control

- **Wide span** → **Flatter structure**

- **Narrow span** → **Taller structure**

Key idea: Span of control directly shapes organizational height.

If managers supervise **many employees**:

- Fewer managers are needed
- Organization becomes **flat**

If managers supervise **few employees**:

- More managers are required
- Organization becomes **tall**

Most organizations are somewhat tall because managers have limits.

Imagine **100 employees**:

Wide Span Scenario

- 5 managers × 20 employees each
- Result → **Flat structure**

Narrow Span Scenario

- 20 managers × 5 employees each
- Result → **Tall structure**

2. CENTRALIZATION VS. DECENTRALIZATION

CENTRALIZATION - means **decision-making authority is concentrated at the top** of the organization.

- In simple terms: **Top leaders make most decisions.**

In a centralized organization:

- Executives decide major matters
- Lower-level employees mainly **follow instructions**
- Control and consistency are strong
- But decisions may be slower

Example: A small business where the owner decides:

- Hiring
- Pricing
- Budget
- Daily operations

Advantages

- Consistent decisions
- Strong strategic control
- Clear authority lines

Disadvantages

- Slower response time
- Less employee empowerment
- Decision overload at the top

DECENTRALIZATION - means **decision-making authority is distributed to lower levels or departments.**

- **Managers and teams can decide within their area.**

In decentralized organizations:

- Authority is shared
- Departments act more independently
- Decisions are made closer to the problem
- Organization becomes more flexible

Centralization	Decentralization
Decisions at the top	Decisions distributed
Strong control	Greater flexibility
Slower response	Faster response
Uniform policies	Diverse strategies

Span of Control → How many people a manager handles

Tall vs. Flat → How many layers the organization has

Centralization → Decisions at the top

Decentralization → Decisions spread out

3. **FORMALIZATION** - refers to the **degree to which rules, procedures, instructions, and communications are written and strictly enforced** within an organization.

- High formalization means **strict rules and detailed procedures.**
- Low formalization means **flexibility and fewer written rules.**

Formalization determines **how much behavior inside an organization is controlled by rules instead of personal judgment.**

In highly formalized organizations:

- Tasks are clearly documented.
- Employees follow specific procedures.
- Decision-making is guided by written standards.
- Deviations from rules are discouraged.

Formalization exists to:

- Ensure consistency
- Prevent mistakes
- Maintain quality standards
- Reduce uncertainty

However, **strict rules also limit flexibility.** When situations require creative or customized responses, employees in highly formalized systems may still follow rules even when rules do not fit the situation. **Formalization creates predictability but may reduce adaptability.**

Example: Fast-food chains such as **Jollibee** and **Mang Inasal** operate with high formalization.

- Exact cooking times are specified.
- Greeting scripts are provided.
- Food assembly procedures are standardized.
- Safety protocols are documented.

Result: Consistent food quality across branches.

PROBLEMS IN FORMALIZATION

1. **Reduced Flexibility** - Employees follow rules even when situations require creative solutions.
 - **Example:** A customer complaint that requires emotional sensitivity may receive a scripted response instead of genuine assistance.
2. **Reduced Organizational Learning and Creativity** - Strict rules discourage experimentation. Innovation decreases because employees avoid risks.
3. **Inefficient or Overcomplicated Rules** - Some rules become too complex. If followed strictly, performance may slow down instead of improve.
4. **Job Dissatisfaction and Work Stress** - Excessive monitoring and rigid procedures may:
 - Reduce autonomy
 - Increase pressure
 - Lower job satisfaction
 - Employees feel controlled rather than trusted.

MECHANISTIC VS ORGANIC STRUCTURES

SPAN OF CONTROL, CENTRALIZATION, and FORMALIZATION combine to form two major organizational structures: **MECHANISTIC** and **ORGANIC.**

MECHANISTIC STRUCTURE

A **MECHANISTIC STRUCTURE** is characterized by:

- **NARROW SPAN OF CONTROL**
- **HIGH CENTRALIZATION**
- **HIGH FORMALIZATION**

Mechanistic organizations operate like machines:

- Clear hierarchy
- Strict authority lines
- Detailed job descriptions
- Decisions made at the top
- Rules govern behavior

This structure emphasizes:

- Efficiency
- Stability
- Routine operations
- Predictability

Because tasks are repetitive and environments are stable, mechanistic systems perform well when change is minimal.

Best Environment: *Stable Environments* - Industries where change is slow and predictable.

Example: Manufacturing plants with standardized production processes.

ORGANIC STRUCTURE

An **ORGANIC STRUCTURE** is characterized by:

- **WIDE SPAN OF CONTROL**
- **DECENTRALIZED DECISION-MAKING**

- **LOW FORMALIZATION**

Organic organizations are flexible and adaptive:

- Few strict rules
- Employees empowered to decide
- Roles adjust to changing situations
- Collaboration encouraged

Tasks are fluid and dynamic. Employees respond creatively to new challenges.

Best Environment: *Rapidly Changing (Dynamic) Environments* - Industries facing technological changes or unpredictable markets.

Example: Technology startups adjusting products based on customer feedback.

Feature	Mechanistic	Organic
Span of Control	Narrow	Wide
Formalization	High	Low
Decision Making	Centralized	Decentralized
Best Environment	Stable	Dynamic
Flexibility	Low	High

Mechanistic = Stability and Control

Organic = Flexibility and Adaptability

Neither structure is universally superior. Effectiveness depends on environmental conditions.

4. **DEPARTMENTALIZATION** - refers to **how employees and organizational activities are grouped together.**

- It determines how work is divided and coordinated.

TYPES OF DEPARTMENTALIZATION

A. **SIMPLE STRUCTURE** - a flat organization where one person supervises most activities.

- Common in small businesses.

Characteristics:

- Centralized authority
- Few formal rules
- Direct supervision by owner
- Minimal hierarchy

Decision-making is fast because only one person decides.

Example: A local bakery or sari-sari store where the owner manages:

- Inventory
- Sales
- Employees
- Customer service

Potential Problem: Lack of defined roles may create confusion when business grows and tasks become complex.

B. **FUNCTIONAL STRUCTURE** - groups employees based on specialized functions.

Departments are created based on expertise:

- Marketing
- Finance
- Human Resources
- Operations

Employees develop deep specialization.

Example: ABS-CBN organizes departments into:

- News
- Entertainment
- HR
- Finance
- Marketing

C. **DIVISIONAL STRUCTURE** - groups employees based on:

- Product
- Region
- Customer type

Each division operates almost like a mini-company.

Each division has:

- Own marketing
- Own operations
- Own management

Greater accountability exists at division level.

Example: Robinsons Retail has divisions for:

- Supermarkets
- Department stores
- Hardware
- Appliances
- Convenience stores

D. **TEAM-BASED STRUCTURE** - relies on **self-directed teams** to accomplish tasks.

Teams:

- Make decisions collectively
- Combine multiple expertise areas
- Solve problems collaboratively

Authority shifts from managers to teams.

Example: Philippine hospitals use multidisciplinary teams:

- Doctors
- Nurses
- Pharmacists

All coordinate to manage patient care.

Strength: Encourages collaboration and responsiveness.

E. **MATRIX STRUCTURE** - requires employees to report to **two managers:**

- Functional Manager
- Project Manager

Combines functional specialization and project focus.
Employees maintain departmental identity while working on specific projects.

Example: Construction firms such as **DMCI**:

- Engineers report to Engineering Department Head.
- Engineers also report to Project Manager.

Challenge: Dual authority may create role conflict or confusion.

- F. **NETWORK STRUCTURE** - a structure where a core organization partners with external firms to perform certain functions.

Core organization focuses on:

- Strategy
- Design
- Marketing

Other companies handle:

- Manufacturing
- Logistics
- Distribution

Organization becomes flexible and cost-efficient.

Example:

Filipino clothing brands:

- Design and marketing handled internally.
- Production outsourced to independent garment manufacturers.

Strength: High flexibility and scalability.

High **FORMALIZATION** increases control but reduces flexibility.

MECHANISTIC STRUCTURES work best in stable environments.

ORGANIC STRUCTURES work best in dynamic environments.

DEPARTMENTALIZATION determines how tasks are grouped for efficiency and coordination.

ALIENATION

Alienation refers to a psychological state in which employees feel **disconnected, powerless, or detached from their work, the organization, or the people around them**. It happens when workers feel that their job **has little meaning, little control, or little connection to their personal identity and values**.

- **Alienation means feeling like a stranger in your own workplace**—as if the work you do is not truly yours or does not matter.

Key Idea of Alienation

Alienation occurs when employees **lose a sense of ownership, purpose, or belonging in their work**. Instead of feeling engaged and motivated, they may feel **empty, unimportant, or merely functioning like a machine in the organization**.

- This concept was strongly discussed by **Karl Marx**, who argued that modern work systems can make workers feel separated from the

products they create, the work process, other people, and even themselves.

SIKOLOHIYANG PILIPINO MODULE 1

INDIGENOUS FOUNDATIONS OF FILIPINO PSYCHOLOGY (PRECOLONIAL PERIOD)

Early Filipino societies already possessed complex ways of understanding human behavior, emotions, and relationships long before the arrival of Western psychology. These understandings formed the **indigenous foundations of Filipino psychology**. Knowledge about the self, behavior, morality, and relationships was embedded in daily life, cultural traditions, and communal practices rather than written scientific theories.

- A. **Indigenous Knowledge Systems** - refer to organized ways of understanding people, behavior, values, and relationships that developed naturally within early Filipino communities and were passed down through cultural traditions rather than formal scientific study.

Precolonial Filipino communities possessed structured knowledge about how individuals think, behave, interact, and maintain social harmony. This knowledge functioned as a practical guide for everyday life.

- Unlike modern academic systems, early Filipino knowledge was **not divided into separate disciplines** such as psychology, sociology, philosophy, or religion. Knowledge existed as an **integrated understanding of life**.

Psychological ideas were embedded within cultural practices and everyday communication. Several cultural forms served as the primary carriers of knowledge:

1. **Oral Traditions** - Knowledge was transmitted through storytelling and spoken teachings.
 - Stories explained proper behavior, moral lessons, emotional control, and social responsibilities.
2. **Cultural Expressions** - Traditional literary forms communicated wisdom about life and human behavior.

Examples include:

- **Salawikain** – proverbs that communicate moral wisdom
- **Bugtong** – riddles that develop reasoning and reflection
- **Awit** – songs that express emotional and social experiences

These forms shaped understanding of values such as respect, patience, cooperation, and humility.

3. **Rituals and Communal Practices** - Community rituals and shared activities reinforced psychological values such as:

- cooperation
- respect for elders
- social responsibility
- emotional restraint

Participation in rituals allowed individuals to **learn proper emotional expression and social behavior**.

Because knowledge existed within everyday life, psychological understanding developed through **experience and observation**, not through written theory.

- According to Filipino psychologist Virgilio Enriquez, this form of knowledge represents **psychology rooted in *karanasan***, meaning **lived experience**. Psychological understanding emerged from real interactions, community life, and shared cultural meanings.

Example: A village elder teaches younger community members through proverbs such as: "*Ang hindi marunong lumingon sa pinanggalingan ay hindi makararating sa paroroonan.*"

Meaning: remembering origins is necessary for future success.

This proverb teaches:

- gratitude
- respect for history
- awareness of identity

The proverb functions as a **psychological guide for values and identity formation** without the need for formal instruction.

B. **Holistic and Non-Dualistic Conception of the Person** - A **holistic and non-dualistic conception of the person** refers to the belief that a person exists as an integrated whole, where mind, body, spirit, and social relationships are interconnected and cannot be separated.

In many Western traditions, human experience is divided into separate categories such as:

- mind vs. body
- individual vs. society
- psychological vs. spiritual

Precolonial Filipino worldview did not follow this type of separation. The Filipino concept of **personhood emphasized *kabuanan***, meaning **wholeness or completeness**.

Several principles define this worldview:

1. **Unity of Mind and Body** - Thoughts, emotions, and physical states were considered interconnected.
 - A physical illness could affect emotional balance, while emotional distress could influence physical health.
2. **Integration of Individual and Community** - Identity was not defined solely by personal traits. Identity developed through relationships with:
 - family
 - kinship networks
 - community

A person's character was evaluated based on behavior within social relationships.

3. **Connection Between Psychological and Spiritual Life** - Spiritual beliefs were part of everyday understanding of emotions, health, and life events.

Mental well-being depended on harmony between:

- personal actions
- social obligations
- spiritual beliefs

Because of this holistic worldview, psychological health was not treated as an isolated personal condition. Psychological well-being depended on **balance within multiple dimensions of life**.

Example: A community member experiencing emotional distress may not be viewed as having a purely internal problem.

Community interpretation may consider several possible sources:

- unresolved conflict with relatives
- violation of social obligations
- imbalance in spiritual relationships

Healing efforts may involve:

- reconciliation with family members
- participation in community rituals
- guidance from spiritual leaders

This approach reflects the belief that **psychological health depends on relational and spiritual harmony**.

Western Psychological View	Indigenous Filipino View
Mind and body often treated separately	Mind and body viewed as interconnected
Individual identity emphasized	Relational identity emphasized
Psychological issues seen as internal problems	Psychological issues viewed as relational or spiritual imbalance

C. **Kapwa as the Core Psychological Construct** - **Kapwa** refers to the recognition of a shared inner identity between self and others, where another person is understood not as a separate individual but as a fellow self within a shared human relationship.

The concept of **kapwa** represents the central organizing principle of Filipino psychology, identified by Virgilio Enriquez.

- In many Western frameworks, identity emphasizes **individual independence**. The self is seen as separate from others.
- The concept of **kapwa** presents a different psychological orientation.
- Kapwa emphasizes **shared identity**.

The boundary between self and others becomes relational rather than oppositional.

This perspective produces several psychological consequences:

1. **Identity Formation Through Relationships** - Personal identity develops through interactions with others rather than through purely individual achievements.
2. **Moral Responsibility Toward Others** - Actions toward others carry moral significance because others are understood as part of the shared self.
 - Helping another person becomes an expression of caring for shared humanity.
3. **Social Harmony as Psychological Value** - Maintaining harmonious relationships becomes a core psychological goal.

Respect, empathy, and cooperation become central moral behaviors. Kapwa therefore functions as a **foundation for Filipino social values**, including:

- empathy
- mutual support
- shared responsibility
- relational sensitivity

Example: A neighbor experiences financial hardship. Another family voluntarily provides food or assistance. Motivation may not come from obligation or personal gain but from the understanding that **community members share a common human connection**. Helping behavior emerges from the principle of **kapwa**, where another person's well-being affects the shared community.

- D. **Spirituality and Psychological Life** - refers to the belief that spiritual forces, ancestral spirits, and unseen entities actively influence human life, emotions, and well-being.

Precolonial Filipino belief systems recognized a world where **human life and spiritual existence were interconnected**.

Spiritual entities were believed to influence events such as:

- health
- emotional states
- natural occurrences
- social harmony

These spiritual beliefs shaped interpretations of psychological experiences.

1. **Role of Ancestors** - Ancestors were believed to remain connected to living family members.
 - Respect toward ancestors maintained spiritual balance and protection.
2. **Presence of Spiritual Entities** - Nature was believed to contain spiritual beings that required respect and proper conduct.
 - Violation of spiritual boundaries could result in misfortune or illness.
3. **Psychological Disturbance as Disharmony** - Mental distress was not primarily interpreted as an internal disorder.

Instead, distress could result from disruption in one of several relationships:

- social conflict
- moral wrongdoing
- spiritual imbalance

Healing processes therefore focused on **restoring harmony** rather than treating isolated symptoms.

Example: A community member experiences sudden emotional distress or unusual behavior. Community interpretation may consider possible causes such as:

- offense toward spiritual entities
- neglect of traditional rituals
- unresolved interpersonal conflict

Healing approaches may involve:

- ritual ceremonies
- spiritual mediation
- reconciliation within the community

The goal becomes **restoration of harmony rather than individual treatment alone**.

The **indigenous foundations of Filipino psychology** reveal that early Filipino societies already possessed rich psychological knowledge.

Four key principles defined this worldview:

1. **Indigenous knowledge systems** transmitted psychological understanding through cultural traditions and lived experience.
2. **Holistic conception of the person** viewed mind, body, spirit, and social relationships as interconnected.
3. **Kapwa** served as the central psychological concept emphasizing shared identity and relational responsibility.
4. **Spirituality** shaped interpretations of well-being and psychological disturbance through the idea of relational harmony.

These foundations later influenced the development of **Sikolohiyang Pilipino**, a discipline that emphasizes Filipino cultural perspectives in psychological theory and research.

HISTORICAL COLONIZATION AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF FILIPINO PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSCIOUSNESS

- I. **Understanding Colonization and Psychological Consciousness - Colonization** refers to a historical process in which a foreign power occupies, governs, and restructures another society. This process affects political systems, economic structures, cultural traditions, and psychological patterns of the colonized population.

Psychological consciousness refers to the way individuals understand identity, self-worth, social relationships, and knowledge within a cultural and historical context.

Colonization does not only change external systems such as government, education, or religion. Colonization also reshapes **how people think about identity, authority, knowledge, and belonging**.

- Colonial powers introduce new institutions, languages, and values. Over time, these systems influence psychological development. Repeated exposure to foreign authority, foreign knowledge, and foreign cultural standards gradually affects how individuals evaluate personal worth, social roles, and cultural identity.

Psychological consequences of colonization often include:

- Shifts in identity formation
- Changes in social relationships
- Development of authority-related attitudes
- Alteration of cultural values
- Internalization of foreign standards

The Filipino psychological experience developed across **several major colonial periods**, each contributing different influences.

- II. **Precolonial Filipino Psychological Structure (Before 1565)** - The **precolonial Filipino psychological system** refers to the

indigenous worldview, identity formation, and social relationships that existed before foreign colonization.

Before colonization, Filipino societies were organized through **barangay communities**. Barangays functioned as small social units led by local leaders and organized through kinship networks.

Psychological life during this period emphasized **holistic, relational, and community-oriented identity**.

Key psychological characteristics included:

1. **Holistic View of Self** - Identity was not divided into separate personal and social identities. Identity existed as an integrated combination of personal experience, social relations, spirituality, and environment.
2. **Kapwa-Oriented Identity** - The concept of **kapwa** described a shared identity between individuals. Selfhood was understood through relationships rather than through individual separation.
3. **Harmony-Based Social Organization** - Social relationships prioritized balance, cooperation, and mutual responsibility.
4. **Oral and Experiential Knowledge** - Knowledge transmission occurred through storytelling, rituals, observation, and lived experience rather than formal schooling.

Example:

In a traditional barangay community:

- Family members cooperate in farming or fishing.
- Community members share resources during hardship.
- Elders transmit knowledge through storytelling and ritual practice.

Identity emerges through **participation in community life**, not through individual competition.

- III. **Spanish Colonization and Psychological Restructuring (1565-1898)** - Spanish rule introduced major institutional changes that altered Filipino consciousness.

Three major mechanisms shaped psychological change:

1. Religious conversion
2. Social hierarchy
3. Educational control

Religious Conversion as Psychological Regulation - refers to the use of religious doctrine to shape behavior, morality, and internal self-evaluation.

Spanish colonization established **Roman Catholicism** as the dominant religious institution. Catholic doctrine introduced moral frameworks centered on:

- Sin
- Guilt
- Obedience
- Divine punishment
- Moral surveillance

Religion functioned not only as a belief system but also as a **behavioral control system**.

- Individuals internalized religious rules and monitored personal behavior according to church teachings. Fear of spiritual punishment and guilt for moral wrongdoing became internal psychological regulators.
- Indigenous spiritual systems were discouraged or labeled inferior, weakening traditional belief structures.

Example: A Filipino individual during Spanish rule might avoid certain behaviors not because of community norms but because of **fear of committing sin or receiving divine punishment**. Religious confession practices also reinforced **self-surveillance and moral evaluation**.

Social Hierarchies and Internalized Inferiority - refers to structured inequalities that position colonizers as superior and colonized populations as subordinate. Spanish colonial society was organized through a rigid racial and social ranking system.

Higher status groups included:

- Spanish-born individuals
- Spanish descendants

Lower status groups included:

- Indigenous Filipinos
- Mixed ancestry groups

Repeated exposure to hierarchical systems creates psychological effects such as:

- Learned submission to authority
- Reduced self-worth
- Dependence on external leadership
- Acceptance of inequality as normal

Over generations, such conditions can produce **internalized inferiority**, where colonized individuals unconsciously adopt negative beliefs about personal cultural value.

Example: A Filipino student educated under colonial systems might assume that European customs, knowledge, and language are superior to local traditions. Such assumptions develop through **long-term social conditioning**.

Language, Education, and Epistemic Suppression - Epistemic suppression refers to the systematic marginalization or exclusion of local knowledge systems from formal education and intellectual authority.

Spanish education was limited and controlled primarily by religious institutions.

Key characteristics included:

- Clergy-controlled education
- Restricted access to schooling
- Emphasis on religious instruction
- Exclusion of indigenous knowledge systems

Because indigenous languages and knowledge were not included in formal learning environments, many Filipinos began associating **European knowledge with intellectual legitimacy**.

This produced a belief that:

- Valid knowledge originates from foreign sources

- Indigenous knowledge is informal or inferior

IV. **American Colonization and Cultural Reorientation (1898–1946)** - American rule introduced a new psychological influence centered on **modern education and Western scientific thinking**.

A. **Education and Cultural Reorientation - Cultural reorientation through education** refers to the process of reshaping cultural values, thinking patterns, and social ideals through formal schooling.

The American colonial government established a **public educational system**. Major characteristics included:

- English as the language of instruction
- Western curriculum
- Emphasis on science and rational thinking
- Focus on individual achievement and competition

Education gradually shifted Filipino psychological orientation toward:

- Individualism
- Performance-based self-worth
- Academic competition
- Western cultural standards

Example: Students trained in American-style schools learned to measure success through:

- Academic grades
- Standardized tests
- Personal achievements

Traditional values centered on communal cooperation became less emphasized.

B. Psychology as a Universal Science - Psychology as a universal science refers to the assumption that psychological principles developed in Western societies apply equally to all cultures.

American education introduced modern psychology based on:

- Measurement
- Testing
- Controlled experimentation

However, many psychological tests and theories were developed using Western populations. When applied directly to Filipino populations, several problems occurred:

- Cultural meanings were ignored
- Filipino social values were misunderstood
- Relational identity patterns were misinterpreted

As a result, Filipino behavior was often evaluated through **foreign conceptual frameworks**.

Example: A Western psychological test might measure independence as a sign of maturity. However, in Filipino culture, **interdependence and relational awareness** often represent healthy development. Without cultural context, such tests may incorrectly interpret Filipino behavior.

C. Comparative Psychological Frameworks

Dimension	Indigenous Filipino Orientation	Western Psychological Orientation
View of Self	Relational (kapwa-centered)	Individualistic
Epistemology	Experiential knowledge	Positivist scientific method
Research Role	Participant involvement	Research subject
Goal of Psychology	Social harmony	Prediction and control

This comparison illustrates that psychological systems are **culturally embedded rather than universally identical**.

V. **Japanese Occupation and Collective Psychological Trauma (1942–1945)** - **Collective psychological trauma** refers to widespread emotional and psychological distress experienced by an entire population during periods of violence, fear, and uncertainty.

The Japanese occupation lasted only three years but involved intense wartime conditions.

Common psychological experiences included:

- Fear of military authority
- Food scarcity
- Violence and coercion
- Uncertainty about survival

Under such conditions, psychological priorities shift toward **survival-oriented behavior**.

- Individuals become more vigilant, cautious, and adaptive.
- Although resilience developed, prolonged exposure to danger can also strengthen **distrust toward authority and external control**.

VI. **Colonial Mentality as a Psychological Legacy - Colonial mentality** refers to the internalized belief that foreign cultures, knowledge systems, and standards are superior to indigenous traditions.

Colonial mentality develops through repeated exposure to:

- Foreign language dominance
- Western academic theories
- Cultural comparison favoring colonizers
- Institutional reinforcement of foreign standards

Over time, individuals may unconsciously adopt beliefs such as:

- Foreign products are better
- Western knowledge is more legitimate
- Local culture is less advanced

These beliefs affect identity formation and cultural confidence.

VII. **Virgilio G. Enriquez and Intellectual Transformation - Virgilio G. Enriquez** is the Filipino psychologist who proposed a culturally grounded approach to studying Filipino psychology.

Enriquez received formal training in Western psychology. Exposure to Filipino social realities revealed limitations within Western frameworks when applied to Filipino contexts.

Western psychology frequently overlooked:

- Cultural language differences
- Indigenous values
- Community-based identity systems

Enriquez proposed **indigenization from within**, meaning psychological theory should originate from Filipino experiences, language, and cultural concepts.

This approach represented an important shift:

From adapting Western theories

→ to developing **Filipino-centered psychological knowledge**.

- VIII. **Emergence of Sikolohiyang Pilipino** - **Sikolohiyang Pilipino** refers to the scientific study of Filipino psychological processes grounded in Filipino culture, language, history, and lived experiences.

Sikolohiyang Pilipino rejects the assumption that Western psychological models represent universal truths.

Instead, the field emphasizes:

- Indigenous cultural concepts
- Filipino language as a research tool
- Community-centered methods
- Cultural relevance in psychological interpretation

The approach also functions as a **liberation-oriented psychology** that seeks to overcome colonial intellectual dependency.

The goal involves restoring:

- Cultural dignity
- Psychological autonomy
- Intellectual self-determination

The development of Filipino psychology cannot be separated from the history of colonization. Each historical period contributed different psychological influences:

Historical Period	Major Psychological Influence
Precolonial	Relational identity and community harmony
Spanish Colonization	Religious moral regulation and hierarchical submission
American Colonization	Western education and individualism
Japanese Occupation	Collective trauma and survival psychology
Postcolonial Period	Colonial mentality and intellectual dependency

Sikolohiyang Pilipino emerged as a **historically necessary response** to centuries of colonial influence.

The discipline seeks to:

- Reclaim Filipino psychological identity
- Restore cultural intellectual authority
- Develop culturally grounded psychological science

Through this movement, Filipino psychology moves from **colonial interpretation toward cultural self-definition**.

SIKOLOHIYANG PILIPINO MODULE 2

I. **Perspective as a Foundational Issue in Psychology**

Perspective refers to the **lens, viewpoint, or frame of interpretation used to understand psychological behavior, thoughts, and experiences**.

Perspective determines:

- **What psychologists observe**
- **How psychologists interpret behavior**
- **Which explanations are considered valid**

In psychology, perspective functions as the **foundation of theory, interpretation, and meaning**.

Sikolohiyang Pilipino, developed through the work of **Virgilio G. Enriquez**, argues that psychological understanding must consider **Filipino cultural realities**.

From this viewpoint, psychological explanations must be grounded in:

- **Filipino language**
- **Filipino values**
- **Filipino social relationships**
- **Filipino lived experiences**

Without examining perspective, psychology may produce explanations that **misrepresent or oversimplify Filipino behavior**. Therefore, perspective serves as the **starting point for understanding human psychology within a specific cultural context**.

Psychology as a Cultural Product - means that **psychological knowledge is shaped by the culture that produces it**.

- Psychological theories reflect the **beliefs, priorities, and worldview of the society where the theory developed**.

Every culture has unique ideas about:

- The self
- Relationships
- Responsibility
- Decision-making
- Social obligations

Sikolohiyang Pilipino therefore promotes psychological frameworks that **reflect Filipino cultural meanings rather than importing foreign interpretations**.

Example: A student chooses a college course.

Western interpretation: Decision based on **personal interest and individual ambition**.

Filipino cultural interpretation

Decision influenced by:

- **Family expectations**
- **Financial responsibility to relatives**
- **Desire to support parents**

Behavior in this situation reflects **relational obligations rather than purely individual goals**.

II. **Emic and Etic Approaches in Psychology** - One of the most important distinctions in Sikolohiyang Pilipino is the difference between:

- **Emic Approach**
- **Etic Approach**

These approaches describe **where psychological understanding originates**.

A. **The Etic Approach** - Etic approach refers to the **study of psychological behavior using concepts and theories developed outside the culture being studied**.

- The goal of the etic approach is to identify **universal psychological principles that apply across cultures**.

The etic approach assumes that **psychological processes are fundamentally similar across societies**.

- Under this assumption, psychological concepts developed in one culture may be **applied to other cultures**.
- For many decades, Philippine psychology relied heavily on **Western-developed theories, tests, and research methods**.
- This occurred because the Philippine educational system was strongly influenced by **American colonial education**.
- As a result, many psychological tools used in the Philippines were originally designed for **Western populations**.

However, **Virgilio G. Enriquez** criticized the uncritical use of the etic approach. The criticism emphasized that psychological concepts created in one culture may **not accurately represent another culture's experiences**.

B. **The Emic Approach** - refers to the **study of psychological behavior using concepts, meanings, and interpretations that originate within the culture being studied**.

- The emic approach emphasizes **local knowledge and cultural understanding**.

The emic approach focuses on understanding psychological behavior **from the perspective of the people within the culture**.

Research based on the emic perspective uses:

- **Local language**
- **Indigenous concepts**
- **Culturally meaningful categories**
- **Community interpretations of behavior**

Sikolohiyang Pilipino strongly emphasizes the emic approach because **Filipino cultural meanings cannot always be translated into Western psychological concepts**.

An important Filipino concept illustrating the emic perspective is **kapwa**.

- **Kapwa** refers to the **shared identity between the self and other people**.

- In Filipino psychology, the self is not viewed as completely separate from others. Instead, identity develops through **relationships and social connections**.

This idea differs significantly from Western psychological models that emphasize **individual independence**.

Example: Helping behavior.

- A Filipino individual helping a neighbor may not interpret the behavior as **charity or voluntary kindness**. Instead, behavior may be understood as **natural responsibility toward kapwa**.

The motivation is therefore **shared identity and relational obligation**, not individual moral decision.

C. **Relationship Between Emic and Etic Approaches** - The relationship between emic and etic approaches describes **how cultural understanding should develop in psychological research**.

- In Sikolohiyang Pilipino, the two perspectives are **complementary but ordered**.

Sikolohiyang Pilipino proposes a **clear sequence** for psychological understanding.

Step 1: Emic Perspective First

Psychological analysis must begin with the **emic perspective**.

Researchers must first understand behavior through:

- **Local meanings**
- **Cultural values**
- **Language**
- **Daily experiences of the community**

Without this step, psychological explanations may become **inaccurate or culturally insensitive**.

- Historically, Philippine psychology often **skipped this stage**. Western psychological theories were applied immediately to Filipino behavior.

This practice produced **misinterpretations of Filipino identity and behavior**.

Step 2: Etic Perspective Second

After establishing a strong emic understanding, the **etic perspective may then be used**.

- At this stage, etic concepts function as **tools for comparison across cultures**.

The goal is not to measure how closely Filipino behavior matches Western models.

The goal is to examine:

- **Similarities between cultures**
- **Differences between cultures**
- **Unique cultural patterns**

Emic Perspective

Question addressed:

"What does this behavior mean within Filipino culture?"