



UNIVERSITY *of the*
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A Critical Examination of the contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology training at a
University in the Western Cape

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Declaration

I declare that; *A Critical Examination of the contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology training at a University in the Western Cape* is my own work, it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other University, and that all sources used or quoted has been indicated and acknowledge by complete references.

Full name: Nibafu Edel-Quinn Fegendoh

Date: 13 December 2019

Signed:

A rectangular box containing a handwritten signature in black ink. The signature appears to be 'Nibafu' followed by a stylized flourish.

Acknowledgement

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Abstract

The dominant influence of Western and European psychology on the African educational system brought about a specific point of view for the teaching curriculum (Heleta, 2016), which also spilled over into the workplace and job training practices. The present study gave a brief review of the history and development of the Industrial Psychology curriculum in South African higher education institutions. It also highlighted the dominant influence of Western and European psychology on the African educational system that brought about a non-African (i.e. Western scientific model) psychological discipline in the teaching curriculum. The study sought to examine the contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology training at a University in the Western Cape. Furthermore, the study investigated how the concepts and frameworks of Euro-Western Industrial Psychology affect graduates entering into a multi-cultural work context. The need was found for a teaching and learning curriculum that prepares students with multi-cultural knowledge, thus enabling graduates to embrace a diverse work environment.

The researcher followed a qualitative research design with semi-structured interviews to collect data. The method of thematic analyses was used and the themes identified manually from the transcribed interviews. These themes were analysed to provide findings from which relevant conclusions could be drawn. The findings varied due to diverse groups of participants with differing workplace expectations. However, participants agreed on the need for introducing more African examples in the teaching and learning of Industrial Psychology, to ensure the curriculum is applicable to a work context of a developing country such as South Africa.

Ethical considerations of the study did adhere to the guidelines from the Ethics Committee of the particular University. Recommendations were made to help other universities in South Africa see the need for not only contextualising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology, but redefining teaching techniques in line with expectations from the industry.

Key words: Industrial Psychology, Africanisation, Decolonisation, Indigenisation, Euro-western, work-integrated learning.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The present study sought to examine ways in which theories on Industrial Psychology are contextualised within the curriculum of this study field. The dominant influence of Western and European psychology on the African educational system brought about a non-African (i.e. Western scientific model) psychological discipline in the teaching curriculum (Heleta, 2016). These Westernised psychological models are also applied in the workplace and job training practices. Such a situation gives rise to the need for an indigenisation of the African educational teaching modalities alongside the focus on multi-culturalism within the workplace (Bergh, Botha, Kiley & Werner, 2017) to enhance suitable diverse teaching and learning methods of the content for theories informing Industrial Psychology.

1.2. Background to the study

1.2.1 The need for decolonisation and Africanisation of the curriculum

Adebesi (2016) and Nkomo (2015) note that education in Africa is characterised by insufficient availability and accessibility of its history on the different curriculum structures and does not reflect the milieu of those who require this education and benefit from it the most. Adebesi (2016) adds that education did not only deliver insufficient resources; it also functioned as a communication tool between the colonisers and the colonised in Africa. Therefore, education became the gateway for Western knowledge into the African environment as well as a mechanism for change based on the dominant use of the Western curriculum in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Africa, including South Africa.

Furthermore, decolonisation does not necessarily imply restructuring the curriculum. The reason is that in the post-apartheid dispensation, the decolonisation debate has moved beyond the horizon of research in higher education. However, currently this theme has emerged in the context of academic development such as Africanisation of the curriculum (Lange, 2017). Govender, V. & Rampersad, R. (2016). posit that HEIs in South Africa have recognised the need to include the African epistemologies as part of the process of decolonising the curriculum. Through this process, African students will acquire a better understanding of the particular course they study, for instance Industrial Psychology.

Le Grange (2016) identifies the need to redefine the curriculum by focusing on language, culture and identity as factors that could be applied within the tertiary sphere. Mbembe (2015) points out that the reconstruction of the Eurocentric culture could challenge and distort people's life experiences, which typically map out the directions and perspectives of a curriculum. The call for decolonisation has implications for the type of graduates and professionals that universities produce, as well as for the nature of skills and knowledge attributed to the work performed by these graduates when they enter the workplace.

Le Grange (2016) emphasises that African society and universities further need to act and be committed to translate the Eurocentric strategies of social transformation for an African (in this case, South African) multi-cultural context. Furthermore, Lange (2017) points out that the policy choices since the beginning of the 21st century did not create space to examine the general educational curricula in terms of its African identity. The critique is that the present curricula was not made available or applicable to a diverse work environment; instead one with a Eurocentric origin and scope. In other words, the material that current learners acquire from school at present includes more from a worldview that is contrary to a diverse South African work setting.

Institutional cultures and fixed curricula were considered as obstacles in the transformation of higher education. Such an environment seemingly imposed an alien Euro-centred structure onto students who require an Africanised subject content (Lange, 2017). This was as a result of the teaching and learning practices, which seemed successful in achieving its objectives at HEIs. Furthermore, Industrial Psychology in South Africa was not developed from a specific source; rather from convergent psychological theories such as behaviourism, cognition, and social psychology (Rothmann, 2008). However, this educational subject was not well organised in order to teach a decolonised subject content.

Bergh, Botha, Kiley and Werner (2017) explain that Industrial Psychology is an applied subfield of Psychology that uses psychological knowledge to study and facilitate human behaviour within the work context. Furthermore, Koopes (2007) points out that one of the objectives of studying Industrial Psychology is to improve organisational goals by focusing on individual differences. Based on the definitions above, Van Zyl, Nel, Stander and Rothmann (2016) note that most of the roles of an industrial psychologist are complex for certain stakeholders to grasp, yet simultaneously similar to other managerial practices and professions.

In light of the discussion above, Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) argue that academic research must respond positively to industries' requiring that students be prepared for a diverse workplace. Such a need was also identified by Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) who point to the increasing research in Industrial Psychology. It is apparent that businesses and organisations may remain effective and productive without necessarily depending on the Euro-Western theories but by accommodating the diverse South African cultures. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to review the development of Industrial Psychology and its theories, with a critical examination of this discipline's relevance for a South African multi-cultural work context.

1.3 Concept clarification

Certain key concepts and its demarcated fields are important to understand the present research. These are explicated below.

- i. **Industrial Psychology (also known as Industrial Organisational Psychology):** Riggio (2003) notes that Industrial Psychology is an area within the broad field of psychology that studies human behaviour within a work setting (Bergh, 2011). Bergh, Botha, Kiley and Werner (2017) define Industrial Psychology as an applied subfield of psychology that uses psychological knowledge to study and facilitate human behaviour in a work environment. The study of human behaviour in the workplace is a global practice across organisations, however, theories that are used may differ based on the cultural differences. Koopes (2007) acknowledges that when Industrial psychology was created, the objectives were to improve organisational goals with emphasis on individual differences. From a different angle, Schreuder, and Coetzee (2010), Rothmann, and Cilliers, (2007) as well as Van Vuuren (2010), argue that the objectives of Industrial Psychology are to conduct research aimed at attaining in-depth knowledge of and understanding human behaviour related to organisational productivity. For the purpose of the present study, Industrial Psychology will be used as it is the correct terminology in the South African context according to the licensing body for industrial psychologists, namely the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA).
- ii. **Euro-Western system:** This comprises European countries and the USA, which espouse more of an individualistic worldview as against an African worldview of *ubuntu*. Mashabela (2017) states the impartiality of service for others within a community is a key aspect of an African worldview of *ubuntu*, looking after others' interests. This implies

African universities have the opportunity to provide an education free from the colonial influence of individualism through an interacting educational structure of togetherness. According to Boski (2012), an individualistic worldview is perceived to be a characteristic of a Euro-Western system that comprises competitiveness and self-reliance, which entails looking out for oneself. In addition, the Euro-Western system has played a vital role in the African educational system from the time of colonisation onwards (Adams, Gomez, Ordonez, Kurtis, Molina, & Dobles 2017).

- iii. **Eurocentric to Afro-centric:** This entails moving from a divisive to a holistic, unifying system. Regarding the present study, Eurocentric to Afro-centric will imply restructuring an educational curriculum dominated by a European value system to one that articulates an African approach. As a result, the focus would be overcoming the stereotypes on race, gender and class through an African perspective that moves beyond the historical boundaries. According to Oelofsen (2015), this process also implies moving from the individualistic world-view of the Western world to the *ubuntu* worldview. The latter world-view involves the recognition of others' importance, the community in the formation of one's identity.
- iv. **Colonisation:** Rodney (2012) explains that colonisation introduced education in Africa by either replacing or supplementing the different existing teaching forms. Adams et al. (2017) point out that the colonialism of knowledge played a vital role in the colonial domination of the African educational curriculum. Thereafter, Africans experienced the need to decolonise their curriculum in order to prepare students for a diverse South African work place.
- v. **Decolonisation:** Chilisa (2012) defines decolonisation as the process centring on the concerns and worldwide views of the colonised nations, allowing them to understand themselves through their own assumptions and perspective. Historically this entails a process by which the colonies gained its independence from colonial powers, by reclaiming the history of the once colonised inhabitants. Lebeloane (2017) posits that decolonising is re-instating, re-inscribing the nature, reasoning, and sensing the views of life which were violently devalued or even demonised by the colonial authorities dealing with the African community. This imposition is also reflected in the African (South African) higher education curriculum, which has been dominated by a Western epistemology. After the #FeesMustFall protest, South Africa's HEIs worked towards eradicating a stereotypic view of the African educational system (Heleta 2016). Most University authorities have engaged into the process of decolonising the curriculum

through research and workshops. The result is different views on the decolonisation of the curriculum of Southern African universities

- vi. **Africanisation:** Africanisation has become a vital subject for Africans in search of unity and a sense of belonging centring on who and what they are and stand for (Louw, 2010). According to Mashabela (2017), Africanisation entails the liberation which empowers Africans socio-economically. Higher education in Africa thrives to be relevant to the diverse African community by addressing the historically oppressed curriculum through an African orientation. Africanising the higher education curriculum means addressing the domination of the Euro-Western culture within African HEIs. Mamdani (2016) notes that Africanisation was a common demand throughout colonial Universities in Africa after their independence.
- vii. **Indigenisation:** This involves the transformation of Western knowledge to suit Africa's (in this case, South African) cultural values. The process answers a need to maintain an African awareness of the social order and rules by which culture evolves, thereby fostering a better understanding of African consciousness within communities (CHE, 2017). Indigenisation may facilitate the critical approach that would help solve the colonial problems in the education system of South Africa such as the dominant use of Western understanding that is still applied to the diverse South African work place.
- viii. **Curriculum transformation:** According to Mashabela (2017), Africans want colonisers to leave indigenous people that they themselves lead and shape the educational curriculum in line with an African context. This should be done by transforming the curriculum, which requires first a decolonising of such an educational framework. Mbembe (2015) explains that decolonising higher education centres on content and the extent of what is taught at HEIs, therefore highlighting the need for curriculum transformation. This process of transformation implies re-defining the already existing curriculum to align with the values and cultures of the work environment of a developing country such as South Africa, Botswana, Kenya and other African countries. Mashabela (2017) posits that the struggle against the use of colonial education is to ensure the African curriculum is used fairly to prepare students (in this case, industrial psychologists) for a multi-cultural South African work place.
- ix. **Multi-cultural work context:** This entails a work environment that accommodates people from different cultural backgrounds such as race, sex and religion; as well as different levels of work experience. A typical example will be a South African work

environment where practitioners have to deal with diverse South African cultures, beliefs, values and skill levels within the same job.

1.4. Problem statement

According to Heleta (2006), the epistemology and knowledge systems at most South African universities have not changed considerably, seeing that their curricula remain rooted in the Western and Eurocentric dominance from historically privileged traditions. African universities had invested extensive resources to study Eurocentric psychological designs to the extent that students found it difficult to merge the theoretical and practical psychology with their diverse, African cultural work settings (Nwoye, 2015). Furthermore, Schreuder (2001) points out that the development of the Industrial Psychology curriculum did not pay attention to the learning process and skills for the effective performance of students having to operate in a multi-cultural workplace.

Ebersohn (2012) postulates that the training, research and practice of psychology are embedded largely in an individualistic Western perspective rather than that of multi-cultural diversity that reflects South Africa and Africa as whole. A critique of the existing theoretical discipline led to a call for the decolonisation of the higher education curriculum (Le Grange, 2016), initiated by students from the University of Cape Town (UCT) in their #RhodesMustFall protest in 2015. This action spilled over to other universities to join in the call for decolonisation of higher education. Such activities highlight the need to interrogate the theories of Industrial Psychology taught at a particular University in the Western Cape, ascertaining whether these designs can be perceived as contextually relevant.

To recap, the problem statement for the present study can be formulated as follows: The dominant use of the Western theories as basis for Industrial Psychology are not relevant enough for a diverse South African work environment.

1.5 Research questions

Based on the problem statement mentioned above, the following research questions were drawn:

1. Can the theories of Industrial/Organisational Psychology, included in the current academic curriculum of a university in the Western Cape, be considered contextually relevant?

2. Do the methods of teaching and learning Industrial/Organisational Psychology at a University of the Western Cape help equip students for their practice within a multi-cultural South Africa context?
3. What can be drawn from the relevant conclusion, recommendations and future studies in the field of Industrial/Organisational Psychology?

From the research questions above the following aim and objectives can be derived for the present study:

1.6 Aim and objectives

The study's general aim was to examine the applicability of the Western theories of Industrial Psychology to prepare graduates for a diverse South African work environment.

The main was further to investigate the contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology theories (content) taught at a certain University in the Western Cape.

1.6.1 Specific Objectives

The general aim can be translated into practice by the following specific objectives:

1. Determine whether the theories of Industrial/Organisational Psychology, included in the current academic curriculum of a university in the Western Cape, are presented contextually relevant.
2. Ascertain whether the methods of teaching and learning Industrial/Organisational Psychology at a University of the Western Cape help equip students for their practice within a multi-cultural South Africa context.
- 3 Draw relevant conclusions from the findings and make recommendations for future studies in the field of Industrial/Organisational Psychology.

1.7 Delimitations

The present study focused on the contextual relevance of theories informing Industrial Psychology as taught in a particular university within the Western Cape. Certain delimitations must be acknowledged in the research process.

Firstly, the research was conducted among alumni, post-graduate students, and lecturers from the Department of Industrial Psychology at the particular university. It was assumed that this restricted, selected sample would be knowledgeable or have experience in teaching or learning from the mentioned department. A larger population was purposely not used, to avoid excessive information that may be difficult to analyse as data. Secondly, only a single university was investigated for in-depth information (or rich data) from the participants. Thirdly, the researcher chose to collect data through semi-structured interviews that reflect the personal experiences of participants. Thus, the researcher decided against using a quantitative research design, seeing that a qualitative study delivers more precise responses. The aim was improved understanding of the participants' responses by rephrasing.

1.8 Ethical considerations

In every study, certain ethical procedures should be followed. Ethical clearance was approved from the Social Research Ethics Committee of the University. After being provided with proof of an ethical clearance number, participants gave their consent by signing the appropriate forms before taking part in the interview.

The researcher assured the participants about the confidentiality of any information taken from them, which would be used for academic purposes only. Participants were also assured of anonymity by coding their identity.

The participants were assured of their safety and that no harm would befall them when they participate in the research. Furthermore, the researcher ensured no form of duress was allowed or practiced during the interview and participants' right to privacy was honoured. The questions were formulated nonbiased but honest answers were expected from participants. Furthermore, participants were informed that they may withdraw at any stage during the interview, without repercussions. The mentioned ethical considerations were followed to ensure valid and reliable results after analysing the collected data.

1.9 Structure of the dissertation

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

This chapter provides the background, research questions and discusses theories to be used in the research. Furthermore, the focus is on the methodology and the ethical considerations for the study. This chapter thus, provides an overall introduction to the research as a whole.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter entails a comprehensive review on literature consulted about the history and development of Industrial Psychology and the need to decolonise the curriculum. This includes an in-depth examination of the contributions by other researchers on theoretical and contextual frameworks underpinning the current discipline.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

The chapter describes the methodology used in the study, which comprises the research design, procedures, the research instruments and methods used to analyse the data.

Chapter 4: Presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings

This chapter focuses on the thematic analysis of the collected data. The recorded interview questions were transcribed and captured into themes to enhance the analysis.

Chapter 5: Discussion of the findings

The final chapter discusses the data analysis, thereby drawing conclusions and making recommendations from the results of the data. Furthermore, the limitations and the significance of the study are explained.

1.10. Conclusion

This chapter provided a brief background to the study, by critically examining the issue regarding the decolonisation of the Industrial Psychology curriculum. The chapter further presented the problem statement, highlighted the research questions and pointed out the delimitations of the study. The focus also was on ethical considerations followed to enable proper data interpretation. The aim was ensuring the results of the study are valid and reliable for further studies or to be implemented by the institution. Finally, the structure of the research was outlined briefly.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to contextualise Industrial Psychology within the Department of Industrial Psychology in a university from the Western Cape. Such an investigation includes the history and development of Industrial Psychology in academia and practice as well as the typical curricula of this discipline in higher education institutions (HIEs) in South Africa. Thereafter, the relevance is discussed of theories informing Industrial Psychology as taught currently at South African universities. The investigation focused on these theories as framed by the constructs of colonisation and decolonisation.

2.2 History of Industrial Psychology

According to Schreuder (2001), the term ‘industrial psychology’ was used in the business environment as early as 1527. As a discipline, Industrial Psychology, developed in Europe during the 19th century and later spread to other parts of the world (Schreuder, 2001). One of the landmark events in the development of Industrial Psychology was the first psychology laboratory established in 1879 by Wilhelm Wundt in Leipzig Germany. At this laboratory, Wundt conducted his research on physiological processes and its measurements. Building on Wundt’s work, the scientific basis for Industrial Psychology and Management is widely attributed to Frederick W. Taylor. The latter in 1893 conceived the so-called scientific management approach (Bergh et al., 2017), which introduced objectively standardising work procedures. Spector (2003) reports that Taylor was an engineer who studied employees’ productivity throughout his career but decided to design an approach that would help improve the output of production workers in factories.

The couple, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth, contributed further to the development of Industrial Psychology through their studies about time and motion (Spector, 2003). These studies focused on timing and managing people’s movements in their different tasks, aiming to develop more efficient ways of working. Koppes (2007) explains that the Gilbreths’ study expanded on Taylor’s approach to scientific management, aimed at investigating, designing and improving efficiency within the workplace. Since then, several scholars contributed to the application of psychology in the workplace, for example, Walter Dill Scott, Hugo Munsterberg, Walter Van Dyke Bingham, Charles S. Myers and Viteles (Vinchur, 2008).

From a contextual perspective, Vinchur (2008) points out that the political, social and intellectual climate also contributed to the rise of Industrial Psychology. It should be noted that the development of this discipline was pioneered from a Western perspective, in other words, based on influences from Europe and the United States of America (USA). The first major application of Industrial Psychology took place within the military (during World War 1 and 2). In a war context, industrial psychologists applied tests to determine individual differences and select the most suitable employees for the military environment (Koppes, 2007).

For example, in Germany, the emergence of Industrial Psychology as a profession initially occurred through practices such as creating and applying aptitude tests for military pilots and mining workers during World War 1. Vinchur (2008) posits that in the mid-19th century, a period of civil rights movement in the USA led to an enduring transformation of the field of Industrial/Organisational Psychology (IOP), covering issues such as discrimination in employment (Koppes, 2007). The mentioned changes increased the need to develop industrial psychological tests that help transform the military sector and eliminate discrimination within the ranks. Industrial Psychology in the USA was influenced by functionalism and orientation that focused on adaptive behaviour and individual differences (Vinchur & Koppes, 2011). Furthermore, Katzell and Austin (1992), as well as Vinchur and Koppes (2011) point out that the continuation of and further exploration in the field of Industrial Psychology within the USA also depended on precise measuring and statistical calculation of individual differences within the workplace.

In the following years, industrial psychologists began applying certain psychological principles to solve work-related problems such as fatigue and stress, faced by employees. According to Vinchur and Koppes (2011), although Industrial Psychology were confined to and initiated from experimental results in a laboratory, the discipline later branched out into real-world applications used in business and industries. Koppes (2007) points out that several of these early psychologists were trained in experimental psychology. These exponents agreed that psychology could improve business enterprises and operations, thus benefitting both employers and employees. Spector (2003) notes that the small number of industrial psychologists at the time of his research were involved more in teaching and research in colleges and universities; only few were practising in consulting firms and companies.

From the exposition above, it is clear that Industrial Psychology did not develop from a specific source but from convergent psychological theories such as behaviourism, cognition, and social

psychology (Rothmann, 2008). In these cases, experiments were performed by their different founders, for example, Walter Dill Scott, or Lillian and Hugo Munsterberg (Katzell & Austin, 1992). Furthermore, Industrial Psychology benefited from certain psychological perspectives such as behaviourism, which was known as a leading school of thought during the second half of the 20th century (Van Vuuren, 2010).

Koppes (2007) notes that the scope of Industrial Psychology had changed, aiming to improve goals and efficiency for both organisations and its employee. This objective differed distinctly from the early years where the discipline sought to improve only goals for the organisation as a whole and not the employee's individual performance and productivity. Researchers later saw the need to apply and theorise Psychology as a field in the workplace by considering individual as well as organisational factors (Schreuder, 2001; Bergh et al, 2017). Other factors were included such as employee wellness, organisational efficiency, and productivity as well as work-life balance. In the late 19th century, Vinchur and Koppes (2007) found that Industrial Psychology was becoming more defined due to the strong theories related to research and investigations. At a certain point, companies created roles that involved employee training and organisational research. This influenced the need for, and development of, Industrial Psychology in different Western countries.

2.2.1 History of Industrial Psychology in Africa

Industrial Psychology was introduced to Africa as a subfield of Psychology, but later on became a discipline in its own right (Oppong & Oppong, 2012). Oppong (2016) points out that Industrial Psychology followed the initiation of Psychology through the colonisation of literacy education and evangelism in certain African countries. This may explain why more sources discuss the evolution of Psychology in Africa than the development of Industrial Psychology at that stage. Thus, scholars such as Oppong and Oppong (2012) accept that Psychology only was introduced to Africa in the 20th century, as a course in British West Africa during 1949. The mentioned African area comprised the current Ghana, Nigeria and Guinea. In similar vein, the development of Industrial Psychology in Africa can be traced to the contribution of South African psychologists during World War 2 in Africa (De Kock, 2018).

However, the development of scientific psychology, which includes the discipline of Industrial Psychology in sub-Saharan Africa, has not been uniform (Nsamenang, 2007). South Africa is, for instance, considered as a bastion of Industrial Psychology in Africa (Oppong, 2016). However, not all higher education sectors in Africa embraced the designs of Industrial

Psychology as South Africa did. This also was due to variations in the theories and practices between these countries, different conditions for training researchers, and the integration of the few practising industrial psychologists acting as researchers in the various African HEIs.

Certain African institutions for higher education sorted Industrial Psychology under the Department of Psychology, which made it difficult to identify the unique history of Industrial Psychology. Nsamenang (2007) points out that African countries such as Cameroon, Gabon and Chad were still struggling to incorporate Industrial Psychology into their higher education programmes. On the other hand, countries such as Nigeria, Zambia, Uganda and Liberia were using the principles and concepts of psychology in teaching Industrial Psychology courses. The reason is that Industrial Psychology had not been well-established in the mentioned diverse countries (Nsamenang, 2007). Gradually, the discipline and principles of Industrial Psychology attracted more scholarly attention. Thus, there was the need for industrial psychologists to become involved in research and practice in the industries.

The development of Industrial Psychology in the various parts of Africa was generally followed by the advancement of the educational systems, businesses and industries in those countries (Wickert, 1960). According to Oppong (2016), scientific psychology evolved during the colonial era and was implemented in Africa through education endeavours. Nsamenang (2007) points out that Psychology seemed to be more advanced in countries colonised by the English, compared to those of the French, Portugal or Spain. For example, Industrial Psychology evolved faster in previous British colonies such as Botswana, Ghana and South Africa than in other African countries. According to Pheko, Moneterro, Kote and Balogun (2013), no mention has been made of the subfields of Psychology in certain African countries, particularly those in North Africa. This finding indicates that research in Industrial Psychology, as a subfield of Psychology, can still be considered as being in its infancy stage in Africa.

On the other hand, Nsamenang (2007) argues that even where research in Industrial Psychology exist, researchers use Eurocentric theories and methods, with the primary focus on topics that reflect this orientation. Furthermore, it was found that South Africa, with more progressive legislation and ethical codes for psychological conduct, have stronger appreciation for and understanding of psychology than other African countries (Nsamenang, 2007). Botswana and Ghana were the other African countries that showed a similar pattern in the way Industrial Psychology became established in the educational sector of South Africa.

In Botswana, Industrial Psychology followed the establishment of Psychology at the University of Botswana (Pheko et al., 2013). Psychology began as a department in 2004 at the University of Botswana, where most of the lecturers had studied and acquired their qualifications from the USA and other European countries (Pheko et al., 2013). The University of Botswana was seen as the primary academic and research-generating institution with a mission to contribute to the country's development. Clinical psychologists were required to register under the Botswana Health Professional Council during 2013, at the time the article by Pheko et al. (2013) was published. However, a research strategy had not yet been implemented at the University of Botswana to enable further research, not only in Psychology, but also in Industrial Psychology.

Agbodeka (1998) reports that the Department of Psychology was established at the University of Ghana in Legon, the first department in this discipline in West Africa. During this period, Industrial Psychology was introduced as a semester course at an undergraduate level, termed "Occupational Psychology and Personnel Communication" (Oppong 2016). Oppong (2017) adds that Industrial Psychology was introduced 30 to 40 years ago in Ghana, as part of colonialised education by the missionaries who taught at the Basel Mission Boy College. The profession and teaching of Industrial Psychology in Ghana was relatively brief, almost the same age as the country's independence (1957). Despite the brief period since the introduction of this discipline, Oppong and Oppong (2012) notes that a number of industrial psychologists had established industrial consulting firms in Ghana. Services were provided in the areas of training, recruitment and psychological testing. On the other hand, very few of these industrial psychologists worked in the academia as researchers or lecturers (Oppong, 2012).

2.2.2 History of Industrial Psychology in South Africa

The early beginnings of Industrial Psychology in South Africa emerged from international contacts impacting the Southern African curriculum of teaching and learning Psychology (Bergh et al., 2017). Industrial Psychology as an academic teaching subject was transferred from the traditional Humanities faculties to Management Sciences in most South African Universities from the 1960s (De Kock, 2018). According to Schreuder (2001), research in Industrial Psychology were introduced properly to South Africa in 1946, when the National Institute for Personal Research (NIPR) was established at the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR). In the mentioned institute, Industrial Psychology was studied as an independent subfield of Psychology from the 1960s onward. Stellenbosch University was

the first HEI to create a standalone department for Industrial Psychology in 1963 (Bergh et al., 2017).

Furthermore, the first PhD in Industrial Psychology was awarded at the University of Stellenbosch in 1967 (Schreuder 2001; Bergh et al., 2017). The subjects that were taught included Personnel Psychology, Organisational Psychology, Psychometrics, Research Methodology, Career Psychology, Consumer Psychology (Consumer Behaviour) and Ergonomics (Schreuder, 2001). However, not all universities in South Africa taught subjects with the names as suggested by the University of Stellenbosch. Certain universities had broken down the main themes, others changed or omitted subjects. For instance, the mentioned university in the Western Cape had key disciplines at post-graduate level such as: Research Methodology, Psychometric and Organisational Psychology (according to the particular Economics and Management Science (EMS) faculty calendar).

According to Guest and Kriek (2008), since the 1990s, departments of Industrial Psychology in South Africa has grown at a remarkable rate. As a result, almost all universities across the country had Industrial Psychology established as an independent department, except for Rhodes University where Industrial Psychology still (2019) resorts under the Department of Psychology.

Wicket's (1960) research in Africa on Industrial Psychology found that the selection and testing technique of this discipline demonstrated significant value in Africa, including South Africa. Parallel to the developments of Industrial Psychology, the professional identity of this study field in South Africa also developed to reflect its growing maturity as a discipline (De Kock, 2018). Guest and Kriek. (2008) argue that the roots of Industrial Psychology in South Africa would not be complete without mentioning the *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology (SAJIP)* published as a perspective for outcomes of research in Industrial Psychology. *SAJIP* is an independent journal serving research in the mentioned study field.

South Africa is the only African country that had developed further in the theory and practice of Industrial Psychology. In this regard, legislation and ethical codes in the discipline are relatively well developed compared to most European countries (Nsamenang, 2007). Schreuder (2001) notes that since the end of the 20th century, concerns about the welfare of workers brought about certain comprehensive research areas in Industrial Psychology, namely: job satisfaction, career development, training, job/family responsibilities and work ethics.

It was not self-actualisation, as Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers described in their theories that inspired industrial psychologists to focus on cross-cultural issues within the South African

context (Watkins, 2001). Rather a focus on intra- and interpersonal attributes of individuals across South Africa enabled industrial psychologists to interact in the cross-cultural work sphere.

2.3 Development and teaching of Industrial Psychology in South Africa

2.3.1 Teaching of Industrial Psychology in South Africa

Industrial Psychology was developed as an intermediate science, which acknowledged Psychology as its mother science, rendering services to economics and management sciences (Schreuder, 2012). As early as 1974, Raubenheimer pointed out that the study of Industrial Psychology varied across South African universities. According to this scholar, it was assumed that Industrial Psychology was defined in terms of topics such as Personnel Psychology, Organisational Psychology, Ergonomics, Consumer Psychology and Organisational Psychology. Thompson, Cowan, Holzmueller, Wu, Bass, & Pronovost (2008). adds that the commercial focus was providing students the unique opportunity to combine their science in Psychology within the practice of business and commerce. Certain subfields of Industrial Psychology such as Consumer Behaviour, Ergonomics, and Employment Relations, were considered as the most studied fields in South African universities (Bergh et al., 2017). Most of the key courses offered at post-graduate level at the mentioned University in the Western Cape are: Research Methodology, Workplace Counselling, Organisational Development, Psychometrics and Labour Relations.

The evolution in the teaching of Industrial Psychology within South Africa correlated with that of the USA, although there may have been differences in ranking the subfields that were studied under this study field (Raubenheimer, 1974). Schreuder (2001) posits that Industrial Psychology continues to occupy its place as an applied science in terms of the so-called scientist-practitioner model. Thus, industrial psychologists follow a scientific approach to the working environment, but at the same time project a career-oriented image. By utilising the scientist-practitioner model, academics who initiated this discipline viewed research as solution to the needs of the business world (Schreuder, 2001).

In the process, there may have been slight changes in the names of the degree or courses presented in Industrial Psychology, due to the names of departments in the different universities, for example:

- University of the Cape Town (UCT) – Organisational Psychology;

- UNISA – Industrial/Organisational Psychology;
- University of Johannesburg – Industrial Psychology and People Management;
- University of the Western Cape – Industrial Psychology; and
- North West University – Industrial Psychology and Human Resource Management.

The names for diverse courses above, confirms Schreuder’s observation that in time, there had been changes and innovations to the discipline of Industrial Psychology in the South African institutions of higher education. Further developments is the incorporation of subject content of the core fields from Personnel Management into the discipline of Human Resource Management.

2.3.2 Research in Industrial Psychology within South Africa

As explained previously, Industrial Psychology was introduced to South Africa through the creation of the National Institute for Personal Research (NIPR) in 1946 (Raubenheimer, 1974; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). The NIPR responded to the need for new knowledge and the continuing demand for personnel studies that address various industrial concerns. Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) report that studies were undertaken on a wide range of subjects related to the various sub-disciplines in the field of Industrial Psychology. Since the creation of the NIPR, there was an increasing number of publications covering particular research areas such as alcoholism, absenteeism in the workplace, selection, vocational training, and construction of psychometric tests (Raubenheimer, 1974).

Raubenheimer (1974) notes that progress had been made on *Bantu* studies at the NIPR, which delivered a wealth of information about the abilities of African males in research and the work space. This NIPR research unit played a significant role in the introduction of Industrial Psychology in South Africa from then onwards, thus also increasing the use of this practice in government industries and commercial sectors. However, Nsamenang (2007) disputes the progressive view and contends that such psychological applications were used in the service of Apartheid, to sustain the racial oppression of the *Black/Bantu* majority (Holdstock, 2000).

Furthermore, the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) was established, which originated from the Bureau of Educational Research in 1917. According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2010), the creation of the HSRC contributed significantly to the development of the Industrial Psychology discipline in South Africa. Initially, the research activities focused mostly on statistics and educational data yet also sponsored research at universities through bursaries and additional study grants (Raubenheimer, 1974). Such an approach gave researchers in Industrial

Psychology at the time the opportunity to present pertinent research problems and propose solutions. Certain current research topics may have been a continuation of issues identified during that period. Based on the mentioned approach to research, Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) as well as Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) identify the need for further research topics in Industrial Psychology, for example, intercultural communication, understanding of cultural differences and the move towards employee and organisational wellness.

Bergh (2011) reports that the increasing research in Industrial Psychology and Psychology led to journals that could publish the outcomes from the South African research. These journals include: *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology (SAJIP)*, *South African Journal of Human Resource Management (SAJHRM)*, *South African Journal of Labour Relations (SAJRL)*, *Southern African Business Review* and *Psychology Research Journal* (Augustyn & Cilliers 2008). According to Rothmann and Cilliers (2007), *SAJIP* contributed by a special edition to review Industrial Psychology as a profession and trace its development, in order to encourage diversity in its profession. In time, trends and problems centring on human behaviour in the workplace led to studies on the scientific phenomena, a study that opened new areas of interest in Industrial Psychology (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). The relevance of Industrial Psychology as a discipline was determined by its responsiveness to address problems within an organisation (Van Vuuren, 2010).

The publishing of South African textbooks and journals on Industrial Psychology since the first decade of the 21st century, were based on the evolving of research ideas (Bergh et al., 2011). Previously, most textbooks and journals published European and American research. According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2010), South Africa has experienced a marked increase in the number of published articles in Industrial Psychology as well as masters' and PhD graduates in this field of study from 1950 – 1990, with an explosion of research outputs from 1990 – 2008. In addition, Coetzee and Van Zyl (2014) indicate a substantial growth of Industrial Psychology fields such as Personnel and Organisational Psychology from 2004 – 2013. Conversely, Augustine and Cilliers (2008) as well as Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) identify a widening gap between the research on Industrial Psychology and its practice in South Africa. In addition, Briner and Rousseau (2011) point out that industrial psychologist are not unified; instead they form distinct communities which divide researchers and practitioners. This finding confirm: It is crucial that academic researchers respond positively to the needs expressed by industry that students should be prepared better for a diverse workplace (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010)

A number of researchers suggest that practitioners should consult scientific literature, helping them implement effective workplace systems; likewise, researchers should gather researchable topics from practitioners (Rupp & Beal 2007). Augustyn and Cilliers (2008) note that researchers accuse practitioners of failing to contribute to the development of knowledge, leading to the implementation of psychological interventions that are not based on sound theory and evidence. These deficiencies were identified by previous researchers as well. However, since the establishing of the Industrial Psychology as discipline in university studies, both researchers and practitioners should see the benefit of cooperating as a single body that caters for a diverse work environment.

According to Coetzee and Van Zyl (2014), from 2004 – 2013, *SAJIP* had progressed in its research, contributing in areas such as in psychometrics, employee well-being, personnel psychology, labour relations and in neuro-psychology as applied to the work context. In these different areas, topical research themes were raised, which all contribute to the growth of research that could be published in *SAJIP*.

2.3.3 The professional practice of Industrial Psychology in South Africa

As a profession, Industrial Psychology focuses on the application of knowledge in the workplace (Van Vuuren, 2010). Most industrial psychologists in South Africa register at a licencing body known as the Health Professionals Council of South Africa (HPCSA), (South African Department of Health, 2012). In South Africa, industrial psychologists typically specialise in knowledge areas such as psychometric assessments, ergonomics, and organisational behaviour (Augustyn & Cilliers, 2008). It is argued based on the Health Psychological Act (56 of 1974), that psychologists enjoyed exclusive rights over certain forms of psychological acts. Industrial Psychology as a relevant discipline, or more specifically applying the principles of human behaviour, continued to have a major impact on the human condition. Bergh et al. (2017) point out that as a science and practice field, Industrial Psychology had evolved in South Africa as an independent discipline in line with international trends, contributing through its knowledge and practice, thereby benefitting individuals, groups, societies and stakeholders.

According to Van Vuuren (2006), Industrial Psychology was viewed as both a science and profession. As a profession, the focus was stronger on the application, knowledge generation and development within the workplace (Van Vuuren, 2006; 2010; Rupp & Beal, 2007). Jorgensen et al. (2015) postulate that since the 20th century, psychologists have recognised the

necessity of practice by resolving and classifying education as well as training and licencing in the fields of Industrial Psychology. These researchers believed that the process was to establish legal and ethical reports for professional Psychology as well as protecting the public from those who may claim the title of industrial psychologist without having the necessary training. Van Vuuren (2010) points out that traditionally, the sense of success for Industrial Psychology depended mostly on its application to solve workplace problems. Furthermore, the relevance of Industrial Psychology as a discipline and profession was determined by its response to crises within organisations. Thus, the focus was on exploring the unique needs and relevance of Industrial Psychology practitioners within organisations.

Regarding professional/practitioner associations, Raubenheimer (1974) reports that the South African Psychological Association (SAPA) was established in 1947 and the Psychology Institute of the Republic of South Africa (PIRSA) was formed in 1962. These bodies were both similar to the APA (American Psychological Association). The main aim of the mentioned associations was to further the academic and professional interest of psychology in South Africa. In addition to the SAPA and PIRSA, other institutions were established such as the South African Institute for Personnel Management SAIPM, currently known as the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) and the National Development and Management Foundation (NDMF) – in 1948. The special efforts of these research bodies were to promote national and international cooperation in matters concerning management (Raubenhmer 1974). These associations sponsored programmes for new development that provides high-level instructions on employee and corporate management.

Currently, industrial psychologists can become members of the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychologists of South Africa (SIOPSA), or have membership in other societies such as the SABPP (South African Board of People's Practice) and the HPCSA (Health Professional Council of South Africa). Bergh et al. (2017) point out that one of the key professional bodies where most psychologists and practitioners in Industrial Psychology register, is the HPCSA. Practitioners are then registered in the category of Psychologist, with specialisation in Industrial Psychology. Other specialisations include Clinical, Counselling, and Educational.

The practical contributions of the Industrial Psychology practitioners were provided mostly in training and development, change management, psychometric tests, labour relations and human resource management (Bergh et al., 2011). Barkhuizen, Jorgensen and Brink (2015)

report that the discipline of Industrial Psychology had expanded from problem solving to a broad domain of interests in certain subfields of Industrial Psychology such as career psychology and psychometrics. Such expansions tried to keep track with the diverse workplace from a South African context.

2.4 Education and colonisation in South Africa

According to Louw and Van Hoorn (1997), it is generally assumed that 1948, the year the National Party came into power in South Africa, marked the beginning of institutional apartheid. Thobejane (2013) mentions a segregation system with different departments of education for each of the four racial and ethnic groups in South Africa (Whites, Indians, Coloureds and Blacks). Furthermore, the education in South Africa entrenched a hierarchical view of society, showing a master-servant and ruler-ruled structure among the various groups. From 1976 – 1981, the South African government established eight homelands for Blacks with the alleged aim of de-nationalising and reducing the number of Black ethnic groups (Thobejane, 2013). The scholar contends that in the process, apartheid education failed to prepare South African graduates in areas of technology and not allowing them to participate equally in the development of the country.

Spren, and Vally, (2010) points out that in the four post-apartheid years, South Africa was rebuilding its educational system. The rebuilding was to facilitate the democratic transformation of the national education training system. Youths demonstrated against segregation in education, where different attempts were made to impose the teaching of Afrikaans, which was perceived as one of the White minority's official languages in South Africa (Spren, & Vally, 2010). Numerous grassroots organisations and local churches were highly active in the 1980s, setting up evening and technical training courses for non-white adults, to upset the public education system by asserting that non-white adults had the right to education. Later on, certain of these courses were recognised in the HEIs.

In the early 1990s, the trade union COSATU alongside the ANC played a significant role in mobilising against apartheid, with the main focus of training Black workers. According to Fataar (2018), the call for the decolonisation of education emerged on the African continent in the context of the struggles against colonial rule during the 1950s and 1960s. The opposition was against the modern colonial education, where the organising principles were found to subjugate the inhabitants as colonial subjects, by a process of dehumanisation, which ignored their full potential.

The student revolt that began in 2015, rallied around the theme #RhodesMustFall, and later #FeesMustFall, had been an on-going process for more than 20 years in the South African Higher education environment. The teaching and learning policies in South African higher education initially introduced a National Qualification Framework (NQF), which concentrated on the structure and purpose of qualifications as well as effective and efficient teaching and learning (Lange 2017). The NQF was fundamental in realising the distribution and democratisation of knowledge and regulating access to HEIs. The legal frameworks informing the process were reports by the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) (1996) White Paper (WP3) (1997), and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act of 1995. According to Lange (2017), the main objectives of the NQF was the democratisation of education and training, which was not politically isolated. In this regard, the NQF was the chosen South African instrument in response to the government's democratisation of knowledge and demarcated professional, formative and vocational knowledge. Furthermore, the NQF made available skills development for the majority of the South African population.

In the early 1990s, there was limited work on knowledge development and pedagogy, which provided sufficient variety for transforming the curriculum. Later on, the focus shifted to the relationship between curriculum, knowledge and identity. Lange (2017) defines curriculum as the process of engaging students and staff members in the development of knowledge, identity and behaviour in the multi-disciplinary context of education. Jansen (2017) explains that a curriculum represents the values, commitments and ideals of the content being taught. For this reason, most of the elite universities responded to the mentioned student protests by assembling a curriculum review committee. The question regarding the relationship between knowledge and society, knowledge and state, knowledge and development had already been posed as early as the 1960s and 1970s by most African universities (Lange, 2017). In South Africa most universities instituted certain participative academic authorities to answer this question. More pressure mounted on academic authorities and organisational researchers after the 2015 student protests.

From 2001 to 2016, a separate Ministry and Department of Higher Education and Training was established (Lange, 2017). The aim was to improve the efficiency of higher education, ensure accountability by reports to the government, all focusing on the curriculum for teaching and learning (Lange, (2017); Luescher, (2016)). According to Jansen (2017), throughout the student protests there was limited discussions on academic identity from which these disciplines

primarily can be pinpointed. For instance, the identity of Industrial Psychology in South Africa is yet to be established through scholarly consensus.

Adams, Ordonez, Kurtis, Molina, and Dobles (2017) explain that the colonialising of knowledge played a vital role in the colonial domination of the African educational curriculum. Colonisation took on various forms such as that of gender, class, race language and educational curriculum. Rodney (2016) postulates that colonisation introduced education to Africa by either replacing or supplementing the different forms of teaching that existed. For instance, the speaking of certain indigenous languages were banned in most institutions in Africa at the cost of the particular colonial language, English or French (Chilisa, 2012).

Before Africans began experiencing the need to decolonise, they were faced with the concepts derived from colonisation, embedded in the particular African country's government and educational systems (Lebeloane, 2017). In this regard, the European system imposed its form of curriculum on the African system. Ngugi, a Kenyan scholar, notes that African children who encountered literature in colonial schools or universities were experiencing a defined reflection of the European history as opposed to their African history (Ngugi wa Thiongo, 1986). Jansen (2017) describes decolonisation as the end of being a colony, which refers to the period preceding the collapse of the colonial rule in Africa and elsewhere in the world.

Mbembe (2016) and Le Grange (2016) state that since the 2015 #RhodesMustFall student protest, most South African tertiary institutions have been examining ways of decolonising the teaching and learning curriculum to accommodate a multi-cultural nation. The protest spread further to campuses across South Africa. From his side, Mbembe (2015) characterises the current period in higher education as the "negative moment" experienced on a large scale, on behalf of societal change. He denotes negative in the sense that several structures were damaged and there were causalities from the student violence. However, the process delivered societal change by accelerating the national debate and initiatives for a decolonised curriculum. Desmond (2018) argues further that many individuals involved in the decolonisation movement, indirectly appreciated colonisation as a means to identify their own education history and not as a discarding Western culture in the education system altogether. The reason is that the Western culture cannot be null and void entirely from the African culture since the two systems are interwoven.

2.4.1 Decolonisation of the curriculum

Le Grange (2007) posits that decolonisation leads to the independence of a nation, being integrated with the administrative power of other non-colonial states. For Chilisa (2012), the process of decolonisation centres around the doubts and world-views of colonised nations. According to Le Grange (2007), the manner in which universities in South Africa tend to reproduce colonial methodologies and practices may not have been contextually relevant. Lebeloane (2017) delineates decolonisation as re-instating and re-inscribing the nature and the views of Africans, which were severely devalued by the colonial authorities within the African community. Le Grange (2016) postulates that decolonising education involves the deconstruction, construction, re-evaluation of knowledge within African's HEIs. This implies that knowledge had to be derived completely within the history of Africa.

According to Bulhan (2015), the task of liberation from colonial oppression required not only decolonising of land and materials but also of the mind. Adebisi (2016) argues that decolonising the curriculum cannot rely solely on African indigenous knowledge. The process would rather entail a continuous and persistent critical engagement by selectively incorporating African knowledge into the Western knowledge. Chilisa (2012) emphasises that decolonisation should pave the way forward rather than lament and complain about the present without acting. Therefore, a project that includes the facilitation of critical consciousness could function as a catalyst for liberation and transformation of education (Adams et al., 2017). For example, the presidents of Ghana and Tanzania made changes to the curriculum and content of their educational system and in their universities. These reforms was a movement away from colonial paradigms and towards reflecting the Africanised essentials from their country (Ramoupi, 2014).

The call for the Africanisation of the curriculum was a nationalist imperative, which aimed to assert African identity and reject the initiatives of the European powers. The quest instead is to introduce African knowledge, culture and aspirations in the substance which is taught (Jansen, 2017). Students in this case, are encouraged to read books by African scholars or authors. Regarding Industrial Psychology, a limited number of textbooks have been written by African scholars, especially those who have a background in this discipline. Desmond (2018) stresses the need for curricular transformation since students and learners did not see themselves as part of the process to liberate education. In this regard, students sought to express their specific needs and how these could be realised. Desmond (2018, para. 6), points to the goals of the

South African education system, namely: “education which is liberating and which prepares learning and students to contribute to the development of the country and beyond”. This could be done by proper participation through participatory research and involvement in the curriculum by our African researchers and learners (Girei, 2017).

The South African digital application *News 24* reports that most South African universities have been working towards decolonising certain curricula (*News 24*, 2018):

- The University of Stellenbosch has approximately ten academic programmes where entities have been working on curriculum renewal.
- Universities of Johannesburg, Stellenbosch, Western Cape, Wits and the University of South Africa (UNISA) held a two-days conference (21-22 Feb. 2019) hosted by the University of the Western Cape on decolonising the curriculum of Psychology.
- At the University of the Johannesburg, a compulsory online course was instituted across departments for all first-year students. The course is known as an African Insight, which reflects writings of African thoughts.

Jansen (2017) notes that initially, educational institutions organised their curriculum content around Eurocentric knowledge of value of ideas. The need to decolonise means replacing the European content with African values and ideas at the centre of a re-designed curriculum. Alternatively, the European values and ideas must be secondary and flow from a new knowledge foundation that places African interests at the centre instead of the periphery. The re-centring process was seen as an approach to restore African knowledge at the heart of the history of society and achievements from an African origin.

Adams et al. (2017) suggest that decolonising the curriculum means *indigenising* in the sense of identifying its indigenous (African) history and confirming the need for its existence. The rationale for indigenising the curriculum sprouts from reactions to major, continuous reinforcements of the Euro-Western dominance and privilege over the South African educational system. Council on Higher Education (CHE). (2017) identifies the need to counter the dominating Western world-view prevalent in African universities. The focus would be to maintain an awareness of the social order and rules by which culture evolves, thereby fostering a renewed understanding of African consciousness. Such a critical emancipatory approach may help address problems due to colonialism in the education system of South Africa, thus providing a solution applicable to this country’s diverse workplace.

Girei (2017) points out a means to decolonise the curriculum known as “disengagement” explained by Loomba (1998) as the process which addresses the legacy of colonisation in a colonised region. Heleta (2016) suggests that the higher education system had to be constructed by dismantling the Eurocentric epistemic hegemonies in the African education curricula. This points to the Western world-view and knowledge of the mind as matters that has been dominating the African educational curriculum to date. As a result, these African institutions are seeking ways of doing research that counters the Western influence on education curricula in Africa. On the other hand, researchers identified the need to use Africanised examples or case studies in place of the Eurocentric ones in Industrial Psychology courses taught as part of an African curriculum (Chilisa, 2012).

2.5 Contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology

According to Schreuder (2001), the work began on the content of each Industrial Psychology programme that involved areas of skill development or effective performance. Such re-designed programmes enabled industrial psychologists to develop and improve their respective roles within this field. The aim was to make the curriculum more relevant to a diverse South African context, associated with a mismatched Westernised approach. The need to contextualise the curriculum is considered a fundamental issue, which encompasses the prevailing social matters, power relations and the legal inequality, with which students have to deal within a higher education environment and corporate organisations (CHE, 2017).

Furthermore, Murphy and Zhur (2012) point out that African scholars were absent from the initial introduction of certain disciplines, such as Industrial Psychology, in the African continent. Such absence made it difficult to become cognisant of the real and consistent history of Industrial Psychology for a diverse South African society. For example, Girei (2017) identifies the nature of management knowledge as a fundamental aspect of Western culture applied in Uganda, which is contrary to the Afro-centric perspective of the practitioners in that country, for instance organisational development and strategic planning for diverse workers from different cultures, values and norms.

According to Le Grange (2016), deconstructing the colonialist curriculum within institutions will entail lectures illustrated by typically African examples or case studies. This includes scientifically sound textbooks written from a (South) African perspective. Chilisa (2012) points out that most textbooks used in higher education were imported and written by using Euro-Western examples, which do not address the unique African context. Lebeloane (2017) argues

further that deconstruction and reconstruction could help re-design the distorted curriculum by re-writing that will suit a multi-cultural South African society and be more applicable to a diverse work environment.

Chilisa (2012) identifies her challenges originating from a First-World system of doing research, to an Africanised and indigenously shaped system. She found it difficult to merge her research content into the African culture. Concurring with Chilisa, Le Grange (2007) stresses the need for action and commitment in decolonisation. African researchers should be committed to the role of research serving their community, thereby developing a stronger responsibility towards the communities and help generating scholarships for indigenous research.

McGregor (2012) emphasises that after the government acknowledged the history of wrongdoing and ill-treatment of indigenous people, certain forms of action must be taken to rectify the matter. In this regard, Le Grange (2016) views action as translating the dreams and commitment into strategies for social transformation, which embrace participatory research methods derived from the African context. Taking action means addressing and demystifying the ideologies of race, culture and gender, which dominated the colonised ecology. For instance, demystifying the Western views would imply interpreting and implementing the theory (content) from the university to a culturally diverse work environment with the following values: ubuntu, cultural sensitivity, as well as celebrating diversity and religious approaches.

2.5.1 Indigenising the Industrial Psychology curriculum

In the 1960s and 1980s, the focus of most organisations in the Western world was on individual workers' participation within the organisational setup. In time, the approach shifted to group workers' participation as well as further engagement and the performance of the organisation as a whole (Schreuder, 2001). In a diverse African setting such as South Africa, the idea of individual performance was hardly going to be productive or applicable. Furthermore, certain theories and research dealt with issues on communication in organisations, conflict management, career management, or how organisations influence individual worker's behaviour to achieve change and development (Shreuder, 2001). However, these theories were based mostly on a Western culture or work setting, which became difficult to implant in a South African working environment. Barkhuizen, Jorgensen and Brink (2015) emphasise that counselling psychology should be indigenised to make it more applicable to diverse South

African cultures. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge no evidence has been published to date about decolonising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology – let alone in South Africa.

Opong (2016), focusing on what would have been done to indigenise the African curriculum, suggests that an effective way to indigenise the curriculum entails documented histories that may ensure intellectual continuity. Furthermore, the focus should not be only on the history of Psychology in Africa; rather from the different countries in Africa. Desmond (2018) argues that Western scholars should be recognised as those who introduced Industrial Psychology to Africa, rather than discarding their designs from the South African curriculum. In addition, the contribution should be identified, prioritised and appreciated from African scholars who helped introduce Industrial Psychology within Higher Educational Institutions.

It must be noted that defining and pursuing African educational goals did make a proper curriculum transformation possible in South African (Heleta, 2016). Regarding the need to underpin the guiding actions through conceptualising, Heleta (2016) proposes a rethink, reframing and reconstructing of the curriculum. Such a re-designing of strategy and content should place the interests and issues of South Africa and Africa at the centre of the teaching and learning curriculum and research. According to Chilisa (2012), the imperative is adopting a broad, open-ended stance, aimed at liberating research and the organisational process from the designs or methods of the Euro-Western cultures. In the process, the focus should be on using more of the applicable Africanised methods than its Euro-Western counterparts. For example; students engaging with lecturers and the institution on various levels to reflect *ubuntu*, which implies co-operation between organisations and HEIs towards establishing an Africanised work atmosphere and learning curriculum.

2.6 Critique of decolonisation

Heleta (2016) points out that at a certain point, unchecked decolonisation will lead to localisation and isolation, where Africanisation of the curriculum may not be the best strategy. Thus, a more suitable approach could be to reshape the curriculum to incorporate both Euro-Western and the multi-cultural African setting. Such an approach is in line with the view of Ngugi wa Thiongo, (1986) who considers decolonisation as supplementing the European curriculum with African ideas and values rather than completely negating the European values and worldview. Furthermore, Ruggunan (2016) cautions that the focus of decolonisation should not mean substituting North- American textbooks with African-authored publications

that embrace the same management ideology; the aim should rather be adding knowledge to content originally used by higher education institutions (HEIs).

Adams et al. (2017) recognise that often the lack of interest to explore local knowledge beyond certain communities, may result in the backlash of an indigenous resistance to acquire new research knowledge. According to Lange (2017), the decolonisation of higher education did not provide radical critique of the shortcomings in the existing policies, nor create new openings for policy development. Jansen (2017) suggests that instead of discarding the memorable ‘statues’ of colonisation, it would be more agreeable to keep the Western knowledge contributions in remembrance as part of the country’s intricate history. However, this view is not generally supported among scholars in this field.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter identified the evolving history of Industrial Psychology from the Eurocentric and American designs of the First World War to the African context. It was pointed out that universities embraced these designs from Psychology and introduced these in Industrial Psychology, which have been practiced since the beginning of the 21st century in South Africa. The call for the decolonisation of the higher education curriculum prompted the need to contextualise the practice of Industrial Psychology within the South African context, focusing on a particular university in the Western Cape.

The teaching, research and practice of Industrial Psychology were examined and a slight connection found between industrial practitioners and researchers (i.e. lecturers of the subject). The proposals were discussed on decolonising and indigenising the curriculum for Industrial Psychology. Such a strategy was found to entail documenting most of the information on the history and evolution of Industrial Psychology that was introduced to the South African context. Finally, the critics of decolonising the curriculum was also noted. One of the cautions was avoiding indigenous resistance to change by those already using the European and Western-based curriculum.

The following chapter (ch 3) will explain the methods used to collect data for the study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (ch 2) dealt with prior research views on the relevance of the teaching and practices followed by Industrial Psychology in (South) Africa. This chapter outlines the research methodology that is most suitable for the nature of the present study.

An applicable design in this case, will be qualitative research that can be used to answer the key research questions and identify the research participants. The main aim of the research was to investigate the contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology within the Department of Industrial Psychology at the university concerned. For this investigation, semi structured interviews were conducted involving postgraduate students from the Department of Industrial Psychology, alumni, and Industrial Psychology lecturers. These participants were all from the particular university from which the researcher elicited responses in order to answer the research questions. Thereafter, the data were processed through a method of thematic analysis to capture prominent themes from the transcribed interviews.

From the research questions for the present study, the following aim and objectives were formulated:

3.1.1 Aim of the Study

The study's general aim was to examine the applicability of the Western theories of Industrial Psychology in a diverse South African work environment

The aim further was to investigate the contextual relevance of Industrial Psychology theories (content) taught in a certain University in the Western Cape.

3.1.2 Specific objectives

This general aim can be translated into practice by the following specific objectives:

1. Determine whether the theories of Industrial/Organisational Psychology, included in the current academic curriculum of a university in the Western Cape, are presented contextually relevant.
2. Ascertain whether the methods of teaching and learning Industrial/Organisational Psychology at a University of the Western Cape help equip students for their practice within a multi-cultural South Africa context.

3. Draw relevant conclusions from the findings and make recommendations for future studies in the field of Industrial/Organisational Psychology.

3.2 Research methodology

Research methodology refers to the methods employed to collect and analyse data in a research project. The methodology provides the road map for collecting, measuring, and analysing of the gathered data, in order to answer the research questions and achieve the stated objectives of a research project (Diggines & Wiid, 2013). Symon and Cassell (2012) explain that the methodology comprises a wide range of both philosophical assumptions and methods, derived from the epistemological approach in fields that were investigated. By following the mentioned approach, the researcher becomes aware of the commitments and options of available participants when conducting the research. Research methodology can follow either a quantitative, or qualitative approach. The research process also guides both researcher and participants to understand the contextual relevance of the phenomenon that is investigated – in this case, Industrial Psychology within the department of the particular tertiary institution.

3.3 Research design

3.3.1 Qualitative research

Sekarah and Bougie (2009) define qualitative research as a design that involves analysed data or information which is descriptive and not readily quantifiable. Check and Schutt (2012) explain that qualitative research depends less on numeric information during data collection; instead it employs observations and interviews to gather data from participants' responses. Qualitative research also investigates participant's viewpoints of the phenomena expressed through words.

For the present study, a qualitative study was preferred instead of a quantitative research design. The reason is that interviews elicit the participants' experiences about the particular area of research, which suited the aim and nature of this study. In a qualitative study, there is a question whether the phenomenon, which interests the researcher, in reality exists. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2012) argue that this method is useful if the researcher seeks to clarify participants' understanding of the research problem. Furthermore, the qualitative approach explores the particular meaning individuals give to their actions and the issues on which the research focuses. Qualitative research methods can either be exploratory, evaluative, or both.

Guided by the research questions, the present study opted for an exploratory approach, seeing that it provides advance knowledge about the experiences and interests of participants captured as outcomes of the study. In case of the present study, the focus was on the implications of decolonising the Industrial Psychology curriculum.

In this study, data were gathered through interviews which were recorded and transcribed to deliver themes that describe and answer the research questions best. Creswell (2014) explains that phenomenology in qualitative research describes individuals' experiences in order to uncover the meanings which these experiences hold for each individual. In the present study, the research participants gave their different experiences of Industrial Psychology as a significant field of research, which helps build practitioners' interpersonal skills. Furthermore, this field of study investigates human behaviour in spheres such as work and university. The relevance of Industrial Psychology also impacts students who have graduated and enter a diverse work environment.

According to Camic, Rhodes, and Yardley (2003), a phenomenological method comprises steps that outline the approach which was selected to conduct the research. Such an approach would focus on the insight gained as well as an in-depth understanding and description of individual participants' experiences, by conducting interviews. For the present study, multiple respondents and outcomes provided in-depth descriptions as well as common experiences such as the teaching and learning approaches of Industrial Psychology courses. When analysing data through a phenomenological approach, researchers seek a common thread to which they can respond. In the present study, such a rationale (or thread) was the way the relevance of Industrial Psychology is taught at the university and can be applied in a diverse workplace.

3.3.2 Exploratory study

Symon and Cassell (2012) note that an exploratory research study aims to gain new insight about a phenomenon, or shed new light on the research topic, which requires the developing of rich (detailed) data. Saunders et al. (2012) point out that a small sample makes it difficult to generalise the results to the statistics of the population as a whole. On the other hand theoretical findings were provided by the participants selected particularly for the purpose of the present research. Symon and Cassell (2012) note that the nature and aims of a qualitative research is usually addressed in an exploratory study, which uses rich understandings. Sekarah and Bougie (2009) argue that such an approach deals with an extensive preliminary study that seeks to gain

familiarity with the phenomena the situations where the understanding occurred before and after the models were developed.

The present study was undertaken to comprehend the nature of the problem, seeing that to date, limited research has been done on the specific area regarding the History of Industrial Psychology in Africa and South Africa with a focus to decolonise the Industrial Psychology curriculum in South African higher education institutions (HEIs). The phenomenological approach is applicable mostly to studies that collect data through observations, interviews and processed information, which reveals specific patterns that explain the phenomenon of interest. Thereafter, theories are developed and formulated for subsequent testing.

An exploratory study is important since it helps the researcher grasp the phenomenon under investigation. Such an approach helps advance knowledge through subsequent theory building and hypothesis testing. Exploratory studies are undertaken by interviewing participants through focus group sessions or individual face-to-face interviews. The researcher made use of individual interviews and telephonic interviews were done with those participants willing to participate but due to busy schedules could only be reached in this manner.

3.3.3 Population

The population of the present study consists of the following participants:

1. Postgraduate students, who are either enrolled in an honour's, masters or PhD in Industrial Psychology, or followed this undergraduate course in the same department at the university concerned.
2. Lecturers presenting the course of Industrial Psychology at the particular University.
3. Alumni from Industrial Psychology – students who graduated with this subject as their major and currently have joined the work force.

3.3.4 Sampling

Saunders et al. (2012) explain that sampling methods allow researchers to know in advance how likely it is that an element of a population will be selected. Sampling entails selecting cases that lead to a valid generalisation of that particular population. Symon and Cassell (2012) point out that a sample is drawn from a population since it is impossible to interview all the participants within the study field. This strategy thus, avoids a bulk of collected data to analyse; in addition, most of the results usually are generalisable to the population under investigation. Chilisa (2012) suggests that for qualitative research, a sample size of 2-10 participants or less is

suitable, depending on the saturated amount of collected data. In other words, when the data collection process ceases to produce new ideas that are relevant to the study then saturation is reached (Saunders et al., 2012). In such a case, the researcher ascertains that participants repeat the same responses with little or no new insights for the study.

The present study selected 15 participants, all from the Department of Industrial Psychology at the particular university in the Western Cape. As mentioned previously, sampling methods predicts the likelihood that any element of the population will be selected (Check & Schutt, 2012). However, sampling does not predict the possibility that *each element* will be selected, therefore it is also known as non-probability sampling.

3.3.4.1. Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is another approach used in qualitative research. Data collected through this form of sampling are gathered from the candidates who are available and willing to participate in the study (Creswell 2013). In as much as this approach can be limited, it can also be beneficial by helping researchers obtain fast and valid responses from the participants (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholas, & Ormston, 2014). This sampling style furthermore ensures diversity in the participants' responses, which lead to different viewpoints for further studies. For the purpose of the present study, the researcher chose the approach of convenience sampling. The reason is that most selected participants most likely would have been willing to partake in the study, with the motivation to help improve the department's curriculum.

However, samples selected due to convenience, often meet the criteria of a purposive sample as well. The latter sampling method was found to be more relevant to the aim of the present research (Creswell, 2013). Despite the importance of estimating the required sample size, when designing a qualitative research there is limited information about the possible number of participants required to conduct the study. As mentioned previously, the participants all resided in the Western Cape, more specifically Cape Town, which made it convenient for the researcher to contact them on the university campus and those working off campus.

3.4 Data collection

According to Flick (2011), data collection is a standardised method of gathering information in research. Check and Schutt (2012) view data collection as written or spoken words that do not require direct numeric interpretation. In a study, the choice of participants from whom the researcher is willing to collect data is usually determined by the research topic as well as the

need to confirm whether these participants gave their consent to partake. As was indicated previously, the consideration of convenience led to the sample choice of participants all from or associated/partnered with the Department of Industrial Psychology at the particular university in the Western Cape and particularly, the Cape Town region.

In most researches, two types of data are used: primary and secondary (Saunders et al., 2012). The present study collected primary data through interviews. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) explain that interviews can either be structured, or unstructured (which includes semi-structured ones). In structured interviews, participants have to answer a list of pre-determined questions formulated by the researcher who knows beforehand the response required from the questions. Conversely, a form of an unstructured interview is a semi-structured one which consists of compiled open-ended questions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). This implies the participants are allowed to explain their initial response on the question further and the researcher can pose follow-up questions to gain further explanations.

For the present study, the researcher used the method of semi-structured interviews. The reason was to give participants the opportunity to expand on the particular question to which they were responding. Furthermore, the focus is on the most effective method that would allow the researcher to gather the necessary information for the research. Based on these motivations, the present research utilised face-to-face interviews. Therefore, data were collected through semi-structured interviews as well as documentary reviews of the curriculum outlines from selected honour's courses.

3.4.1 Interviews

Bhattacharjee (2012) points out that interviews are a more personalised method to collect data by using a research protocol similar to a questionnaire. In other words, the interview script contains questions and instructions to which participants do not have access. This method gives the researcher the opportunity to rephrase questions based on the responses, with the option of posing follow-up questions after the previous questions have been recorded fully. Interviews are conducted in different forms, for example telephonic interviews where the researcher and the participants have no visual contact. A face-to-face interview takes place with both the researcher and participants physically present.

3.4.2 Face-to-face interviews

Bhattacharjee (2012), notes that the most typical interview in research is the face-to-face one (also called “personal”). In this form of interview the researcher works directly with the participant, posing questions and recording the responses. For the present study, the researcher scheduled appointments with the different participants and ensured interviews took place at sites that were quiet and convenient for the participants. For instance, the students were interviewed in rooms with notices requesting silence; the lecturers in their offices. One of the alumni was interviewed telephonically due to a busy schedule, which made a face-to-face interview difficult.

The interview questions focused on the relevance of Industrial Psychology within the mentioned department. Participants had to answer how, according to them, theory is impacting students as they prepare for the workplace. In particular, the lecturers had to explain how, according to them, the content that is being taught is effective for graduates to face a diverse workplace. By following a phenomenal approach, insights were gained from the participants, allowing the researcher an in-depth understanding of the concepts when participants relayed their experiences.

3.4.3 Semi-structured interviews

Van Teijlingen (2014) explains that semi-structured interviews utilise open-ended questions that give the researcher the opportunity to identify and form an in-depth view of the participants’ understanding and real-life experiences. Chilisa (2012) defines semi-structured interviews as questions compiled in an interview guide, reflecting the research questions of the study. The sequence of questions differs for each participant, depending on the process of the particular interview and from the individual responses. The interview guide helped the researcher collect similar types of data from all participants.

From the responses, the researcher could identify the emerging patterns related to the various research topics (Terry & Braun, 2011). Most of the posed questions were open-ended, which allowed the participants to elaborate on questions where they wanted to provide more information. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) point out that conducting interviews in research is flexible, seeing that the researcher may adopt or alter questions as the interview proceeds. Therefore, the present study used the above-mentioned interviewing method to elicit detailed responses from the participants.

For research to be valid and reliable, certain measures are taken into consideration, which are expounded below.

❖ **Credibility**

With credibility, researchers ensure the reporting of the findings are truthful (Bothma, Greeff, Mulaudzi, & Wright, 2010) and the participants in the study experience it as such. For the present study, the researcher made sure the responses from the participants were recorded, in order to report accurately how they understood the questions posed to them. Furthermore, the researcher carefully explained the concept and objectives of the study to the participants during the data collection process.

❖ **Transferability**

According to Bothma et al. (2010), transferability implies that researchers provide a clear description of the context and setting where the data are collected from. Transferability means ensuring the findings can be applied to related contexts, and the information can be transferred to similar studies for future research. In this regard, the findings from the present study can be used by other Industrial Psychology departments at higher institutions in South Africa.

❖ **Dependability**

Bothma, et al. (2010) explain that researchers ensure dependability of the results by describing the research methodology clearly and with detailed information (densely). In this regard, the researcher documented the various processes in terms of a general write up, including the recordings and the transcribed interviews.

❖ **Conformity**

To maintain conformity, researchers are expected to remain free from bias by not allowing their own perspectives and reasoning influence the collected data. (Bothma et al., 2010). The researcher strived to remain objective throughout the study, which means the participants were not influenced or biased in any way. The researcher remained professional throughout and was not biased when the data were collected and analysed. All the participants were given the same opportunity to present their views on the interview questions and elaborate if they wanted.

3.5 Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis refers to the procedures used to examine and code textual and clear data and also to explore possible relationships between the resulting categories (Camic et al., 2003). In the present study, interviews were recorded, transcribed and processed through thematic data analysis. Such an approach gives the researcher the option to develop themes captured from the transcribed and coded interviews.

Braun, Clarke and Weate (2016) view thematic analysis as a collection of analytic methods used to identify designs across a qualitative dataset. This technique also offers the researcher analytic tools to make sense from the collected data. In addition, Sekaran and Bougie (2010) point out that the findings of such forms of qualitative research are based mostly on participants' real-life experiences, which is often more simplified. Therefore, excessive cross-examination of the data is required. The method of thematic analysis enabled the researcher in the present study to process the detailed interviews, in order to establish themes that describe the research topic. This was also done to capture detailed data from the responses, which answered the researched questions of the study.

3.5.1 Coding

Coding is the method used to organise data so that the underlying message portrayed by the data becomes clearer for the researcher. Theron (2015) explains that coding is an interpretative activity where researchers take turns in providing different codes to the same data set. The implication is that the objectives as well as the context in which the research is done influence the coding of the study. As a method to analyse data in a qualitative research, coding enables the use of quotations and the identification of common words. After the interviews in the present study were recorded, the transcribed responses were labelled with numbers without identifying individual participants, in order to be coded. This labelling ensured the anonymity of the participants. The labelled transcriptions were analysed to derive different themes as well as common words and phrases.

3.6 Research ethics

According to Saunders et al. (2012) research ethics concerns questions about formulating and clarifying research topics, designing the research and gaining access in order to collect data. Ethical considerations also guide the process of storing the analysed data and presenting the

research findings in a moral and responsible way. Ethics require that the way the research is designed should be methodologically secure to all parties involved in the data collection.

The present research followed the appropriate ethical procedures by applying for an ethical clearance document from the Social Science Research Ethics Committee, which was issued (ethical clearance no: HS18/6/7). Thereafter, the researcher used this certificate to begin conducting the interviews.

The researcher's main concern was to ensure participants are well informed about the study, the particular purpose of the research, and the specific research objectives. The participants were informed that their responses to the questions were to be recorded, and in case they experience discomfort, they were free to stop the interview. Both the researcher and the participants signed an informed consent document before the interviews. Participants were assured that there was no risk of them being harmed during the research. They were assured further that their identity would be kept anonymous when the data is transcribed and analysed. The only personal information from the participants related to their race, education level and gender, in other words, their demographic characteristics. The researcher took care that the data were not misused or misrepresented, in order to ensure a high level of dependability and conformity. Furthermore, no form of duress was allowed or practiced during the interviews and participants' right to privacy was honoured. Non-biased questions were posed, whereas the participants were expected to provide honest answers. Finally, participants were informed they could withdraw at any time during the interview, without repercussions.

The research followed the above-mentioned ethical guidelines to ensure valid and reliable results are drawn from analysing the collected data.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter examined the research design for the present study and described the research population selected for the sample. The method of data collection used in the study was indicated and motivated, namely face-to-face, semi-structured interviews conducted through open-ended questions. Thereafter, the research participants were described and their importance to this research motivated. Thematic analysis was done to process the data. Pre-testing of the interview questions were done to ensure trustworthiness and transferability of the interview questions. The need for ethical considerations were also explained and it was confirmed that this study adhered to these guidelines.

In the following chapter (ch 4), the findings from the data are presented, analysed and interpreted.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (ch 3) provided an outline of the research methodology and the research design chosen for the study. This chapter presents the results of the collected data (interviews) as well as the demographic distribution of the participants. Firstly, the demographic characteristics of the participants are outlined. Secondly, the themes flowing from the interview questions are discussed. Thirdly, the relevant themes are used to answer the two research questions of the present study.

4.2 Demographic distribution

This section gives an overview of the different demographics for the study. The demographic characteristics of the selected sample are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the sample

Group	Gender	Race	Nationality	Age range	Code (Participant)
Postgraduate 1	Female	Coloured	South African	20-30	P1
Postgraduate 2	Male	Black	South African	20-30	P2
Postgraduate 3	Male	Black	South African	20-30	P3
Postgraduate 4	Female	Black	South African	20-30	P4
Postgraduate 5	Female	Coloured	South African	20-30	P5
Postgraduate 6	Female	Coloured	South African	20-30	P6
Alumni 1	Female	Coloured	South African	30-40	P7

Alumni 2	Female	Coloured	South African	40-50	P8
Alumni 3	Female	Black	Non-South African	30-40	P9
Alumni 4	Female	Coloured	South African	30-40	P10
Lecturer 1	Male	White	South African	40-50	P11
Lecturer 2	Male	Black	Non-South African	50 and above	P12
Lecturer 3	Female	Coloured	South African	50 and above	P13
Lecturer 4	Male	Black	Non-South African	40-50	P14
Lecturer 5	Female	Coloured	South African	40-50	P15

Table 1 above, indicates that from the participants in the study, five are lecturers from the Department of Industrial Psychology; six postgraduate students; and four alumni from the department. Thus, a total of 15 participants was included in the study. Most participants ($n = 12$) was South African citizens, whilst a number ($n=3$) were foreigners with citizenship from other African countries. The age of the participants range from 20 to 60 years. Six participants were found to be between the ages of 20 to 30 years; three between 30 to 40; ($n=3$) participants under the ages of 40-50 and between the ages of 50 and above were ($n=3$) participants. The participants consisted of ($n=9$) females and ($n=6$) males and of these participants in terms of the ethnicity, there were ($n=8$) Coloureds ($n=6$), Blacks, and ($n=1$) White. It was noticed that all the postgraduates were fulltime students and few had part-time jobs which were unrelated to their specific study field, for instance, waiter or sales agent (call centre). All the alumni were employed while those who identified themselves as still studying were rounding off their master's thesis.

4.3 Themes captured from the interview questions

The successive interview questions were analysed and the different themes identified from the participants' responses to the questions are presented in this chapter.

4.3.1 Definition of Industrial Psychology

Participants were asked how they would define Industrial Psychology. The responses revealed different views on the definition of Industrial Psychology's content. Participants responded based on the understanding from their own studies, the academic textbooks and how they applied the theory of Industrial Psychology either at the workplace, or in society. Some definitions were related to Bergh et al. (2017), who define Industrial Psychology as an applied subfield of Psychology that uses psychological knowledge to study and facilitate human behaviour in the work context. One participant noted that "*Industrial Psychology is psychology in the workplace and the wellbeing of staff within the work context*" [P1]. Another participant stated that it is the "*understanding of how people behave within the workplace, in terms of conflict and diversity*" [P2]. Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) point out that Organisational Psychology, which is also signified as Industrial Psychology, is a psychological specialisation that deals with the application of scientific concepts and models that consist of diverse technological interventions both on mental and behavioural levels in with an organisation. Another participant identified these mental and behavioural aspects as stress, "*how factors like stress affect our behaviour at the workplace*". Furthermore, participants defined this field as, "*the scientific study of the human behaviour in the workplace*" [P14].

A participant noted that "*Industrial Psychology is to enhance productive, happy workers in the work environment*" [P13]. This definition is in line with Bergh et al. (2017) who posit that an organisational psychologist's task is to facilitate employee commitment, adjustment and productivity alongside organisational efficiency. A participant had a similar view linking the subject to productivity and efficiency within organisations, for instance "*the effective management of both the employees and the environment*" [P6]. In addition, Koopes (2007) identifies one of the objectives of the study of Industrial Psychology as improving organisational goals with emphasis on individual differences. A participant gave a similar view in terms of individual differences within the workplace, "*how people interact towards each other and how managers interact with employees within the work environment to improve on organisational productivity*" [P15].

Furthermore, participants pointed out that Industrial Psychology comprises several subfields of study and approaches such as “*Industrial Relations, Human Resource, Psychometric testing and terms of Human Resource Management, it is about employee recruitment, selection, training of employees, labour relations which is mainly about the rights of employee’s selections*” [P5] This finding is in accordance with that Bergh et al. (2017), who identify specific subfields of Industrial Psychology such as Consumer Psychology, Ergonomics, and Employment Relations, which are considered as the most-studied fields in South African universities. The participant added, “*It is also a broad field in which one could pick a field to specialise in*” [P5] as well as a “*broad field involving labour and Human Resource duties*” [P5]. The definition thus, also indicates the width of the study field. Within these study fields, individuals can work as industrial psychologists, human resource managers, or any related department in an organisation such as Organisational Development, Recruitment and Selection as well as Career Development.

4.3.2 Perception of decolonising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology

This question dealt with the participants’ perception on current decolonising of the Industrial Psychology curriculum, or asked their views about ways to decolonise the curriculum.

4.3.2.1 Adapting the curriculum

Adapting the curriculum of Industrial Psychology to an African context is one of the themes identified from the responses of the participants about decolonising the curriculum. Jansen (2017) notes that initially, South African educational institutions organised their curriculum content around the knowledge values of European ideas. In this sense, full-scale decolonising would imply adapting a higher educational system to replace the European values and ideas with African ones, and making the latter the centre of the curriculum. In this regard, a participant noted that the “*Industrial Psychology curriculum can be adapted to the context that you want it to be, whether the context is either Asian, African or European*” [P11].

The above-mentioned adaptation could be done by using African examples instead of the Western applications when teaching Industrial Psychology within a South African tertiary institution. The content that was created already could be adapted to a more diverse South African context. From a different angle, Le Grange (2016) points out that decolonising is destroying the content and practice of the Euro-Western system and recovering the Africanised system for a contextualised curriculum. A number of participants argued that “*decolonising should not arise if we are able to adapt the curriculum to our needs* [P11]. *Decolonisation will*

only arise if we have not been able to adapt the curriculum to our needs [African context]” [P11]. Another participant emphasises the dilemma, *“I cannot give examples from America, Europe when teaching about conflict management, conflict resolutions I will rather use local examples like ubuntu for a better understanding on a topic like negotiations in collective bargaining and agreement”* [P10]. These responses indicate that most of the lecturers were aware of the need to provide African examples that will ensure their students understand the content being taught.

Chilisa (2012) argues that decolonisation should have a way forward rather than having to lament and complain without taking actions. A participant points out, *“We must look for ways to supplement research and the perspectives from the Western countries to South African perspectives”* [P9]. Some of these actions could be to acknowledge the uniqueness of Africa and focus on its other challenges rather than merely on changing the curriculum for change’s sake. A participant concurred, *“Adapting the curriculum is to make it unique in the sense that Africa has some unique challenges such as immigration, emigration and inequality and these challenges are what should be looked into”* [P12]. In addition, a participant noted, *“South Africa is unique based on their different cultures, backgrounds and social economic diversity which play a big role in the way people behave in the workplace”* [P15] This view is echoed by another participant, *“As professionals in the field we have tried to adapt the curriculum to our South African environment and context”* [P11].

The striving to identify the uniqueness of South Africa can relate to Adams et al. (2017) who point out that decolonising the curriculum implies indigenisation, namely identifying the history of the curriculum and the need for its existence. Indigenising the curriculum means *“bringing it home and making it our own”* [P7]. Adapting the curriculum and making it unique for the South African context, can be identified as theme of decolonising the curriculum.

4.3.2.2 Challenges in decolonising the curriculum

On the other hand, certain participants noted the challenges in decolonising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology, for example, *“looking at our current challenges that are not from Germany’s but from the challenges faced in South Africa, challenges such as unemployment, employee engagement in the workplace and inequality”* [P7]. Participants stressed the need to Africanise the curriculum, thus providing a better understanding and application of the framework and content. This view is illustrated by the following response, *“My understanding*

of decolonising is we need to test the Industrial Psychology theories to see if they fit in our African culture” [P14], which can be done through further research.

Some of the above-mentioned challenges are highlighted by Oppong (2017), who suggests that a workable way to indigenise the curriculum is by documenting certain histories. Such documentation will enable intellectual continuity in this field. This does not only apply to publications centred on the history of Psychology in South Africa; also for the different countries in Africa. As a participant explained, *“We must look at ways to supplement research and perspectives from Western countries”* [P9]. This means supplementing Western content with those from South Africa and Africa. Chilisa (2012) points out as well that most text books used in schools are imported and written by using Euro-Western examples, which were not the same within an African perspective. P2 agreed that *“If the text book says this is how it should be done, we go according to the text book, unknowing if the text book says this is how it should be done within South African.”* One participant highlighted the challenge for South African researchers. They have to consider ways to make their research *“remain relevant in South African research which is of paramount importance”* [P9]. This importance applies to South African researchers and practitioners in this field.

According to Bulhan (2015), the task of liberation from colonial oppression requires not only decolonising land and materials but also decolonisation of the mind. Several participants’ agreed with this view: *“It is not only decolonising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology but also decolonising of our personal mind”* that is *“think critically and apply what we know in our African context when teaching”* [P14]. Certain participants elaborated, *“... come up with our own examples relevant to South Africa”* [P3], and: *“I think it is also finding solutions for Africa”* [P10]. These participants were identifying ways how the curriculum could be retained and made more applicable to the African context. Furthermore, projects that include the facilitation of critical perception could be a catalyst for liberation and revolutionary change (Adams et al., 2017). This implies the moving into a space of social change such as discovering the current process of employee behaviour in a diverse workplace.

Jansen (2017) suggests that instead of discarding the memorable statues of colonisation it is better to retain them in remembrance of the country’s rich history. The notion of ‘keeping in remembrance’ seemingly is not supported by many; however, the intention of not discarding it, was noted by certain participants, *“Sometimes some people want us to throw out everything and bring in something new”* [P13]. As oppose the above response, other participants

emphasise that the current content cannot be discarded but new ways should be introduced to supplement the Western perspectives of the Industrial Psychology curriculum, *“I think we will go backward if we throw out everything that we have or have built in the past years”* [P13]. P14 and P8 are of the opinion that new ways could be initiated rather than getting rid of the Westernised curriculum altogether. P10 notes that the decolonisation process will introduce new opportunities, seeing that most researchers in Industrial Psychology will have to investigate how the theories of Industrial Psychology can be fashioned for the African context. A participant remarked in this regard, *“Personality instrument(s) does not apply well in our African context and I think an instrument is being prepared in Pretoria that will be applicable in our South African context”* [P14]. Those involved in the research, one way or the other, have been provided job opportunities while new knowledge is being generated.

4.3.3 The Implications of decolonising the university curriculum

Most of the implications of decolonisation, which participants identified, are similar to the challenges presented by the perception of decolonising the curriculum. For instance, a participant argues, *“Decolonising the curriculum becomes a challenge because these decolonised institutions must also introduce or standardise the curriculum that suits the African context and on the other hand, on whose standards will the curriculum be? – because it might still have some of the standards for the Euro-Western standards”* [P6].

From the literature it is clear that the existing educational models focus strongly on the Western and Eurocentric culture and identities (Higgs, 2015). As a result, institutions find it difficult to exit the Western/Eurocentric culture completely. On the other hand, a participant pointed out, *“Taking this knowledge from school and applying it in a diverse workplace is a challenge”* [P5]. The reason for such a challenge could be, as a participant notes, *“I think because most of the theories were not developed in Africa; so, it becomes a challenge to apply them in an Africanised work environment, so most of the students are now forced to learn from the workplace what is applicable in a South African system”* [P14]. The responses also indicates the challenges faced by these participants due to the difficult transition from the university to a diverse work environment. Freudenberg, Brimble and Vyvyan (2010) argue that students miss out on the benefits of identifying theoretical concepts that were taught in class and applying these properly where they could improve on their communication abilities and career practice.

While Participant 6 suggested suspending the present curriculum altogether, another one cautions about the time-frame necessary to produce an Africanised Industrial Psychology. Such a process would have to include African researchers, if they are willing. Another challenge was whether, *“the suspension of the present curriculum to be able to come up with a new and Africanised curriculum”* [P6]. The introduction of such a new Africanised curriculum will be done with the help of African intellectuals willing to devote their time and resources to help structure such a new curriculum. Participant 7 argues further, *“We should not scrap everything out and start all over but should use what we have and make it more of South African friendly”* [P7]. In addition to the remarks by Participants 6 and 7, another participant added, *“There will be no significant change of decolonisation if there is no consistency in the process; also, there might be some challenges or consequences as universities might try to have new resources in order to get new African information”* [P10].

The finding above is in accordance with that of Adebisi (2016) who argues that decolonising the curriculum could not rely solely on indigenous knowledge. The process requires continuous and persistent critical engagement with a selective body of African knowledge, which is incorporated gradually into such a curriculum. It is noticed that the participants mentioned above, had conflicting ideas about the implications of decolonisation. In this regard, Heleta (2016) points out that decolonising does not merely mean recommending new learning material and reading topics. Universities have to encourage the integration of epistemic perceptions from an African context into research and the classroom (Adebisi 2016). Wingfield (2017) argues that with decolonisation, teaching and learning should not be restricted to a singular point of view. Thus, the South African curriculum should follow international best practice and its presentation should not be restricted solely to South African cultures and body of knowledge. This implies that completely discarding the present curriculum should not be an option of decolonising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology. Instead, the Western/Eurocentric cultures and paradigms should be integrated into the South African culture and be made contextually relevant.

Participants did highlight certain positive implications of decolonising the curriculum such as, *“I feel like decolonising the curriculum will be beneficial because it would get people to come up with new ideas in research and towards teaching and learning methods in an African context”* [P5]. Others cautioned, *“It will not be that easy since the decolonisation process will involve different personalities coming together to work as team”* [P12]. From this finding it can be inferred that the most important facet of decolonising the curriculum will be to improve

the quality through a better understanding of the teaching and learning process (Odoora-Hoppers, 2017). Furthermore, a participant pointed out, *“We cannot limit the knowledge base on South Africa’s next generations to only regional knowledge and culture; we also need a balance between knowledge and practice of Industrial Psychology in a South African context”* [P9]. These results show the need for a balanced educational approach that incorporates both local and global perspectives (Wingfield, 2017). Furthermore, exponents of such a process should maintain an identity that make them feel comfortable within both a traditional African and Western context (Oelofsen, 2015). In other words, the focus should be on a curriculum framework that integrates an African and ‘non-African’ context, thus preparing students in this field for a diverse workplace.

Participants emphasised the need to introduce a positive change into the workplace as well as higher educational system. This response is in line with Oelofsen (2105) who posits that decolonising the curriculum includes recognising the knowledge and the skills that students can contribute to creating a body of African knowledge and philosophy. In this regard, a participant remarked, *“The promotion of human development that is creating a curriculum that will enable students to effectively contribute to the economy when they start working”* [P8]. Expecting high performance from human development, several participants explained their views, *“Once a concept in Industrial Psychology is generic, it implies we have to apply it to our own culture and understanding that is, we will need to validate those factors that exist and apply to our different cultures”* [P11]. Another participant concurred that this approach will be helpful to, *“generate our own knowledge and not only complain of the Eurocentric curriculum but the need to contribute to our African knowledge system so we can be able to adapt it to our diverse work environment”* [P13]. The findings above point to the possibility that a decolonised Industrial Psychology curriculum will help graduated students adapt in a diverse work environment.

4.3.4 Contextual relevance of the Industrial Psychology curriculum in relation to workplace practice

In this regard, theory refers to the content that is being taught and how it could be related to practice within a future work environment. Participants (alumni) gave a general overview of what was taught during their time of study. They mentioned that the content did not necessarily prepare students for the workplace. However, it should be noted that the participants’ responses related mostly to the possibility at that time to incorporate the preparation for an African diverse

work environment practically into their learning. For example, students from that period had to seek ways themselves to integrate their learning into the workplace, especially a diverse environment such as in South Africa. According to Oelofsen (2015) apart from changing *what* is being taught, the main issue is *how* it is taught.

The view above is reflected by a participant who noted, *“I just feel like I am learning how to remember because all I do is read to write a test but the practical part is missing out”* [P1]. According to this participant, they experienced that students have to repeat aspects without necessarily understanding what they were studying. Instead they were merely reproducing the content provided in the notes during a test. This experience clearly applies to instances where most of the students found it difficult relating to content being taught in an African context. One participant explained, *“I think there are a few theories that does not talk to cultural diversity, but that talks to complications of different cultures”* [P13].

The response above indicates that limited content was taught to students about cultural differences, which can be considered as one of the key factors in a diverse work environment. Gribble, Dender, Lawrence, Manning and Falkmer (2014) point out that most of the struggles regarding students’ integration in a diverse workplace was the need to combine cultural competences, critical thinking and intellectual reflection when presenting the course in university. Such a course structure would help students relate more readily when they enter a diverse workplace, without having unmet expectations.

On the other hand, another participant qualified, *“The theory is understandable but not that easy to apply because we have to apply it to a diverse work environment”* [P3]. This participant went further to state *“You can be ready to apply the theory you have, but the organisation will have its own way of doing it, so the theory only gave you a knowledge of how the workplace will be, but not get you ready for the workplace”* [P3]. In addition, another participant noted, *“The theoretical framework from my undergraduate did not prepare me enough as my postgraduate, and because I started working before I continued with my postgraduate, I noticed that the theory and practices are quite different from each other”* [P7]. The responses of P3 and P7 above, are in line with findings by Griesel and Parker (2009) about a gap between higher education outcomes and employer expectations, centring on work-related aspects such as task directed engagement and knowledge application.

The results discussed above, indicate what could be considered as challenges in the past years where changes were made over time. Although a number of these challenges are faced

currently, certain participants (alumni) noted, *“During my time of study we were not well equipped with what will be expected from the workplace but now I see the department is making some efforts to get the students ready for the workplace by giving them the exposure to a workplace and career guidance from the department”* *“For me that was also a struggle when I was an intern and the university did not play an active role in sort of preparing us as students for the internship number”* [P10] & [P15]. Griesel and Parker (2009) explains the reciprocal responsibility: Although higher education must help prepare students for the workplace, employers must also consider their roles in providing on-the-job training to its new employees, which may lead to continual career development.

More specific to the topic of decolonisation, a participant mentioned, *“The application and practicality of these theories are not always possible in an African context because of the diversity, so the theories do not equip the student with enough coping mechanisms, given the challenges that may arise in African workplace”* [P8]. The reason for such a tendency may be that the current South African curriculum produces knowledge that applies to a European work context, which may perpetuate the colonialist system of education (Matiwane, 2017). On the other hand, most of the lecturers endeavour to incorporate African examples that would suit a South African context. Other reasons why graduates from Industrial Psychology struggle to cope in the workplace may be the complexity and the diversity within a continually changing work environment. Such an environment includes multiple emergencies surrounding issues such as capital turnover and impacts on the surrounding community (Bernstein & Osman, 2012).

4.3.5 An integrated colonised and decolonised curriculum

In light of the discussion above, there are options where decolonisation can take place without supplementing or changing the present curriculum of Industrial Psychology. The responses showed that certain participants were not that concerned should an Africanised curriculum be incorporated with the present Eurocentric one. A number of participants indicated that they wanted to discard the whole European curriculum and implement an African one. However, the more balanced view was, *“An adaption of what already exists and utilising it or highlight the similarities and differences of the African and European curriculum used in South African Universities”* [P8]. Such an approach is in accordance with Adebisi (2016) who argues that decolonising the curriculum could not rely solely on indigenous knowledge. The process rather entails a continuous and persistent critical and selective incorporation of African knowledge

categories. In light of the constant discussion on how the curriculum could be aligned with an African diverse workplace, a participant noted, *“You really do not need to put the European and African curriculum against each other but put them together”* [P5]. This implies that the European and African curriculum should be combined, but can be differentiated when necessary, based on the course that is being taught.

From a different angle, a participant commented, *“We cannot just decolonise the curriculum without creating our own African curriculum to compare with what already exists”* [P7]. The implication of this approach was highlighted by another participant, *“We need to modify certain theories that do not relate to our African diverse culture, which will be relevant to both the South African higher institutions and the workplace”* [P10]. For instance, Participants 1 & 12 noted that, regarding Maslow’s theory of motivation, factors that can be considered as motivating to an employee in Africa, will definitely not be the same for an employee in Europe. This view is illustrated by the following response, *“Decolonisation will do much better, but then we are also taught diversity which is one of the key things in the workplace that will bring some quality on the existing curriculum”* [P3]. Such findings are in line with that of Lebeloane (2017), namely that decolonising the curriculum may introduce equity and social justice into the South African higher education institutions (HEIs). Such a process will help balance the information and content, which in the long run will benefit the learners. The reason is that students were seen to have lost their cultural identity, native language, norms and values, thus making them submissive to the Western culture (Lebeloane, 2017).

Participants also understood the time-factor, *“Decolonising the curriculum is going to take time”* [P3], which would result in the *“need to continuously evaluate programs through research and content evaluation from an African centred approach whilst ensuring the end goal is kept in mind”* [P9]. The eventual goal would be an *Africanised* Industrial Psychology curriculum. On the other hand, it could be that African scholars were not involved when certain disciplines such as Industrial Psychology were introduced into the country. Such African absence makes it difficult to be informed about the real and consistent history of Industrial/Organisational Psychology within a South African environment (Murphy & Zhur 2012).

Based on the results above, it is evident that research is needed to identify more applicable and contextual content to incorporate in the curriculum, which will help students prepare sufficiently for a diverse workplace. In this regard, a participant remarked, *“Some theories will*

be lost while other good ones will be added to the curriculum” [P7]. Based on its subject-content, certain theories are not applicable to a diverse African work environment. In light of this dilemma, Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) as well as Schreuder and Coetzee (2010) identify the need for intercultural interaction on cultural differences and the movement towards the constructs of employee and organisational wellness, due to current research in Industrial Psychology. In other words, the more research is done on an Africanised Industrial Psychology, the more the curriculum will be shaped to help prepare students for a future diverse workplace.

4.3.6 Responsibility for changing the curriculum

It was noticed that all the participants agreed on those responsible for decolonising the curriculum. According to Mbembe (2016), committee meetings are needed at present such as an educational forum of Southern Africa, on strategies to decolonise and redesign the university curriculum. Mbembe’s views were confirmed by certain participants who felt such strategies should include committee meetings such as *“students, teachers and the institute”* ... *“students, support staff, academic members, alumni and members of the council”* [P8] & [P9]. Furthermore, other participants remarked, *“Universities, research departments within the universities will play a big role in sort of researching what kind of curriculum can be developed, partnering with business organisations”* [P15]. In this regard, Mahabeer (2018) identifies the Pinar’s Method Currere. This design incorporates the regressive, progressive, analytical and the synthetically methods of decolonising the curriculum. The author suggests curriculum decision-makers that operate within the context of developing national curriculum frameworks for teacher education.

Joseph (2010) reports that during the *#FeesMustFall* Movement, the Executive Management Committee for Higher Institutions issued a general instruction that faculty Deans should organise discussions on curriculum decolonisation with students and staff members. This is also the reason that certain the respondents identified academics as those responsible for the decolonisation of the curriculum: *“Academics are the ones that will need to initiate and develop the new theories”* [P10]. Another participant added, *“If the leadership start and want to make a change, obviously they first need to start the change and see if the change is effective and can be applied to the other programs by the theses academics”* [P7]. Therefore, from the findings it is clear that the mentioned leadership should include academics and Deans who will have to investigate how the new application will impact the existing curriculum if it is transformed into an Africanised one.

On the other hand, a participant pointed out, *“We are responsible because we are the ones already exposed to the current curriculum like master’s and PhD students”* [P3]. Such a response implies that students have a stronger interest than academics in decolonising the curriculum. The reason is that the students, not their institution’s authorities, will have to enter diverse a workplace; According to Mahabeer (2018), “curriculum makers have the responsibility to construct alternatives for a contextually relevant curriculum, which does not disrupt the Westernised knowledge systems”, but align it with those of indigenous knowledge.

4.3.7 Existing teaching and learning practices within the Department of Industrial Psychology

The mentioned university (Department of Industrial Psychology) functions as an accredited training institution for aspiring industrial psychologists where the programmes are made relevant for the business world (<https://www.uwc.ac.za/Faculties/EMS/DIP/Pages/About-Us.aspx>). The aim of the lecturers is to offer their students the best training, which is relevant for the workplace. This implies using teaching and learning methods that would prepare the students best for a diverse work environment. In this regard, participants identified different methods they noticed as being used within the department. The participants elaborated on these methods, *“a mixed method, rigorous approach to learning from theoretical tasks in lectures to practical projects”* [P9] within the department of the particular university. The method includes *“classroom discussions”* (where both students and lecturers interact in class) and *“, formative assessments”*. The latter refers to an instrumental classroom process of teaching where information is needed to adjust the students’ understanding of the content from the teaching and learning; it also informs students and lecturers about the extent of understanding that is recorded, allowing them to make the necessary adjustments (Garrison & Ehringhaus, 2007). Other methods were indicated as, *“teacher-centred approach, learner-centred approach, inquiry-based learning approach”* [P8].

The above-mentioned diverse approaches or practices, which the participants pointed out, could be seen as positive contributions to preparing students for a diverse work environment. Since this research was not based on the pedagogy of teaching and learning, an in-depth analysis of the pedagogy was not considered. In relation to the exposition by Participant 8 above, Participant 3 provided a basic understanding of a classroom-discussion method for teaching and learning, *“We have to research and interact in class, that is, interaction and class discussion was compulsory where before a new chapter is introduced we have to do some*

research on the topic and do a class discussion before the lecturers dive into lecturing the topic.” These two participants had similar responses based on the teaching and learning approaches that seemed helpful to them at that time. Thus, they could relate to their fellow colleagues in class as well as the lecturer.

A number of participants compared the practices at the particular university under investigation, to those followed at Colleges or Technical Universities, known as work-integrated learning, which according to them, could also be implemented within the department. Work-integrated learning is a learning method that is less didactic, more participative and real-world oriented (Council of Higher Education, 2011). This learning method is used mostly by technical higher institutions in South Africa. Therefore, certain participants identified the form of teaching and learning at Technical Universities: *“The practices are not really used, compared to how the colleges and technical universities use it but there are components in the degree obtained that will expose students to the workplace because that exposure will change their perception and mind set, so that when you go into the workplace, they have been exposed to it”* [P15]. This participant suggested that the method could also be applied in the department, where students undergo a compulsory internship course, which applies as requirement in other courses for honour’s students before they graduate. Another participant specified a teaching option, *“One that I like most was that of role play [workplace counsellors] in our counselling course, assimilating in the workplace which is very much of an interacting environment which I take as a good way of learning”* [P10].

Considering the responses above, clearly there is a necessity for intercultural collaboration that focuses on cultural differences and the movement towards employee and organisational wellness from current research in Industrial Psychology (Schreuder & Coetzee 2010). Such an approach will be able to identify where more focus and emphasis should be placed which are based on the existing teaching practices.

4.3.8 Participant’s recommendations for a multicultural working environment

Lebeloane (2017) argues that a decolonised curriculum could be crafted in Africa and by Africans whose ethics promote confidence and pride in their African youths. The crafting could be done by using cultural and social resources from the African continent. In this regard, a participant explained, *“Decolonisation is something we should have in mind, and teaching should always be pan-Africanised in my approach, because some students do not have that cultural attachment to the continent. So, we have to continually emphasise continental issues*

like countries from within the continent, whether it is South Africa, Uganda, Cameroon, Botswana, or any African Country, use examples locally within the continent. You can make a meaningful approach to the curriculum in decolonising it” [P11]. Lebeloane (2017) emphasises this need due to personal experience: the isolation he felt after returning to his home town after four years of studies. He noticed his ignorance about his community ethics and values, whereas he was well-informed about those from a Eurocentric context. On the other hand, his peers in the community were more knowledgeable about their culture and community ethics even though they did not get the opportunity to attend secondary school or university, as the case was with him.

Raubenheimer (1974) points out that certain South African industries took part in Industrial Organisational Psychology research and practices due to the lack of actual knowledge about aspects that needed to be applied in these industries. In view of such developments, certain participants explained, *“Our network was made up of people who are industrial psychologists, HRM, and some of our students are Human Resource managers who could make a good network from the industry; and a congruence developed between what is working or not working to make the curriculum continuously relevant”* [P14]. In time, problems regarding human behaviour in the workplace led to studies focusing on the scientific phenomena, which opened new areas of interest for Industrial Psychology (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). Examples of such areas are, *“Students having to partake in a work-based experience placement in the duration of their studies, for them to get an idea of how applicable the theoretical aspects are in the real world of work”* [P8].

The relevance of Industrial Psychology as a discipline depends on its responsiveness to address problems in organisations (Van Vuuren, 2010). A participant elaborated on this matter, *“I find most useful in my practices is to always draw from our local example. Give our local narratives, it makes no sense to do something that has no resonance with our local little experience ... You must train graduates/products that are balanced that are always balanced in their practice that is they fit in with the environment that they have to go and work with”* [P11]. This finding is in accordance with the view of Lebeloane (2017), who contends that it is no use that higher institutions decolonise their curriculum, while there is no interventions at primary and secondary school levels. Therefore, learners from primary level upwards need to be introduced to an Africanised curriculum. This will help them integrate such a focus when they enter higher education; even those who do not complete their matric. Such an approach will enable employees to cope within a typically African diverse workplace

Certain participants identified challenges they face in their current workplace, namely the *“struggle I faced when I was an intern and the university did not play an active role in sort of preparing us as students for the internship, we actually knew nothing and just had to learn all by ourselves with little help from the organisation”* [P15]. This finding is in line with reports on students struggling to integrate into their work environment. Therefore, the issue seemingly is not only about decolonising the curriculum, but the ways in which students can be equipped for a diverse work environment after graduating from their studies.

4.4 Answering the research questions

The research questions are answered below based on the identified themes from the interview questions. Answering the research questions will be more a summary of the themes and responses of the participants. By answering both research questions, it can be confirmed that the first two specific objectives were attained.

4.4.1 Q1: Is the theory of Industrial /Organisational Psychology as included in the current academic curriculum of the University of the Western Cape contextually relevant?

According to research, Bergh et al. (2017) explains that in the early stages, Industrial Psychology in South Africa was introduced by international contacts who influenced the Southern African Psychology teaching and learning curriculum. The incorporation of Industrial Psychology into most universities in South Africa was based on the Western culture and knowledge system. These theories had generally been considered as contextually relevant until the #FeesMustFall protests began. At that stage, students and academic researchers brought the issue to the fore that the theories are not that relevant as was considered since its incorporation into the South African university curriculum.

This finding is in line with that of Nwoye (2015) who argues that the formal study of Psychology at African universities had been colonised by aligning it to the mainstream Western psychological culture, contrary to the theoretical engagement in the curriculums of South African higher education. Students were unable to apply the theories they learnt at university into a multicultural work environment. This experience is confirmed by participants who point out not all that was taught at university was relevant for their diverse work environment: *“During my time of study we were not well- equipped with what will be expected in the workplace”* [15]. Such a situation made it difficult for most graduates in this field to integrate into the diverse work environment, seeing that they did not have the necessary coping

mechanisms. Therefore, Mourshed, Farrell, and Barton (2013) suggest a better understanding of the journey and challenges that student's face when entering the workplace. Such an understanding will help higher education institutions (HEIs) prepare and support students for better employability in South Africa.

Participants noted that not all the content taught at the mentioned university was contextually relevant. However, as lecturers or facilitators they had to introduce African examples to help students grasp, for instance, the underlying concept behind the study material being taught. In this regard, Participant 11 noted, "*whatever subject or topic is being taught be it Labour Relations, Conflict Management, Organisational Development I have to give examples in our Africa context like Ubuntu when lecturing on conflict management.*" The results showed that the introduction of such examples will help students form a better understanding of and be more prepared to face a diverse work environment. On the other hand, a participant emphasised the complexity, "*I think there are a few theories that does not talk to cultural diversity, but that talks to complications of different cultures*" [P13]. This view can be related to the South African context with its cultural diversity, be it at educational institutions or in the workplace.

4.4.2 Q2: Do the methods of teaching and learning of Industrial/Organisational Psychology at the University of the Western Cape contribute in equipping students to practice in a multicultural South Africa?

According to Govender and Wait (2017), employers demand that HEIs provide a sound knowledge base to their graduates due to concerns about newcomers being unable to apply their knowledge at work. These concerns could be the result of the teaching and learning methods employed by higher educational institutions. As mentioned above, participants identified methods that would suit them as teaching and learning approaches, for example, *classroom discussions*, and the methods of *formative assessment*. Other teaching and learning methods seemingly worked for certain participants but not for others, as is evident from the responses. However, generally, the participants stressed that no matter what method was used, it is essential that this approach helps to prepare students for a diverse workplace.

The participants highlighted being able to work and interact with their fellow classmates as aspects that helped prepare them for the workplace. In addition, one of the key issues was the work-integrated learning, which participants required of the mentioned university to present to students. Govender and Wait (2017) explain that work-integrated learning increases job knowledge and skills, thus leading to positive behaviour and comprehensive work readiness.

From the results, it is clear that the way graduates are prepared will cultivate a positive attitude toward the workplace, especially a diverse environment, thereby increasing their productivity.

Certain participants (i.e. lecturers) noted that they made sure they introduce an African example to whatever topic they were teaching: *“I think there is no lecturer that do not want to teach African intent and African content”* [P13]. The reason is that the mission of the department emphasises the field of positive organisational behaviour, focusing on specific topics such as persistence, leadership and psychological capital (<https://www.uwc.ac.za/Faculties/EMS/DIP/Pages/About-Us.aspx>). On the other hand, a participant noted, *“As a lecturer we might not want to change at the expense of that which is relevant whether the curriculum is African or not”* [P13]. In other words, as lecturers, they aim for their students to be empowered, able to deal with the changing world. Eventually, these lecturers made sure the students were equipped sufficiently, through such a positive approach, to face a diverse work environment. In this regard, Govender and Wait (2017) point out that although certain universities have focused on graduate’s employability, not all HEIs have incorporated or included this them in their curriculum. However, since universities seemingly are gearing towards a form of decolonised education, these aspects should subsequently be added.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented and analysed the collected data, namely transcribed interviews, which were processed manually. The identity of the participants was not disclosed but number coded, although their demographics were recorded. Themes, generated from all 15 transcribed interviews, entail the following: *Definition of Industrial Psychology, Adapting the Curriculum, The Implications of decolonising the University curriculum and Contextual relevance of the Industrial Psychology curriculum in relation to workplace practice*. These themes and responses of the participants were substantiated with views and findings from the literature reviews.

Finally, first two research questions were answered by providing an overview of and discussing the identified themes that were captured from the analysed data. The following chapter (ch 5) will provide the discussion, recommendations and conclusion of the present study. This will also answer the final research question, which translates into the third specific objective for the study.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the discussion and conclusions drawn from the data analysis, from which recommendations are made, limitations pointed out and the significance of the study explained. The mentioned outcomes are based on the results of the study investigating the Euro-Western influence on the African educational curriculum within higher education institutions (HEIs). The research also focused on implications of decolonising the current curriculum of Industrial Psychology. Below is a discussion about the contextual relevance of the theories of Industrial Psychology as taught within the particular University in the Western Cape. The discussion is based on the responses from the participants who were interviewed. The focus is on whether the research aim and the final specific objective have been reached.

5.1 Discussion

The general research aim for the present study was to determine whether the theories of Industrial/Organisational Psychology (IOP), included in the current academic curriculum of a university in the Western Cape, as presented are contextually relevant. Furthermore, the aim was to ascertain whether the methods of teaching and learning Industrial Psychology at a University of the Western Cape help equip students for their practice within a multi-cultural South African context. Both aspects of the general aim as well as the particular objectives for the present research were attained in chapter 4, where the main research questions were answered. In this chapter, the focus is on the final specific objective, namely; draw relevant conclusions from the findings and make recommendations for future studies in the field of IOP.

The present study has brought to the fore aspects in the teaching and learning of Industrial Psychology that to date were not that prevalent in the department of the mentioned university. On the one hand, certain responses from the participants were not in line with their expectations, for instance individuals being biased towards the issues surrounding decolonisation. On the other hand, participants were honest and objective in their responses on the research topic.

Preparatory strategies

From the results, it was evident that certain strategies would have a stronger impact on decolonising the curriculum. The need was identified for teaching and learning approaches that would provide students with a better understanding of the theory and practices in order to apply

these in a diverse work place. Most of the participants sought ways in which students could get access to work-integrated learning.

From the side of main role-players responsible for decolonising the curriculum within the Department of Industrial Psychology in the particular University, most of the participants agreed that the responsibility lies with the Deans, Head of Departments and the University Senate. These role-players are viewed as responsible for compiling the course outline of Industrial Psychology subjects, where the introduction of Africanised examples will empower students during the teaching and learning process. Such a teaching and learning strategy will help prepare graduates for a diverse work environment from a so-called developing country.

Certain participants saw the need for relevant changes and improvement on the current Industrial Psychology curriculum of the mentioned university department. According to Lange (2017), providing epistemological access is part of the university's overall strategy and not of the academic development programmes. He adds that students entering the university should be initiated in the process of constructing academic knowledge within their specific study fields or discipline. Such an overall strategy will help students not only acquire the necessary knowledge. They will also be guided to internalise behaviours, practices and identities that would help them integrate in a diverse work environment.

Integrated curriculum

The idea of completely discarding the European curriculum and implementing an African curriculum instead is still debatable as is evident from the participants' responses. For example, Ruggunan (2016) emphasises that decolonisation does not mean substituting North-American textbooks with African-authored ones that underwrite the same managerial ideology. Based on the findings from the literature review and the interviews, the present study was able to distinguish *unchecked* from *deliberative* decolonising. The latter strategy implies adding an Africanised orientation to the existing curriculum and ensuring the restructured curriculum will guide graduates to integrate in a diverse work place.

Arguing for the deliberative approach, a participant argued that not only will it be difficult to decolonise the curriculum of Industrial Psychology, in light of scientific subjects such as chemistry and biological terms, which are used worldwide. Naturally, it would also be impractical to substitute such curriculum frameworks with an African or South African invention or label. The strategic focus should be that students should be prepared to face the

global competitive organisational environment and not only within Africa (in this case, South Africa).

Redefining the lecturing style

Some of the participant's identified that not all lecturers within the department use the same style of lecturing. However, lecturers are unanimous in their attempts, based on their individual capabilities, to use African examples during classes. The need is to move from the theory of individualism that underlies a European curriculum to an Africanised orientation, which is of a collective nature.

- *Individualist society*: people think autonomous and act independent; they give priority to personal goals rather than that of the society at large (Triandis, 2001).
- *Collective community*: people are interdependent and give priority to their communities such as family, tribe and the nation. People experience behaviour, norms and values on a communal basis (Triandis. 2001).

In light of the contrast above, the findings showed that the department under research indirectly still use aspects of European theoretical teaching styles. Such an approach is set against a collective teaching technique that will prepare students more effectively for a diverse work environment. It should be noted that the theories seemingly are not contextually relevant as students demanded in the #FeesMustFall campaign from 2015 onwards. In this regard, the focus on work-integrated learning is still absent from the teaching and learning approach of courses in Industrial Psychology at the particular university's department.

Re-planning the programme

Accepting decolonisation of the curriculum identified the need that staff from the Industrial Psychology department had to apply a more Africanised teaching and learning technique. This should take place alongside the implementation of a work-integrated learning method. However, findings showed that such re-invention would take a long time to be realised. Furthermore, the change that such an Africanised teaching and learning technique would bring about, may not be as widely accepted. The reason is that most graduates have been failing to apply the content taught at university to a diverse Africanised work environment.

Furthermore, in the current programme, the co-operation of employers is not fully ensured. Certain Industrial Psychology partners may be unwilling to allow internship for students, which would give them the necessary exposure preparing them for a diverse work place. In this regard,

most of the alumni identified the challenges they themselves faced to integrate in the work place. The problem was the lack of mentors or senior colleagues willing to guide these new entrants through the work process.

Participant 7 summarised the problem: *“The company is not really ready to receive you or help you because they feel you are a young person and do not know how to get about the industry.”*

This is one of the reasons participants identified why new workers are not able to adapt in a diverse work place. In this regard, participants emphasised the need for a work-integrated learning programme, which would oblige organisations to assist student-interns in the work place.

5.2 Limitations

Despite the findings and contributions to the field of study, given the diversity of the participants in the present research, certain limitations were identified.

Firstly, the demographic profile of the participants was biased based on the racial groups where responses reflect only the experience of the selected sample. There was no equality in the distribution of race or gender, which resulted in biased responses to a certain extent.

Secondly, the study was undertaken in a historically disadvantaged university and the responses elicited from only from a single sector. Therefore, the findings were not transferable to similar contexts, which made it impossible to generalise the results to other HEIs countrywide (or even globally).

Thirdly, during data collection the participants were not always readily available. Although the majority could be found within the department’s premises, individual appointments still had to be spaced for interviews. For instance having to book and confirm an appointment with the different participants could be regarded as time consuming. Some of the alumni were interviewed at a place of their convenience, usually outside the university premises, whereas others had to be contacted telephonically due to work schedules.

Fourthly, the research was limited to a single department and to a particular university in the Western Cape. This led to a restricted sample and limited information from the field under research.

Fifthly, the use of semi-structured interviews allowed for greater flexibility in interviewing and responding. However, the study could not give a detailed report on the perceptions and

experiences equally or separately but a general overview of their feedback were recorded in the study.

Sixthly, according to Govender and Rampersad (2016) academics have highlighted the scarcity of research dealing with decolonisation in business management and related fields of study. Ruggunan (2016) also notes a gap in publications from management courses with Industrial Psychology as one of the major topics. Very few articles were identified in the course of this study that dealt with the decolonisation of Industrial Psychology as well as the background of Industrial Psychology. Furthermore, not many African researchers have written on the background of Industrial Psychology and the decolonisation of the curriculum. This gap in information limited the scope of the literary review of the present study.

5.3 Recommendations

Given the challenges faced in the research, certain issues were raised by the participants for further research as well as for the particular university to consider during the curriculum decolonisation process.

Participants made suggestions that will help not only the mentioned university. Other Universities in the Western Cape or those countrywide could consider using these suggested strategies to help develop and present a decolonised curriculum.

Firstly, most of the alumni pointed out that they were unable to adapt to the diverse work environment by still having to apply the European curriculum. These results emphasised the need for industrial partners to work closely with the Department of Industrial Psychology. Such industrial co-operation will help prepare students for the diverse work environment. Thus it is recommended that certain changes be made to the curriculum that will satisfy expectations of industrial partners when they take in graduates as interns from the Department of Industrial psychology. This will also give the students the confidence to face such a diverse workplace.

Secondly, the responses indicated that most of the participants (alumni and postgraduates) yearned for a *work-integrated* learning platform that will help prepare students for a diverse workplace when they graduate. Thus, it is recommended that in accordance with teaching learning strategies at Universities of Technology and colleges, students are given the opportunity to do job shadowing and their experiences are assessed as part of their course work.

Thirdly, for further studies, more industrial partners could be involved in the research with Industrial Psychology departments in HEIs across South Africa.

Fourthly, since the present study focused on a single university and a particular department, it is recommended that other universities and their departments are involved for more diverse responses from the participants. Using other universities may also increase the transferability of the results.

Fourthly, training of staff is essential. More conferences and workshops are needed on the specific subjects from Industrial Psychology and decolonisation, which focus on an *integrated* curriculum where an Africanised orientation is given to the existing Euro-Western framework. In this regard, Industrial/Organisational Psychology (IOP) can learn from a two-day workshop on the decolonisation of Psychology held at the mentioned university on 21-22 February 2019. Participants in this workshop proposed different strategies on decolonising Psychology as theoretical framework from an African perspective.

Finally, a formal panel or forum must be created combining the efforts and insights of academic experts and relevant stakeholders such as academic staff and students, to investigate changes to the curriculum best suited for Industrial Psychology within a so-called developing country.

5.4 Significance

The results of the present study benefits higher education institutions (HEIs) and the industry by delivering graduates in Industrial Psychology who are better prepared for a future career. The findings will enable both the Department of Industrial Psychology and organisations to work closely for a decolonised curriculum that is applicable in a unique South African workplace. For instance, new entrants will be able to relate to a diverse work place.

The present study contributes by results and recommendations on strategies to the mentioned department and its industrial partners on empowering graduates in the work environment. The challenges identified for decolonising the curriculum of Industrial Psychology provide topics for further research on applicable solutions. The findings showed that decolonisation does not necessarily imply a *fully Africanised* curriculum of Industrial Psychology. Such unchecked decolonisation turned out to be a debatable area of study. Therefore, the present study provides the outlines for an *integrated approach*, which distinguishes deliberative from unchecked decolonisation. This solution can be explored further in collaboration with other universities from Africa and developing countries worldwide.

The results from the study helps the department by highlighting teaching and learning methods which incorporate examples for an African context. The responses underlined the need for *work-integrated* learning, which involves the industry through programmes such as internship or job-shadowing. However, this method to decolonise the curriculum is not limited to the mentioned department; it could be implemented by other departments within the particular university, or in similar contexts countrywide and even globally.

In practice, the results from this study help HEIs deliver graduates who can be integrated as practitioners into a diverse work place. Furthermore, a work-integrated curriculum in collaboration with the industry will help students understand what is expected of them in such a work environment. The results can also be used to advise amendments of higher education policies which will enhance the existing Industrial Psychology curriculum through an Africanised orientation coupled with indigenised community values.

5.5 Conclusion

The findings from the present study underlined the need for a contextually relevant curriculum for the Department of Industrial Psychology from the particular University in the Western Cape. To establish this relevance of the study field, the researcher provided a background to the development of Industrial Psychology into becoming a department in its own right within universities in South African and certain African countries.

Focusing on contextual relevance, the study identified the need to decolonise the curriculum, which will allow graduates to adapt in a diverse work environment. The study identified certain challenges in decolonising the curriculum – which has been a cause for concern since the #FeesMustFall protest in 2015. In this regard, certain participants noted that this process is complex and may not take such a short period as expected

This chapter gave the overall discussion based on the findings and made recommendations for further studies. Finally, the significance and contribution of the study were highlighted. The results indicated that more could be done to help graduates adapt in a diverse work environment. The authorities and relevant role-players in higher education will need to work hand in hand with organisations to deliver an *integrated* curriculum, in order to achieve such an outcome.

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ADDENDUM A: Proof of editing

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10 December 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

I hereby confirm that the MCom dissertation by Ms Nibafu, Edel-Quinn Fegendoh (student no: 3875689) was edited and groomed to the best of my ability. The processing included recommendations to improve the language and logical structure, guide the line of argument as well as to enhance the presentation. I am satisfied that, provided my changes to the text and my recommendations are implemented, the language would be of a standard fit for publication.

Rev Claude Vosloo

Language and knowledge practitioner and consultant

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