**Work Psychology in Action by Anna Sutton**

Multiple Choice questions

**Chapter 1 (Introducing Work Psychology)**

1. An ‘armchair psychologist’ is someone who:
	1. prefers to offer psychological services in an informal setting
	2. likes to make up psychological theories without any formal training in psychology \*
	3. is a psychoanalyst who offers clients a traditional therapy couch during analysis sessions
	4. is a trained psychologist relying on evidence to develop theories for people’s behaviour
2. The steps in the scientific method are
	1. Observe a pattern, develop an explanation, make a prediction, test the prediction, evaluate and refine the explanation \*
	2. Develop an explanation, make a prediction, test the prediction, evaluate and refine the explanation
	3. Observe a pattern, make a prediction, test the prediction, evaluate and refine the explanation
	4. Make a prediction, test the prediction, develop an explanation and refine if necessary.
3. Some of the theoretical areas of psychology which contribute to our understanding of people at work are:
	1. Developmental psychology, Clinical psychology and Social psychology
	2. Abnormal psychology, Individual differences and Cognitive psychology \*
	3. Social psychology, Coaching and Mentoring, and Cognitive psychology
	4. Counselling, Developmental psychology and Individual Differences
4. Work psychology covers many different areas of application, including
	1. Psychopathology, organisational development
	2. Organisational change, developmental psychology
	3. Performance appraisal, social psychology
	4. Psychological assessment, training and development\*
5. The study of management is the study of
	1. How to get people working together to meet organisational goals\*
	2. How to make an organisation as efficient as possible
	3. The best ways to motivate employees
	4. How to manage finances
6. The Hawthorne experiments were important to understanding human behaviour at work because
	1. They showed how successful scientific management could be
	2. They illustrated how important correct lighting levels were for manual tasks
	3. They demonstrated how important social factors were at work \*
	4. They were the first attempt to apply psychology to work
7. During the world wars, work psychologists’ primary focus was on
	1. Developing effective propaganda
	2. Helping soldiers with shell shock
	3. Finding the best ways to fit people to their new wartime jobs (in the army or industry) \*
	4. Trying to bring about a peace deal
8. Work psychology in the USA tends to focus on \_\_\_\_ ; while in Europe there is more of an emphasis on \_\_\_\_
	1. Team work ; Efficiency
	2. Leadership development ; Employment relations
	3. The most cost-effective solutions ; The most profit-focused solutions
	4. The most effective ways of working ; Social welfare and team working \*
9. A consideration of ethics in work psychology is important because
	1. It is required by professional psychological bodies such as the British Psychological Society
	2. Work psychologists can have important impacts on employees’ lives
	3. Both a and b \*
	4. It is a legal requirement
10. Globalisation and multiculturalism are a challenge for work psychology because
	1. Many of the theories and models have been developed primarily in Western, industrialised societies and it is not clear how well they can be applied around the world \*
	2. Contingency theories are of less and less use
	3. Research takes a lot longer now
	4. There are more and more people learning about psychology

**Chapter 2 (Finding and measuring talent)**

1. Proponents of talent management claim that an organisation’s success is dependent on its ability to
	1. Attract, develop and retain talented employees \*
	2. Recruit the most intelligent employees
	3. Offer an excellent reward package to employees
	4. Attract the most talented leaders
2. A competency framework
	1. Can be used throughout the talent management process
	2. Should be based on a thorough job analysis
	3. Needs competencies that can be clearly measured
	4. All of the above \*
3. In psychological measurement, a reliable measure
	1. Gives consistent results \*
	2. Is produced by a reputable test publisher
	3. Has had a lot of investment in research and development
	4. Can be used to select people for many different jobs
4. The most important type of validity in work-based psychometric measures is probably
	1. Face validity
	2. Criterion validity \*
	3. Construct validity
	4. Content validity
5. A useful rule of thumb in assessing an ability test’s construct validity is to have an r value greater than:
	1. 0.6
	2. 0.7 \*
	3. 0.8
	4. 0
6. The selection methods with the highest predictive validity are
	1. References and interviews
	2. Personality tests and unstructured interviews
	3. Work samples and cognitive ability tests \*
	4. Biodata and self-assessment
7. An example of the primacy / recency bias in interviews is
	1. The way interview questions are often asked so that the most important question comes first or last
	2. An interviewer’s preference for someone who is more like him/her
	3. An interviewee’s preference for going first or last in the sequence of candidates
	4. An interviewer’s tendency to remember the first and last candidates better than the others. \*
8. General Mental Ability
	1. Is one of the best predictors of job performance \*
	2. Should never be used to choose candidates for a job
	3. Cannot be measured accurately
	4. Is less useful than references in selecting job candidates
9. Adverse impact is defined as
	1. When two groups score differently on a particular measure but there is no difference in their success rates
	2. Any selection test that is unfair
	3. A biased interview style
	4. When two groups score differently on a particular measure and this results in a lower success rate for one group \*
10. Although biodata can be a useful way to screen job candidates, it is not widely used because
	1. It unfairly discriminates against certain ethnic groups
	2. It is expensive to set up \*
	3. It relies on physical measurements like blood pressure
	4. It can be easily faked

**Chapter 3(Developing and retaining talent)**

1. In performance measures, BARS stands for
	1. Behaviourally assessed response scale
	2. Behaviourally anchored rating scale \*
	3. Benchmarked assessment rating scale
	4. Benchmark anchored response scale
2. Management by Objectives is an approach which utilises
	1. Locke and Latham’s goal setting theory \*
	2. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs
	3. Michaels et al’s War for Talent approach
	4. Honey and Mumford’s learning styles
3. According to Viswesvaran et al (1996) multi-source performance appraisal ratings tend to show
	1. Extreme levels of bias that cause very low reliability
	2. Good inter-rater reliability and low intra-rater reliability
	3. High intra- and inter-rater reliability
	4. Good intra-rater reliability and low inter-rater reliability \*
4. One of the problems with 360° performance ratings is
	1. People don’t tell the truth
	2. The information produced is very complex and difficult to manage properly\*
	3. Feedback is often biased
	4. The employee feels bullied
5. Learning to associate the ‘ping’ noise your computer makes with the arrival of an email is an example of
	1. Operant conditioning
	2. Positive reinforcement
	3. Classical conditioning \*
	4. Free association
6. In a call centre, the manager has a ‘leader board’ display which congratulates the five best-performing employees in the department. This is an example of
	1. A conditioned response
	2. Punishment
	3. An unconditioned stimulus
	4. Positive reinforcement \*
7. The most effective reinforcement schedule for encouraging high work rates which are resistant to extinction is
	1. Variable ratio \*
	2. Fixed ration
	3. Fixed interval
	4. Variable interval
8. Behaviour Modelling Training draws on Bandura’s
	1. Social cognitive theory
	2. Social learning theory \*
	3. Locus of control
	4. Reciprocal determinism
9. E-learning is proving increasingly popular because
	1. Employees can access the learning whenever is convenient to them
	2. It can integrate formal and informal learning
	3. It can combine different training methods
	4. All of the above \*
10. Good employer branding
	1. Refers to a company that is well known for its products and so people want to work there
	2. Can be used to develop employee loyalty and commitment \*
	3. Occurs when a company is loyal to its employees and guarantees their jobs
	4. Is only of use for multinational private sector employers

**Chapter 4 (Motivation and attitudes)**

1. Someone who says they would still work even if they won the lottery is demonstrating
	1. That they don’t tell the truth
	2. Non-financial employment commitment \*
	3. An instrumental approach to work
	4. The importance of financial incentives
2. Hackman and Oldham’s Job Characteristics model states that motivation
	1. Is due to factors in our external environment or job \*
	2. Is reliant on our internal needs
	3. Can be improved by increasing wages
	4. Is due to inspiring leaders
3. Increase in pay tends to have a
	1. Negative effect on the free choice of an activity \*
	2. Positive effect on self-reported interest in an activity
	3. No effect on choice or interest in an activity
	4. Positive effect on free choice and self-reported interest in an activity
4. Deci and Ryan’s Cognitive Evaluation Theory states that
	1. People work hard to avoid punishment
	2. Motivation is due to the balance of reward and effort we perceive at work
	3. The effect of rewards is lessened as employees become used to them
	4. Rewards are interpreted as signs of competence or control \*
5. Alderfer’s ERG theory is an example of a
	1. Universal needs theory \*
	2. Motivational theory which emphasises persistence
	3. Process theory of motivation
	4. Recent development of goal setting theory
6. Equity theory
	1. Explains why some people choose to go into the legal profession
	2. Was developed to explain why some people become whistleblowers
	3. States that people are motivated at work by a desire to correct perceived inequity between our own and others’ efforts and rewards \*
	4. Notes that most employees feel that work is unfair
7. Three important moderators in goal setting theory are
	1. Commitment, feedback and complexity \*
	2. Quality of relationship with manager, colleagues and subordinates
	3. Commitment, complexity and salary
	4. Quality of relationship with manager, salary and feedback
8. In Ajzen’s theory of planned behaviour, there are two types of attitudes that are important in determining our intentions:
	1. Intrinsic and extrinsic attitudes
	2. Objective and subjective attitudes
	3. Attitudes towards behaviours and colleagues
	4. Attitudes towards the object and the outcomes of behaviour \*
9. Job performance is linked to job satisfaction
	1. True, there is a strong correlation but the causality is not known \*
	2. True, and research has shown that high job satisfaction causes high performance
	3. False, research has shown that the two concepts are unrelated
	4. There has not been enough research to say whether this statement is true or false
10. The relationship between organisational commitment and job performance reduces as someone stays in the job longer. This is because:
	1. Employees become less committed over time
	2. Other factors (e.g. experience) become more important to job performance than organisational commitment \*
	3. Employees do not put as much effort into their jobs after they have been with the organisation for a long time
	4. Older employees are less committed

**Chapter 5 (Building effective teams)**

1. Which of the following is NOT one of the four dimensions that West and Lyubovnikova (2012) use to distinguish real from pseudo teams?
	1. Interdependence
	2. Individual objectives \*
	3. Reflexivity
	4. Boundedness
2. A surgical team in a hospital is an example of
	1. A work team
	2. A parallel team
	3. A project team
	4. An action team \*
3. Diversity in teams
	1. Always improves performance
	2. Always decreases performance
	3. Improves performance if it is appropriate to the task (e.g. functional diversity for innovation) \*
	4. Has such varied effects that no recommendations can be made
4. The most effective type of team training is
	1. Cross-training
	2. Coordination and adaptation \*
	3. Guided self-correction
	4. Quality circles
5. Teams can be encouraged to share information by:
	1. Having an informal discussion
	2. Giving teams tight deadlines
	3. Creating a competition between the different team members
	4. Promoting a cooperative team climate \*
6. Team cohesiveness
	1. Is how well the team members get on with each other
	2. Encourages risk-taking in teams
	3. Is a measure of how strong the bonds between the team members are \*
	4. Negatively impacts performance
7. Team outputs include:
	1. Performance, satisfaction and absenteeism levels \*
	2. Attitudes, conflict, and confidence building
	3. Rationalisation, self-censorship and unanimity
	4. Leadership, communication and goal-orientation
8. Which of the following is NOT a barrier to effective teamwork?
	1. Directive leaders
	2. Conflict with other teams
	3. Too many members
	4. High mental ability \*
9. Groupthink
	1. Is the process whereby teams make more effective decisions than individuals
	2. Is the tendency that some teams have for seeking concurrence \*
	3. Involves a balanced consideration of alternative courses of action
	4. Should be encouraged by organisations wishing to promote innovation
10. Feedback is essential to team performance because
	1. It allows the manager to keep up to date on the team’s progress
	2. It helps the team to monitor and adjust its efforts \*
	3. It is the basis for team rewards
	4. It reinforces that the team has chosen good goals

**Chapter 6 (Leadership: The good, the bad and the ugly)**

1. Using the Big Five model of personality as a framework has allowed researchers to identify high scores on the following traits as important for leadership:
	1. Extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience \*
	2. Extraversion, organisation and emotional stability
	3. Conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism
	4. Responsibility, openness to experience and neuroticism
2. Blake and Mouton’s (1964) managerial grid identified five different leadership styles. Which of these is NOT one of them?
	1. Authoritarian
	2. Team Leader
	3. Country Club
	4. C’est la vie \*
3. The Least Preferred Co-worker scale is used as a measure of leadership style in which leadership theory?
	1. The Big Five trait theory
	2. Contingency theory \*
	3. Path-goal theory
	4. Leader-member exchange theory
4. Which of the following statements is NOT an accurate representation of path-goal theory?
	1. It combines behavioural leadership studies with the expectancy theory of motivation
	2. It sees the role of the leader as essentially motivational, clarifying how employees can reach their goals
	3. It makes specific predictions about which leader behaviours will be most effective in which situations
	4. It recommends that effective leaders should always use a consultative approach with their subordinates \*
5. Leader-member exchange theory
	1. States that leaders have similar relationships with all the members of their team
	2. Notes that leaders have an ‘in-group’ and an ‘out-group’ but strive to be fair to employees in both groups
	3. Highlights how members of the leader’s in-group have better relationships with the leader and often have special privileges \*
	4. Cautions against favouritism in the workplace
6. One of the central issues in implicit leadership theory is that
	1. Leaders are viewed objectively by followers
	2. There are very few cultural differences in implicit leadership schemas
	3. Followers interpret leader behaviours as more or less effective depending on how well the behaviours fit a leadership ‘schema’ \*
	4. Stereotypes no longer affect followers’ views of leaders
7. A main distinction between transactional and transformational leadership is
	1. Transactional leadership is much more effective in most organisations
	2. Transactional leadership focuses on task and behavioural exchanges while transformational leadership engages the emotions of the followers \*
	3. Transformational leadership is best suited to the creative industries
	4. Transactional leadership has the largest effect on follower satisfaction and motivation, while transformational leadership has the largest effect on performance.
8. Hogan and Hogan (2001) suggested that it is useful to study incompetent leaders because
	1. Incompetent leaders have more time to fill in questionnaires
	2. Measures of incompetence are easier to identify than measures of effective leadership \*
	3. It will help organisations to fire the incompetent leaders
	4. Incompetent leaders are often psychopaths
9. An authentic leader is someone who
	1. Has extensive experience and qualifications in the field, so that s/he can be relied upon to make the best decisions
	2. Knows what to do and will do it no matter what anyone else says
	3. Has high self-awareness and moral character \*
	4. Is profit-driven above all else
10. The three important components of leadership are:
	1. The leader’s personality, position in the organisation and status
	2. The maturity of the leader, relationships with subordinates and leader behaviours
	3. The leader, the context and the followers \*
	4. Contingent rewards, transformational leadership and active management

**Chapter 7 (Culture and communication)**

1. Scott and Mitchell (1976) categorised the reasons for communication at work into:
	1. Control, motivation, emotional expression, providing information \*
	2. Organisation, motivation, leadership, providing information
	3. Informative, managerial, clarifying procedures, encouragement
	4. Emotional expression, problem-solving, innovation, control
2. A *psychological* approach to understanding communication focuses on
	1. How words are understood by brain networks
	2. People as active interpreters of communication \*
	3. The emotional impact of communication on people
	4. The different reading and writing difficulties people can have (e.g. dyslexia)
3. The anthropologist Edward Hall identified different interpersonal distances. In increasing order of distance they are:
	1. Intimate, personal, social, public \*
	2. Personal, intimate, social, public
	3. Personal, acquaintances, social, public
	4. Intimate, family, friends, social
4. Interpersonal distances, touch and other spatial relations are examples of
	1. Sexual harassment at work
	2. Inappropriate communication
	3. Proxemic communication \*
	4. Power relationships
5. Kinesic communication is also known as
	1. Illustrators and regulators
	2. Emotional expression
	3. Paralanguage
	4. Body language \*
6. Jargon can be used at work
	1. To help people understand what is going on
	2. To speed up communication \*
	3. As an alternative to electronic communication
	4. As an important addition to paralanguage
7. Which of the following is NOT an example of paralanguage?
	1. A sigh
	2. Tone of voice
	3. Use of silence
	4. An email \*
8. An all-channel communication network is useful for
	1. Encouraging innovative thinking \*
	2. Reducing error rates
	3. Increasing speed
	4. Allowing completion of simple tasks
9. Rumours arise at work
	1. Because people like to gossip
	2. Because there are no negative consequences to spreading them
	3. As a way of trying to make sense of ambiguity \*
	4. As a way of trying to get back at managers
10. What are Hofstede’s original four dimensions that can be used to distinguish cultures?
	1. Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, innovation-conservatism, masculinity-femininity
	2. Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity\*
	3. Power distance, agility, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity
	4. Power distribution, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity

**Chapter 8 (Working in a changing world)**

1. Which of the following is NOT one of the main challenges for the future as identified by the International Labour Organization (2019)?
	1. Demographic shifts
	2. Technological development
	3. Climate change
	4. Global competition \*
2. The emergent approach to managing change claims that
	1. There is no simple cause and effect model that can capture change \*
	2. Managers can plan for change using stepped models
	3. Organisations need to manage change very closely if they are going to succeed
	4. If a manager develops a clear plan, they can control the change as it happens
3. The punctuated equilibrium model of change states that
	1. Change happens as a gradual process with small, incremental changes
	2. There are sudden large changes interspersed with relatively stable periods \*
	3. Periods that seem relatively stable are actually full of major changes
	4. Effective managers can hold changes in balance (or equilibrium)
4. Organisations which are able to successfully engage in continuous change rely on
	1. Semi-structures, links between current and future projects, sequenced steps \*
	2. Partial structures, clear plans, directive management
	3. Overcoming motivational barriers, building networks, fluid departmental structures
	4. Project teams, visionary leaders, maintaining momentum
5. Lewin recommended action research as
	1. A simple model for change
	2. An iterative approach to change implementation \*
	3. A way for organisations to evaluate whether change was needed
	4. An approach best suited to trained psychologists rather than managers
6. A systems model of change (such as that outlined by Burke and Litwin, 1992)
	1. Recommends a single best approach to implementing organisational change
	2. Ensures that managers cover the basic 8 steps in a change process
	3. Takes account of the wider environment in understanding organisational change \*
	4. Notes that transactional changes are more far-reaching than transformational changes
7. Hayes’ (2010) model of transitions includes the following stages
	1. Shock, denial, depression, letting go, testing, consolidation, internalisation \*
	2. Denial, anger, depression, acceptance, testing, consolidation, reflection
	3. Shock, anger, denial, letting go, testing, reflection, internalisation
	4. Denial, depression, anger, acceptance, consolidation, internalisation
8. Which of the following is NOT one of Kotter and Schlesinger’s sources of resistance to change?
	1. Self-interest
	2. Misunderstanding
	3. Stereotypes \*
	4. Low tolerance for change
9. Understanding how personality traits are related to individual resistance to change is helpful because
	1. Managers can test their subordinates and fire those who are more likely to resist change
	2. Those people whose personality traits are associated with higher resistance to change can be given very stable jobs
	3. It highlights how different people cope more or less well with change and may need different levels of support \*
	4. It shows that personal levels of resistance to change are genetic and fixed
10. An example of a coercive approach to managing resistance to change is
	1. Encouraging people to make suggestions for implementing the change
	2. Demonstrating how the change is inevitable
	3. Showing employees how the change will improve their work lives
	4. Threatening to fire someone who does not go along with the change \*

**Chapter 9 (Stress and well-being at work)**

1. Seyle’s (1956) model of stress is often abbreviated to GAS. This stands for:
	1. General Adaptation Syndrome \*
	2. Generalised or Acute Stress
	3. General Assessment of Stressors
	4. General Adaptation to Stress
2. Cognitive appraisal is
	1. The way we evaluate whether a potential stressor will impact on our well-being \*
	2. A personal evaluation of how stressed someone is
	3. The emotional response to a workplace stressor
	4. The thought process underlying problem solving
3. One of the criticisms of the Demand-Control-Support model of workplace stress is
	1. It does not specify how social support can provide a buffer for psychological strain
	2. It does not take individual differences into account \*
	3. It over-emphasises the impact of job features on experiences of stress
	4. It is hard to apply to real jobs
4. Work engagement was defined by Schaufeli et al (2002) as including these factors:
	1. Professional efficacy, vigour and dedication
	2. Vigour, dedication and absorption \*
	3. Fulfilment, dedication and absorption
	4. Professional efficacy, vigour and absorption
5. Which of the following are examples of job resources in the job demands-resources model of stress and well-being?
	1. Rewards and feedback \*
	2. Participation and workload
	3. Engagement and control
	4. Optimism and support
6. The HSE (Health and Safety Executive in the UK) recommends that an organisational approach to stress management should be directed towards
	1. Reducing the hazards in the workplace \*
	2. Helping employees to deal with symptoms of stress, for example by providing counselling
	3. Reducing the negative outcomes of stress, for example by focusing on reducing accidents at work
	4. Increasing financial support for employees suffering from stress-related illness
7. The most effective organisational intervention for reducing the negative effects of stress, according to Richardson and Rothstein (2008), is
	1. Cognitive-behavioural techniques \*
	2. Relaxation techniques
	3. Innovation-promotion programme
	4. Electromyographic biofeedback
8. Which of the following is NOT typically a service that an EAP (employee assistance programme) would offer?
	1. Advice on debt management
	2. Assessment of workplace health and safety \*
	3. Anonymised reports of utilisation of the service
	4. Access to counselling
9. A definition of hardiness includes
	1. An orientation towards stressful events that sees them as challenges \*
	2. The ability to ignore stressors
	3. An attitude towards stress that tends to view it as unimportant
	4. The ability to ‘shut out’ other people when life gets too stressful
10. One of the best ways to enhance well-being, according to the New Economics Foundation is to
	1. Ignore stressful events
	2. Build relationships and connect with other people \*
	3. Look for a more rewarding job
	4. Take on new challenges

**Chapter 10 (Positive Psychology at work)**

1. Positive psychology is the study of
	1. Positive emotions
	2. Human optimism in all its forms
	3. Highly successful and intelligent people
	4. Human strengths and how to live a fulfilled life \*
2. Seligman identified three paths to authentic happiness. Which of these is NOT one of them?
	1. Hedonia
	2. Eudaimonia
	3. Meaning
	4. Well-being \*
3. Which of the following could be an unintended negative side effect of positive psychology, according to Held (2004)?
	1. The implication that all that is needed for a good life is to think positively \*
	2. Misidentification of positive emotions as a mental illness
	3. Dismissal of scientific approaches to psychology
	4. The belief that Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is universally applicable
4. One of the five postulates of humanistic psychology identified by Greening (2006) is “we exist in a human context”. An example of this postulate applied to work is
	1. Intelligence is a good predictor of success at work
	2. A culture of conformity is likely to reduce the impact of an intelligent workforce \*
	3. A CEO who adapts his/her communication style is more likely to be successful
	4. The choice of whether or not to go to work has wide-reaching consequences
5. Which of these is an example of Frederickson’s (1998) broaden and build theory of positive emotions?
	1. A feeling of pride in your work helps you feel more able to cope with a new challenge in future \*
	2. A feeling of accomplishment when you complete a difficult task helps you to relax at the weekend
	3. Getting on well with your team mates helps you to build good relationships
	4. Enjoying your work makes you feel more committed to the organisation
6. Having a sense of work as a ‘calling’ is associated with
	1. Using four or more of our signature strengths at work \*
	2. An increased sense of dissatisfaction with work
	3. Higher levels of absenteeism
	4. A higher level of the *humanity* virtue
7. Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of a flow experience?
	1. Intense and focused concentration
	2. Feeling of control
	3. Time distortion
	4. Rewarding extrinsic benefits \*
8. One of the criticisms of spirituality at work is
	1. It gives people a greater sense of meaning in their work, but this has a negative impact on productivity
	2. It can become divisive if it is too closely associated with a particular, exclusive, religion \*
	3. There is no time for prayer in the modern workplace
	4. It has no real impact on individual or organisational outcomes
9. In the CSV (Character Strengths and Virtues) model, these are the 6 main virtues
	1. Wisdom, courage, humanity, justice, temperance, transcendence \*
	2. Understanding, courage, forgiveness, justice, modesty, transcendence
	3. Creativity, bravery, kindness, love, temperance, gratitude
	4. Perspective, zest, love, fairness, leadership, hope
10. People are most likely to experience flow during
	1. Active leisure pursuits like rock climbing or cycling
	2. Work activities at all organisational levels \*
	3. Relaxed leisure pursuits like reading
	4. Only work activities at management level or above

**Chapter 11 (Cutting-edge work psychology)**

1. An organisation with a ‘safety culture’ is one where
	1. There are no workplace accidents
	2. Workplace health and safety regulations are followed very closely
	3. Safety is the number one priority for the organisation \*
	4. Employees have to find ways round the safety mechanisms in order to get their work done efficiently
2. An example of a collaboration technology is
	1. Desktop conferencing \*
	2. An online HR portal
	3. Individual online calendars
	4. Paper diaries
3. Task-switching
	1. Is an increasingly effective way for younger people to work because of their experience of social media
	2. Results in higher error rates and decreased performance \*
	3. Only has a negative impact in high-risk situations such as operating theatres
	4. Helps people to reach much higher levels of performance
4. People tend to be happy with work decisions made by robots as long as those decisions:
	1. Work in the person’s favour
	2. Are checked by a human manager
	3. Are seen as fair\*
	4. Use a complex algorithm
5. Neuroimaging research has shown that product brands
	1. Are processed in the brain in much the same way as people are
	2. Activate the object-processing part of the brain \*
	3. Are ascribed characteristics that normally belong to humans (e.g. reliable)
	4. Activate the amygdala
6. What is NOT an issue when attempting to use neuroscience findings at work?
	1. Generalising results to all employees is a challenge
	2. It is difficult to identify individual cause and effect relationships of different variables
	3. Reverse inferences can be problematic
	4. Research participants can fake their responses\*
7. Which is NOT an important principle for interface design according to Oviatt (2006)?
	1. Build on our current experience
	2. Create an aesthetically pleasing look\*
	3. Minimise cognitive load
	4. Minimise interruptions by the system
8. Coaching psychology aims to
	1. Encourage the client to develop their own solutions and paths \*
	2. Clearly outline what the client should do to enhance their work
	3. Provide the client with a specific set of goals to achieve
	4. Make the client feel valued and important
9. An example of a measure used to demonstrate coaching effectiveness across a wide variety of different settings is
	1. Goal attainment scaling \*
	2. High performance cycle
	3. Goal setting theory
	4. Behavioural observation scale
10. One of the challenges in phone coaching compared to face-to-face coaching is
	1. The coach and client have to invest more effort into building an effective relationship \*
	2. The coach and client might not like each other
	3. The client may have unrealistic expectations
	4. It is simply not as effective so more sessions will be needed

**Chapter 12 (The realities of research in work psychology)**

1. Informed consent is an important part of conducting ethical psychological research. It means that
	1. The participants must be told what you expect to find in the research
	2. The participants should be given enough information about the study to make an informed decision about participating \*
	3. The organisation should only give approval to the research if it has access to all the participants’ data
	4. A participant is allowed to withdraw from the study at any time
2. Researchers who are actively engaged in management have the advantage that they
	1. Know the organisation better than an outsider \*
	2. Can be more subjective in their interpretation of the data
	3. Are more likely to keep data confidential
	4. Won’t have any problems with the dual role of researcher and manager
3. An evidence-based practitioner
	1. Closely follows the advice given in the research literature
	2. Actively considers and integrates sources of information in making decisions \*
	3. Relies exclusively on his or her own experience
	4. Knows in advance how a particular implementation will work out
4. Which of these is NOT part of the consultancy cycle?
	1. Identify and analyse the problem
	2. Identify solutions
	3. Evaluate the solution
	4. Publish a research paper \*
5. Which of these is NOT a benefit of open access research publications?
	1. Makes research output more organisationally-focused \*
	2. Speeds up the literature review stage of research
	3. Makes research output more visible and easier to use
	4. Increases the impact of research
6. The practice of HARKing in research is
	1. Hypothesising After Results are Known \*
	2. Helping Authors to Review their Knowledge
	3. Hypothetically Augmenting Research Knowledge
	4. Helping the Assessment when Results are Known
7. Systematic reviews
	1. Draw on a wide range of evidence to address a practice-based question \*
	2. Do not take account of any contextual factors
	3. Focus exclusively on statistical analysis
	4. Exclude research that is contradictory to the main findings
8. Examples of quantitative data include
	1. Interviews
	2. Diary studies
	3. Open ended questionnaires
	4. Questionnaires with rating scales \*
9. Which of the following is NOT one of the ways of assessing the quality of qualitative research?
	1. Relevant and timely topic
	2. Oversimplifies the data \*
	3. Self-reflexivity of the researcher
	4. Coherent research
10. Observational studies are useful for
	1. Being able to assess real behaviour in a natural setting \*
	2. Controlling any extraneous variables
	3. Gaining a clear picture of how someone interprets a situation
	4. Conducting well-designed experiments