NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENTSCIECES

COURSE GUIDE

Course Code:	MPA 871
Course Title:	Public Personnel Administration
Course Writers:	Prof. Ibrahim Omale (Prince Abubakar Audu University)
Head of Department:	Dr. (Mrs.) Nwamaka P. Ibeme (National Open University of Nigeria)
Dean of Faculty:	Prof. Wilfred I. Uwuyani (National Open University of Nigeria)
Departmental Coordinator: **Course Material Review**	Dr. Musa Zakari (National Open University of Nigeria)
Reviewers:	Dr. Amangwai Josiah Monday Federal University Lafia Dr. Mark Ochala, (National Open University of Nigeria)

Introduction
MPA871 Public Personnel Management is a 2-credit course for Masters in Public Administration (MPA) students within Public Administration programme. It is one of the courses taken by students offering M.Sc Public Administration degree. To be a successful student in distance learning you must be self-disciplined, independent, and possess initiative. You are advised to read the study material before you begin your study. MPA 871 builds on the Personnel courses studied at the undergraduate level and for the experience acquired in the handling of personnel functions in the places of work where you might have been exposed. Here we will learn about the theory and practice of personnel management especially, as practiced in the Nigerian Public context. The practice questions at the end of each unit take the form of self-assessment exercises in which you can practice what you have learnt. MPA 871, as presented here, has 23 units in four modules as its course content.

The Course Aim
The course aims at helping students acquire more advanced theories of personnel management to improve their understanding of concepts and theories learnt and known in the past. It also aims at placing whatever personnel functions you have performed or are now performing in its proper theoretical context. In general, the course is intended to give the student a proper and firmer grip of all the essential elements of personnel management in theory and practice.

Measurable Learning Outcomes
Upon successful completion of the modules, you will be able to:
1. Explain what public personnel management is, where it started and how it has evolved to the stage it is now.
 2. Distinguish between the theories and practice of public personnel management and how environment impacts on theories.
3. Distinguish between the process of obtaining and that of maintaining a satisfactory and a satisfied work force.
4. Acquire theories and techniques of applying them
5. Explain what each of the critical functions are
6. Apply in practice the critical functioning of personnel management

Course Guide
MPA 871 - Public Personnel Management is a course that exposes students to the theories of personnel management and applies them to the public sector. Where theories in the strict sense of the concept do not exist, the course defines concepts, e.g. refinement, job specifications, compensation, etc. as they are available in personnel management literature and states how those are applied in the Nigerian Public Sector. The titles of the twenty-three study units in four modules are shown herein below.

Self-Assessment-Exercise (SAEs)
Self-assessment Exercises each are incorporated in the study material for each unit. Self-assessment Exercise helps students to be realistic judges of their own performance and to improve their work. It promotes the skills of reflective practice and self-monitoring; promotes academic integrity through student self-reporting of learning progress; develops self-directed learning; increases student motivation and helps students develop a range of personal, transferrable skills.

Summary
Each Unit contains a summary of the entire unit. A summary is a brief statement or restatement of main points, especially as a conclusion to a work, a summary of a chapter. A brief is a detailed outline, by heads and subheads, of a discourse to be completed.

Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content
The study materials contain possible answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content. The possible Self-assessments answers enable you to understand how well you are performing in the contents. It is a way of analysing your work performance and any areas for growth. Reflecting on your strengths, weaknesses, values and accomplishments can help you determine what goals to work toward next.

Course Material
This course material package comprises of following Modules and units structure:

MODULE ONE
UNIT 1 Origin, evolution, definition and place of personnel management in organizations
UNIT 2 Location of personnel management in organizations
UNIT 3 Planning of organization's human resources
UNIT 4 Recruitment and recruitment policies and methods
UNIT 5 Staff selection process

MODULE TWO
UNIT 1 Internal selections
UNIT 2 Career systems
UNIT 3 Compensation
UNIT 4 Fringe benefits
UNIT 5 Employee performance appraisal

MODULE THREE
UNIT 1 Training
UNIT 2 Management Development
UNIT 3 Motivation Theories
UNIT 4 Employee/Industrial Relations
UNIT 5 Collective bargaining

MODULE ONE

UNIT 1
ORIGIN, EVOLUTION, DEFINITION AND PLACE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN ORGANIZATIONS

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Having gone through the course guide, you are by now aware of what we intend to cover in this course. This unit is to establish the foundation for it. In it we give the origin, the evolution and the definition of management.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
Define personnel management
Identify its origin
Trace its evolution over time

1.3 Origin of Personnel Management

The origin of personnel management is the same as that of all managements. At the beginning of management practice, everything was done without the niceties of the subdivisions we now have today, e.g. public administration, business management, financial management, personnel management etc. Be this as it may, we shall attempt to trace the origin of management including personnel management and later isolate personnel management and trace its evolution. Paul Mali, in his work - Management

Handbook, says that "...the process of getting things done through people" and the various practices which make it up have been around almost since the dawn of time. He said, next, that the art or sciences of planning and control, materials scheduling system, organizational hierarchy, were behind the construction of the pyramids in Egypt in the years 5000 - 1600 BC. He also said that the science of span of control is said to be the invention of Moses' father-in-law, Jethro, in the year 1491 BC. You will note here that when Paul Mali talks of management as getting things done through people, which is what it is, personnel i.e. people, plays a centre stage. Therefore, we can say personnel administration also dates as far back as the dawn of time.

1.4 The evolution of Personnel Management

Although there has always been a human side to general management what characterizes modern management and distinguishes it from its historical antecedents, is the fact that the latter paid little attention to the human side i.e., personnel management. Paul Mali notes that from the period of the construction of the pyramids to the early years of the Industrial Revolution in England, i.e. from 5000 BC to the years 1700 -1785 AD, the handling of men at work was characterized by slavery and repression. In order to give you a vivid picture of the type of slavery and repression with which the human side of enterprise was treated, let us cite an instance of what happened in England in even as late as the year 1799. In 1799, the lawmakers decreed that any workman, who conspired with any other workman to extort an increase of wages, or decrease in hours, was liable to three months in jail. Further, if any workman so much as attend a meeting called for the purpose of plotting such extortions, or if he urged any other workman to attend such a meeting, or if he gave aid to the family of any worker convicted for attending such a meeting, ... then he was likewise liable to three months (Milayn.a. rd, Top Management Hand Book P.62). Today, however, because of civilization, better laws pertaining to trade unions, the works of management scholars such as Douglas Abraham Maslow, etc, the human side of enterprises by which we mean personnel management has reached a stage far above its origin of slavery and repression.

1.5 Definition and scope definition of Personnel Management

You will discover in the course of your programme that many concepts and terms in the management sciences have slightly varying definitions depending upon who is defining them. Personnel management, which is our concern here, takes place in differing environments or milieu. For example, we are here concerned with personnel management in the public sector, i.e. in the environment of government organizations. You are most probably aware that personnel management also takes place in the private sector, i.e. in organizations not owned by the government, e.g. the Lever Brothers Plc. makers of Omo washing powder, the Cadbury Nigeria Plc makers Bournvita, etc. Because we are aware of all these, we shall provide you a number of definitions so that you can choose anyone you want to depending upon the context or environment of your speech or your writing. One of such definitions which we have put together after going through so many texts is

this: Personnel Management is the process of obtaining and maintaining a satisfactory and a satisfied work force. To put the whole subject matter in a box as small as this means that it has been compressed to make it possible for you to carry it with you in a small package. In this package there are two distinct sub-packages, namely: - the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force and the process of maintaining a satisfied work force. Each of the sub-packages has many functions, which we shall be examining one after another in subsequent units. For example, the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force contains the following sub-processes: - recruitment, examination of those who have applied for jobs, interviewing them, offering own acceptance of the jobs and assuming duties, their being inducted into the organization and placed on specific jobs in given sections of the organization. Much later in their lives in the organization their being sent for training for better performance and bigger responsibilities in the organization, etc. The sub-package which we have identified as maintaining a satisfied work force. Each of the sub-packages has many functions, which we shall be examining one after another in subsequent units. For example, the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force contains the following sub-processes: - recruitment, examination of those who have applied for jobs, interviewing them, offering own acceptance of the jobs and assuming duties, their being inducted into the organization and placed on specific jobs in given sections of the organization. Much later in their lives in the organization their being sent for training for better performance and bigger responsibilities in the organization, etc. 13 The sub-package which we have identified as maintaining a satisfied work force also has its own numerous functions e.g. the payment of salaries and wages as and when due, the provision of houses or allowances in lieu of houses, the case for their health, the putting in place of methods for their advancement or promotion, motivation in order to give the staff reason to desire to love the work they do and to do more etc. As you have seen that this first definition we have given here is "packed" with many ideas and functions, so you will see that a second definition we offer next is "packed". The following definition was proffered by a well-respected personnel management theorist by name Edwin B. Filippo, in his popular and widely read book,', Personnel Management,' 'which he has issued now for at least the sixth time. This definition is contained in the Edition issued in 1984. There he defined personnel management thus: **Personnel Management is the planning, organizing, directing, and controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration, maintenance, and separation of human resource to the end that individual, organizational and societal objectives are accomplished.** You will notice that this second definition is by far longer than the first. Here, a number of functions which are performed or which you will perform if you find your-self in the position of a personnel manager are listed. Let us list and describe them briefly, much briefer than did Flippo, in order to show you what they mean and why they are significant to the subject of personnel management.

Planning

According to Flippo, this means "...the determination in advance of a personnel program that will contribute to goals established for enterprise". What this means is that, assuming you were the manager in a ministry, you will be required to map out and present the

personnel requirement of either a new project or an enlargement of existing activity in advance of the project or the increase in its performance.

Organizing - This, in the words of Flippo, entails "... designing the structure of relationships among jobs, personnel, and physical factors"

Directing

Flippo say that the function of "direction" from which this action word directing comes, " ... may be called by other names, such as 'motivation' or 'actuation' or 'command'. He then leads us to sum up that it entails " .... getting people to work willingly and effectively". **Controlling**

Again, to quote Flippo "control is the managerial function concerned with regulating activities in accordance with personnel plan, which in turn was formulated on the basis of an analysis of organization goals" Flippo refers to the four functions above as "managerial functions personnel management". The following six, he refers to as operative functions of personnel management".

Procurement,

Flippo calls this the "first operative function of personnel management "and that it is "...concerned with the obtaining of the proper kind and number of personnel necessary to accomplish organization goals". This, as you will notice is similar to the sub-package we classified under the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force in the first definition. As we said there, Flippo says here, that procurement "...deals specifically with such subjects as the determination of human resources requirements and their recruitment, selection, and placement".

Development,

Flippo says that "After personnel have been obtained, they must be to some degree developed. Development has to do with the increase of skill. Through training that is necessary for proper job performance. He says further that "this is an activity of very great importance and continues to grow because of the changes in technology, the realignment of jobs, and the increasing complexity of the managerial task". Integration, this is the words of Flippo, "is concerned with the attempt to effect a reasonable reconciliation of individual, societal, and organizational interests".

Compensation

This Flippo says is "...defined as the adequate and equitable remuneration of personnel for their contributions to organization objectives".

Maintenance

You remember the sub-package we labelled as a process of maintaining a satisfied work force in our first definition? This is it. Flippo says "if we have executed the foregoing functions well, we now have a willing and able work force. He says "Maintenance is concerned with the perpetuation of this state. Issues related to the maintenance of this state are issues as communication with employees and concern about their health conditions".

Separation

Finally, and according to Flippo, "if the first function of personnel management is to secure the employee, it is logical that the last should be the separation and return to society". He says "most people do not die on the job. The organization is responsible for meeting certain requirements of due process in separation, as well as assuring that the retired citizen is in good shape.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Define personnel management and briefly explain some of its functions.

 1.6   Summary

This unit has covered the origin of personnel management, its evolution and has provided its definition. Two definitions have been given and functions, processes of personnel management have been outlined.

 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Flippo Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management (Sixth Edition) McGraw Hill Book
        Company, New York

 1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

Define personnel management and briefly explain some of its functions.

Personnel Management is the process of obtaining and maintaining a satisfactory and a satisfied work force. It involves planning, organizing, directing, controlling, procurement, development, compensation, integration, maintenance, and separation of human resource to the end that individual, organizational and societal objectives are accomplished. All these functions are carried out through the coordination of the people (personnel) in the organization towards achieving its goals.

UNIT 2
LOCATION OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN ORGANIZATIONS

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Personnel functions, the performance of which constitutes personnel management are all pervasive in the organization. The supervisor and the manager in any particular unit perform one type or the other of functions. The top executive does some of them. This unit is to "pin down" where and what functions are performed and by whom.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
i.   Examine the Locate personnel management (functions) in the organization
ii.   Draw an organizational chart indicating the location of personnel management
iii.   Define line and staff (concepts)

1.3 What we mean by location

Personnel management as you have seen from the definition in unit l is a process, in a function, and to talk of it as being located in an organization may not be readily understood. What we mean is a response to the usual management question of what, where, who, when, etc. Our discussion of location here will attempt to answer the question of where and who. Where, in the concept of line and staff is personnel management performed; who, of staff functionaries vis-àvis line functionaries, does what aspect of personnel work, etc. In order to make these issues clear to you, we have to examine fully, the concept of line and staff.

1.3.1 Line and staff

Line and staff is a concept which has its origin in the army. In the days when most of warfare was done by the infantry, i.e. soldiers on foot, opposing forces faced each other with a dividing line between them. All the troops engaged in battle on either side of the

line are line personnel. Because they have to be on the line fighting, certain other personnel, e.g. medical personnel, transport personnel, accounts personnel, etc must be available to take care of medical, transportation and financial needs. These other personnel are staff personnel. Putting this concept in the realm of personnel management outside the army, a public personnel scholar, O. Glenn Stahl (1962) said: - "... according [to the line and staff concept], the functions for which the organization was created - carrying the mail, putting out fires, running a mental institution - are the line functions, and those existing as the result of creating the organization - personnel management, financial control, supply services are "staff". Making the distinction clearer, O. Glenn Stahl says further: "It follows from this construct that the functions are paramount and that the staff must serve the line. Staff is therefore advisory and should not control, while line is the 'doing' side of the operation and should not be inhibited but only helped by the staff activity". We shall give yet another example so that this concept which is often grossly misunderstood becomes clear to you. The misunderstanding is more practiced and among staff functionaries who assume superiority over line functionaries. You are familiar with the university system. A university's main function is teaching students. Here, the line personnel, those who are engaged in the "doing" side of university function are the lecturers. Those who exist as a result of creating the university, i.e.; the registry personnel, the personnel, the bursary personnel, the canteen personnel, the medical [to the line and staff concept], the functions for which the organization was created - carrying the mail, putting out fires, running a mental institution - are the line functions, and those existing as the result of creating the organization - personnel management, financial control, supply services are "staff". Making the distinction clearer, O. Glenn Stahl says further: "It follows from this construct that the functions are paramount and that the staff must serve the line. Staff is therefore advisory and should not control, while line is the 'doing' side of the operation and should not be inhibited but only helped by the staff activity". We shall give yet another example so that this concept which is often grossly misunderstood becomes clear to you. The misunderstanding is more practiced and among staff functionaries who assume superiority over line functionaries. You are familiar with the university system. A university's main function is teaching students. Here, the line personnel, those who are engaged in the "doing" side of university function are the lecturers. Those who exist as a result of creating the university, i.e.; the registry personnel, the bursary personnel, the canteen personnel, the medical personnel, etc, are "staff' functionaries and are advisory and should not control.

It is by now clear that according to the line and staff concept, personnel management is a "staff" and not a "line" function. O. Glenn Stahl states this clearly when he says:" Hence the only test for the propriety and adequacy of the personnel function as one of the staff duties, would be its degree of support and service to the original functions of the organization". This is why he says, "It is common place to hear the assertion that personnel administration is not an end in itself'. We want at this juncture to caution that you do not put a hard and fast rule around the division between line and staff. Also that you do not because of what we have said above, look down on staff or personnel functions - O. Glenn Stahl puts this caution this way: " ...it is [not] wise to insist that by

definition, a staff duty is subservient to a line duty. Many a principle must be maintained even if it interferes at the moment with the desires of a particular line official ---- presumably because the personnel goal is serving a larger and longer range of government than is the immediate success of the activity supervised by that official". The enormity and importance of personnel management especially in its ensuring the application of uniform policies, have made it more important that most individual line functions. Concluding his discussion on this concept, O. Glenn Stahl states: "The management of 9,000,000 persons who constitute [at that time] the federal, state and local civilian bureaucracy in America is a most significant government function. It has indeed become almost an end in itself, ranking close in importance to the national defence. the management of communication and transportation, the conservation of resources, the conduct of public It is by now clear that according to the line and staff concept, personnel management is a "staff" and not a "line" function. O. Glenn Stahl states this clearly when he says:" Hence the only test for the propriety and adequacy of the personnel function as one of the staff duties, would be its degree of support and service to the original functions of the organization". This is why he says, "It is common place to hear the assertion that personnel administration is not an end in itself'. We want at this juncture to caution that you do not put a hard and fast rule around the division between line and staff. Also that you do not because of what we have said above, look down on staff or personnel functions - O. Glenn Stahl puts this caution this way: " ...it is [not] wise to insist that by definition, a staff duty is subservient to a line duty. Many a principle must be maintained even if it interferes at the moment with the desires of a particular line official ---- presumably because the personnel goal is serving a larger and longer range of government than is the immediate success of the activity supervised by that official". The enormity and importance of personnel management especially in its ensuring the application of uniform policies, have made it more important that most individual line functions. Concluding his discussion on this concept, O. Glenn Stahl states: "The management of 9,000,000 persons who constitute [at that time] the federal, state and local civilian bureaucracy in America is a most significant government function. It has indeed become almost an end in itself, ranking close in importance to the national defense. the management of communication and transportation, the conservation of resources, the conduct of public education, and the direction off foreign affairs…".

1.3.2 Organizational location of the personnel unit
By now you must have noticed that personnel functions are pervasive in the organization. This has to be so because there is not part of the organization that does not have personnel. Wherever a person is, he has all issues that deserves the personnel management. For example, he is paid for the work he does, he is attended to when ill. he is given leave when due, his work is supervised and assessed etc. Despite its ubiquity however, there are units in which certain personnel functions are performed. In order to make this issue clear to you; we shall be using the Nigeria civil service as a case study. Many organizations have their personnel management functions carried out in two units.

The first unit is what O. Glenn Stahl refers to as the "central personnel Agency". The second is the "Operation Personnel Office". We shall start with the central personnel Agency.

1.3.3 The central personnel agency

As you can see from the name, the Central Personnel Agency is one that has responsibility for organization wide function. In the Nigerian government and quite a number of other environments, e.g. the United State of America, it is known as the Civil Service Commission. Its functions, especially in the U.S.A, have been a product of evolution. As stated by O. Glenn Stahl, "under the impetus of the civil service reform wave which broke in the central personnel agencies were created in the Federal Government and in several state and municipal jurisdictions, with the primary aim of freeing the public servant from allegiance to and dependence upon the politician". This means that before civil service commission were established, the method of becoming a civil servant and remaining so was solely through the political spoils system. Initially, therefore, the civil service commission were designed, in the work of Stahl, "as 'politics eliminators' * and little more". It is because it was originally introduced as "politics eliminator" that its composition (i.e. the number and kinds of people appointed a civil service commissions) is, in the U.S.A., be 'partisan. There, the law provides for three commissioners, not more than two of whom may be members of the same political party. In order to further play down the role of partisan politics, Stahl says " .... in order to prevent the executive who has the appointing power from 'packing' the commission, it is usually provided that commission members shall serve years each, one being named every two years".

Problems of the Nigerian Civil Service Commission

The Udoji Commission has an impressive catalogue of what one might call structural problems of the Civil Service Commission. One of such problems is that of isolation of the Civil Service Commission from the operating Ministries/Departments. Quite a number of people are of the opinion that operating units should be given power of hiring, motivating, and firing, over the staff who work for them, in the same way as it is done in the private sector. One thing such "thinkers" are oblivious of is the fact that in the public service, most, if not all the top executives are, and perhaps have to be, partisan. And being partisan, given the power to hire and fire, their partisanship will influence performance of such functions. Indeed, elimination of politics is the reason for the Civil Service Commission and will always remain the most plausible reason for retaining it, and as an extra-ministerial outfit. Another problem is that of "sheer volume of work" at its hands and the size and calibre of its membership. Over the years the Civil Services increased in size and complexity which increases have not been matched by corresponding increases in size and expertise of the members of the Civil Service Commissions. There is need to increase the size of the Commission from the traditional three permanent members to one, perhaps twice as large, and one with members representing various professional and political interests. However, these structural

problems are less of a problem than the procedural and behavioural problems of the Commission which do not readily meet the eyes of an onlooker but only those of an interested participant observer. One such problem is that of its custody and use of one of its most important tool for staff promotion and discipline - the performance evaluation report. The procedure for completion and submission of these reports was such that it left a lot of room for fraudulent practices. The commission had, for example, no way of knowing the names and ascertaining the signatures of the officers responsible for completing and countersigning the reports in the various Ministries. Under such a situation, an officer could get any "friendly" senior officer to complete the form on him and get it submitted to the Commission. The malpractice was made easier to perpetrate by the frequent and constant movements of staff from Ministry to Ministry and thus frequent changes in superior and subordinate officers in the Ministries. Another problem connected with the evaluation reports was the use of three consecutive years' reports for consideration for promotion or punishment. Again, perhaps due to the large number of these reports and the inadequacies of storage facilities as well as lack of knowledge of procedures, the incidence of missing reports were rife. And when reports were missing, substitutes had to be written in arrears and, of course, even where they were written by the same officers, they were certain not to contain numerical the same "facts" as the lost ones. Invariably, however, the officers who wrote the original ones would not be available to write the substitutes and so they would have to be written by officers under whom the officer reported or never worked at the material time, and this occasioned fake reports. A third problem with respect to these reports is that, with the connivance of clerical staff, officers who have adverse reports could retrieve them from the Civil Service Commission and replace them with favourable ones which they get written for them by "friendly" top officers. What all these problems aside was also the tools in which the Commission used to assess officers for promotion and or discipline was subject to "fakery" in very many ways. The consequences of this could have been advancement of those who least deserved it and the failure to sanction those who deserved sanction. It is not possible to assess the magnitude of such malpractice but when this is added to the falsification of performance rating which arises as a result of fear or favour, or lack of knowhow in the appraisal of staff, one might be correct to attribute much of the mediocrity inefficiency in the Civil Service to these phenomena.

The Ministry of Establishment

In Nigeria, the role of the Civil Service Commission in personnel management is limited to employment, promotion and discipline. All other personnel functions e.g., determination of conditions of service, formulation and review of the Civil Service Rules. determination of staff strength, position classification and wage administration, staff training, and development, etc., are not its concern but those of the Ministry of Establishment or the Establishment Division of the Office of the Head of Service (where it is not a Ministry). The existence of two separate bodies handling one piece of job by a corporate entity constitutes a problem. What this means is that the body which is in charge of determining what vacancies there should be, or that there are, and which body

knows the urgency with which has the knowledge of the training needs of the Service (as is supposed to be contained in the performance evaluation report). It also means that the person who trains is to play in the promotion of officers particularly in the senior (administrative) positions. For a given cadre of staff, i.e., those controlled by the Ministry/ Division, e.g., executive officers, secretarial staff, senior clerical staff, etc., the body which interviews and employs, and thus knows the strengths and weaknesses, the likes and dislikes of new entrants, is not the body to place them on jobs. No wonder we have so many square pegs in round holes. If the example of the USA is worth going by, after it had tried the Civil Service Commission with the limited functions of employment, promotion and discipline, it later rationalized and professionalized its Civil Service Commission, giving it expanded functions which "...cover(ed) recruitment, examination, job evaluation, training, and the administration of personnel investigations and retirement and issuance systems".

1.4 The office of the permanent secretary as a personnel office

The Operating Personnel Office This is the third arm of the tripartite arrangement which handles personnel matters. The personnel function of the Office of each Permanent Secretary in charge of a Ministry consist of the following: Each Ministry has the delegated responsibility for employment, promotion and discipline of all its junior staff, i.e., staff on Grade Level 01-06. Each Permanent Secretary also had the responsibility to report on all senior staff in is Ministry to the Civil Service Commission and to liaise between Ministry and the establishment Ministry Division on staff matters, particularly on staff welfare. With regards to junior staff, the Secretary for Administration and Finance in each Ministry as well as the Staff Officers play a leading role in employment, promotion and discipline. Through the aid of the DAC, (Departmental Appointments Committee) they submit recommendations on any of these functions to the Permanent Secretary for necessary action.

The problem with this ministerial, in-house arrangement was that, in employment matters, it hardly pays heed to merit principles. In the first place, the existence of vacant positions is hardly publicized (not to use the term advertised). The best it does when it needs to select new staff is to shortlist candidates for interview from its usually burgeoning file containing unsolicited applications.

In the second place, those who get to receive letters of invitation to the employment interviews are mainly relatives and hangers-on as well as house boys of top officials of government. Notes such as "We spoke. Bearer is my in- law's daughter. Please absorb as store-keeper" were the stock-in-trade of Ministries shortly after the budget had been approved and Ministries given the go-ahead to recruit. Another problem with the in-house personnel office is that it is invariably staffed with non-personnel experts. The Secretaries for Administration and Finance who are put in charge of the Ministry's

personnel functions are generalist administrative officers who, neither by training nor by experience on the job, can be said to possess any expertise in personnel administration, the staff officers with little, if any, passion for staff. Most of the negative attitude to work and to the public which characterize the lower echelon of the Civil Service is perhaps attributable to the lack of professionalism with which the in house personnel functions are handled.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Differentiate line and staff as concepts in personnel management and say which side of the divide it belongs and also say whether it is possible for it to wholly belong to that side.

1.5 Summary

This unit has covered the concepts of line and staff; located management mainly as a staff function. It has depicted that position of the central personnel agency which in our context here are identified-, as the civil service commission. You have also seen the other arms of organization particularly if the public sector that performs personnel functions, e.g. the Establishment Ministry or Office, and finally, the operating personnel office are located in each ministry.

1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Shahl, Glenn O. (1962), Public Personnel Administration, (Fifth Edition) Harper & Row
Publishers, New York)

1.7 Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

Differentiate line and staff as concepts in personnel management and say which side of the divide it belongs and also say whether it is possible for it to wholly belong to that side.

Line and staff as concepts have their origin in the army. In the days when most of warfare was done by the infantry, i.e. soldiers on foot, opposing forces faced each other with a dividing line between them. All the troops engaged in battle on either side of the line are line personnel. Because they have to be on the line fighting, certain other personnel, e.g.

medical personnel, transport personnel, accounts personnel, etc must be available to take care of medical, transportation and financial needs. These other personnel are staff personnel.

Line personnel are those involved in carrying out the main functions for which the organization was created. While the staff personnel are those involved in providing supportive functions or services to the line staff. Staff is therefore advisory and should not control, while line is the 'doing' side of the operation and should not be inhibited but only helped by the staff activity. However, there is usually a misconception about the concepts. The misunderstanding is more practiced and among staff functionaries who assume superiority over line functionaries. A familiar example is the university system. A university's main function is teaching students. Here, the line personnel, those who are engaged in the "doing" side of university function are the lecturers. Those who exist as a result of creating the university, i.e.; the registry personnel, the bursary personnel, the canteen personnel, the medical personnel are staff personnel. Staff is therefore, advisory and should not control, while line is the 'doing' side of the operation and should not be inhibited but only helped by the staff activity.

In the light of the above, it is clear that according to the line and staff concept, personnel management is a "staff" and not a "line" function. It is good to caution that one does not put a hard and fast rule around the division between line and staff. And also that one should not look down on staff or personnel functions. Staff cannot be placed wholly on its divide, because there is an interplay between it and the line in certain functions.

UNIT 3
PLANNING THE ORGANISATION'S HUMAN RESOURCES

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Manpower planning is at the root of the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force for an organization. The planning we are concerned with here is a method for determining the manpower requirements in an organization and developing action plans for meeting them.

1.2 Learning Outcome

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

i.   Define human resource planning

ii.   Explain the concept of Manpower inventory

iii.   Discuss the Forecast of future manpower requirements

1.3 Organization's Human Resources - Human resource planning

1.3.1 Definition

As we said and did in unit 2, the definition of this term, you will notice differs slightly from author to author and we shall give a number of them. Before we begin the definition of human resource planning, let us state that we shall be using this term interchangeably with manpower planning. Also, as we did in unit 2, let us start our definition from the one we are most familiar with. Manpower planning defined as the: "process by which a firm ensures that it has the right numbers and kinds of people, in the right place, at the right

time, doing the right things for which they are economically most useful." Manpower planning is essentially a method for determining future manpower requirements and developing action plans for meeting them. Three processes are involved in this namely: - Manpower inventory, manpower forecast and manpower plans. We shall take you through what all these mean. G. A. Cole, in his book Personnel Management theory and practice (1997) defines Human Resources Planning at the glossary of Management terms pages as: "A technique aimed at securing and improving an organization's human resources to meet present and future needs, three principal stages can be distinguished: Evaluation of existing resources, forecast of future requirements and, finally, action plan.

1.3.2 Manpower inventory

Manpower inventory consists of data which describe the present work force in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Citing an example of what this could look like in practice and which we do how now to make it more real to you for understanding, we said: "What is required for example, a Ministry Education, having a complete and comprehensive staff list of all teachers, all their qualifications, their performances and potentials, and where deployed". Making a more detailed analysis of this concept, G.A. Cole, who raises the following questions: typical questions that managers need to ask when assessing the state of their internal labour market Is as follows:

Job Categories: - What categories of staff do we have? (e.g. process workers etc.) Number: - How many people do we have in each category? Skills: - What skills are available amongst existing employees?

Performance: - What levels of performance are we getting from our various categories of employees? Flexibility: - How easy is it to transfer employees between jobs? Are individual skills transferable? What about trade union views on this point?

Promotability: - How many of our employees are ready for promotion into more demanding roles? What training could be reasonably provided to assist promotion?

Age Profiles: - Do we have any age related problems due to between experienced and inexperienced staff?

Sex - Have we an appropriate balance between the sexes, given the requirements of our business?

Minority groups: - Are minority groups properly represented in workforce?

Leavers: - What is our labour turnover rate by staff category and/departments?

How many people are due for retirement? Are any redundancies likely? How many people left for reasons of dissatisfaction? Are any trends noticeable? G. A. C ole concludes by saying that: "Answers to the above questions can provide a reliable picture of the state of the organization's own labour force. The resulting information can be matched with the demand forecast for labour in the various categories identified by the management.

1.4 Forecast of future manpower requirements

Forecasting of human resources requirements is often subdivided into longer range and short range forecasts. The latter type is almost unavoidable in most firms, but a survey of 589 members of American society of Personnel Administration revealed that only 32

percent reported any long-range planning of human resources needs in their organizations". We shall at this point, state what goes into both short-range and long-range human resources forecasting Short-range human resources forecasting.

The first factor for human resources forecasting, is the specific volume of work for the coming year. Thus, the forecast of manpower requirement should be related to "... plans... made concerning the amount of work that each segment of the firm is expected to accomplish during some coming period".

Various techniques can be used in making a short term projection of both the amount of work to be done and the number of personnel necessary to do it. The following are some of them.

Time series analysis - this can be used to identify trends in the past.

Computing of various ratios, e.g. number of sales personnel in relation to the level of sales, or the telephones in relation to the number of customer service representatives. When this is done, the number of new sales personnel to be added can be derived from the projected increase in sales, assuming that everything else remains constant. Estimating the number of people required is usually undertaken in one or more ways. One of the ways is " .....exercising managerial judgment". In a typical work organization, the single most important element in forecasting personnel requirements is managerial judgment. The way this is done is "individual managers, in the light of (a) knowledge of events and (b) personnel in their own areas of responsibility, draw up their own estimates of their requirements". Other methods are the use of statistical techniques and another, the application of Work study techniques such as "Work Management, Method Study and O & M (organization and method) which can be helpful in identifying the number of people required to achieve certain tasks. In a long-range human resources forecasting, the factors that you will have to note which influence long-range human resources forecasting are:- The organization's long-range plans - This relates to the human resources (in future) to what organization has decided to do at a given time in future . A company which deals in a certain product now and which has planned to change to another product line, makes a human resources forecast that is in consonance with such a decision. Other factors are demographic, economic, technological and social in nature. Out of these, the one that is of immediate concern is probably technology. Advances in technology have definite effects on the nature and mixture of jobs available. For example, advances in computer technology resulted in a decrease in the number of book-keepers, and an increase in the number of computer programmes. As has been pointed out, in any enterprises, large or small, private or public, one of the most important branches of management is personnel administration. The function of selection, promotion, maintaining morale and efficiency dismissal and the like, in which the commission ordinarily has some share, are part and parcel of this administration. But when functions are carried on by a kind of extra-administrative agency which is all too frequently looked on askance by department heads, situation arises that runs counter to the principles of sound management.

Self-Assessment Exercise

> What effects do any two of the following factors have in an organization's human resource profile: - age, sex, promotability, minority groups - relate your answer to the Nigerian situation.

1.4 Summary

This unit has examined the concept of human resource planning in organizations. It has dealt with the concepts of manpower planning, which comes after an inventory of resources and based upon which a forecast of future need is made.

1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Resources references

Cole, G.A (1997), Personnel Management Theory and Practice (Fourth Edition) ELST with
        Letts Educational, London.
Flippo, Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management (Sixth Edition) McGraw-Hill Book
        Company, New York.
Akinyele, Caleb 1. (eds) (1992), New Trends in Personnel Management, Administrative
        Staff College of Nigeria, Topo Badagry.

UNIT 4
RECRUITMENT AND RECRUITMENT POLICIES AND METHODS

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

This unit focuses on one of the most crucial activities of management - recruitment. As you will see, it is a fairly misunderstood concept by personnel management practitioners. Also as you will because it is the beginning of the processes of procuring staff for organization, it is very important and deserves maximum attention of personnel specialists in organizations.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
1.   Define recruitment
2.   Distinguish the concept of recruitment in the context of its theory from the context of its practice
3.   Identify all the "markets" open to an organization for recruitment purposes and their limitations
4.   Identify and explain the various tools used in the recruitment process

1.3 Recruitment policies and methods

1.3.1 Definition of recruitment

Recruitment is a process which starts from getting an applicant interested enough in a job and in a particular organization to write an application, and the process stops when his

application has been received in the organization. Recruitment is the salesmanship which organizations do for themselves and the various jobs they have for filling". This definition of recruitment is contained in what G. A Cole, in his book on Personnel Management: Theory and Practice says about recruitment. He said, "The principal purpose of recruitment activities is to attract sufficient and suitable potential employees to apply for vacancies in the organization". He thereafter distinguished this process from the very next step to recruitment i.e. selection, by saying, "The principal purpose of selection activities, by comparison, is to identify the most suitable applicants and persuade them to accept a position in the organization". O. Glenn Stahl sums it all up when he says: "The goal of recruiting activities is the production of an adequate number of qualified applicants for employment. Recruitment ends with an application. We shall conclude this issue of definition by giving you what Omale says in contrasting it with what happens in the Nigerian Public service. He said: The civil service hardly sees recruitment in its proper perspective. In the civil service; recruitment is tantamount to employment, i.e. all that it takes to get an applicant interested in a job in the organization, through examining or interviewing him, to issuing him a letter of appointment. The misunderstanding of the concept of recruitment in the civil service might be one of the reasons why the recruitment process is not given the attention it deserves.

1.3.2 The field of recruitment

O. Glenn Stahl, in his book Public Personnel Administration (1962) talks about the field of recruitment in the public sector as "The area open to public recruiting agencies". An organization desires to create a market from where to recruit staff, takes steps to "sell" itself to potential employees only when people are not willing to take up appointment with it. Depending upon people's perception of an organization or a service, such organization or service may find it difficult to attract potential employees. In the U.S.A at one point in time, according to O. Glenn Stahl, " .... public service recruiting was a shadow, Business was a good, government an evil. It was to business that social prestige attached. It was there that your people of ability naturally looked for a career". Those of you in your 50s now will remember that in the middle 60s to the middle 70s.

Government was the first choice of employment for your people of ability. This situation contrasts very sharply to today's scenario where university graduates with 2nd class and above degrees do not go government offices for employment. Their first choices are the oil companies, the banks, and other business houses. This leaves government choosing employees from 3rd class degree holders and drop outs universities. It is this type of situation that makes recruitment a function in personnel management. So, what are the areas open to public recruiting agencies and what are their limitations?

(a) The Schools; Schools are the largest markets from which the public as well as private agencies Main their work force. You are aware of the various levels - primary, secondary (made up of secondary grammar and secondary technical schools) and the tertiary level at which we have universities, polytechnics and colleges of education where primary and secondary school teachers are prepared. Availability of potential employees in the school system thus depends on their areas of emphasis. If, for example, the system closes down its colleges of education, as it did its Grade Two teacher training schools a few years ago, the availability of potential employees as teachers is affected.

(b) Citizenship; ordinarily, potential employees in the public sector service of a country is limited to its citizens. The area open to public agencies for recruitment is the generality of its citizenship, although limitation relating to place of origin and age does limit the size of potential employees.

(c) Place of origin; It is usual, in order to prevent "monopoly" of jobs by only particular sector of society to require that jobs be spread. To do this requires representation by all areas concerned and therefore, even if the best potential employee comes from a given place, if it is not the turn of the place, or if the place has exhausted its share, this imitation on it. Perhaps you are aware of the Nigerian character principle and the quota system. This is what they refer to. It may interest you to know that this type of practice is not peculiar to Nigeria. Glenn Stahl says that the fact that "... the apportionment provisions of the federal civil service law, (requires) distribution of appointments in proportion to state population" is an operation of restriction on the basis of residence (or place of birth).

(d) Age limits; Although the entire citizenry of Nigeria provides the market potential employees, not ever y Nigerian is employable on the basis of age limits. Currently no one below the age of 16 may be employed in government. Also, no one above 50 years may be given a tenure job in the civil service. Tenure job is a concept we shall be discussing later in this course. The other factors that affect, by limiting the recruitment market, are preferences given to certain groups in jobs. In the U.S.A. veterans are given preference in certain jobs. Also, sometime in the past sex barriers existed to preclude females from jobs. The removal of such barriers has broadened the market.

1.4 **The Methods of Recruitment**
The traditional methods of recruitment are advertisements in newspapers. the pasting of notices on bulletin boards of public buildings and other centers of congregation. and circulating information to individuals, organizations, and institutions that might be expected to be in touch with suitable applicants. During the recruitment activities the

organization will: (1) advertise all vacancies (2) reply to every job applicant with the minimum of delay (3) aim to inform potential recruits in good faith about the basic details and job conditions of every job advertised (4) aim to process all applications with efficiency and courtesy (5) seek candidates on the basis of their qualification for the vacancy concerned (6) aim to ensure that every person invited for interview will be given a fair and thorough hearing. The organization will not; (1) discriminate unfairly against potential applicants on grounds of sex, race, religion or physical disability. (2) Discriminate unfairly against applicants with a criminal record (3) Knowingly make any false or exaggerated claims in its recruitment literature or job advertisements. Item number 2 (immediately above) making reference to criminal records in respect of pardoned criminals. You will notice and likely be amazed at the details the literature recruitment has gone to extol this function. It has been given such recognition for reason that organizations realize that first rate staff are a critical asset and that first rate applicants are difficult to attract even in times of high rate of unemployment.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Self-Assessment Exercise 1
i.   Give and explain a comprehensive definition of recruitment.
ii.   List out all the areas of recruitment open to a public agency and discuss three of them stating their limitations.
iii.   Discuss briefly the methods and procedures involved in recruitment by an organization.

 1.5 Summary
This unit has taken you from the definition of recruitment through the methods employed in carrying it out to the policies an organization should have in order to have a good image in the job mark and to be a respected employer.

 1.6   References/Further Readings/Web Resources
Cole, G.A (1997), Personnel Management: Theory and Practice, (ELST) Letts
        Educational, London
Omale, 1 (1992), "Past practices in Personnel Management in the Nigerian Civil Service:
        Issues and Procedures" in Professor Ali D. Yahaya & Dr Caleb 1.
Akinyele (eds) New Trendss in Personnel Management - A Book of Readings,

Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) Topo, Badagry.

Stahl, Glenn O (1962), Public Personnel Administration, Harper & Row Publishers, New York.

1.7 Possible Answers to SAEs

Discuss briefly the methods and procedures involved in recruitment by an organization.

The following could be explained as methods and procedures in recruitment process by an organization:

1. advertise all vacancies

ii. reply to every job applicant with the minimum of delay

iii. inform potential recruits in good faith about the basic details and job conditions of every job advertised

iv. process all applications with efficiency and courtesy

v. seek candidates on the basis of their qualification for the vacancy concerned

vi. ensure that every person invited for interview will be given a fair and thorough hearing.

UNIT 5
STAFF SELECTION PROCESS

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Selection is a process in the personnel management field which not too many distinguish as a separate function from recruitment. As we said in unit 4 this failure to see them as separate function is more in the context of personnel management practice than theory. Having given you the meaning, methods and the processes of recruitment in Unit 4, we shall do same thing in respect of the selection process here.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to: -

Identify the selection process in personnel management

Define what staff selection

Explain the difference between selection and recruitment

Identify various forms of examination - know the situations demanding the use of which type of examination aspects of selection

1.3 Selection Process and Procedure

Some writers divide this process into two distinct functions. Omale in his paper we have referred to earlier discusses recruitment as a separate thing from selection of the qualified applicant. On the other hand, G.A. Cole takes the process of selection to identification of the most suitable applicant. The process of identification involves examinations and other parameters established to distinguish one applicant from the other. We should note that there is a clear distinction between recruitment and selection. Recruitment ends with the applications of those who have made a bid (submitted applications) to work in the organization (secure employment).

1.4 Examinations

In order to make this aspect of the selection process have the importance you ought to accord it, let us give you two assertions that O. Glenn Stahl made about it. The first one is that "The cornerstone of the public programme is the process of selection by means of competitive examinations, a process.... By (which) means favoritism was to be excluded and the goal of securing the best man for every job achieved. The second one is, "other factors being equal, (examinations) can spell the difference between a topnotch service and a mediocre one. No merit system worthy of the name can afford to take less than a fully professional approach to examining applicants for employment. He ends this advocacy for examinations as a process in the selection of staff by saying, "In today's government, with its world-shaking responsibilities and its vast range of occupations and skills, nothing less than the best examination system ought to be tolerated". Now that we have made you realize the need for examinations selection process. We turn attention to criteria for their effectiveness.

1.5 Criteria for effectiveness of examinations

O. Glenn Stahl gives three criteria for the effectiveness of (employment) examinations. The first one is Objectivity. An employment examination is objective if it succeeds in identifying those characteristics of mind and skill necessary to the given purpose. The second criterion is validity. An employment examination is valid if it measures what it purports to measure. A valid examination would rate prospective employees in exactly the same relationship to one another as they would stand after trial on the job. The third criterion is reliability. By reliability we mean the consistency with which the examination serves as a measuring instrument. In the words of Stahl, "if a test is reliable, a person taking it at two different times should make substantially the same score each time".

1.6 Types of Examinations

1.6.1 Systematic Evaluation of Education and Experience

If you have never applied for a job, you will know that either you submit an application written by yourself, or you fill out an application form (application blank) and submit to

the organization concerned. What make the organization interested in you to invite you for further processes in the bid to employ you would be your education and/or experience. However, in addition to your education and experience playing this role, they could be considered as an examination in themselves. Glenn Stahl puts this point this way. "...the evaluation of education and experience is also a kind examination which can differentiate among candidates as to their degree of fitness for a position or occupation. A good example of how this works is in the appointment of academic staff in universities. An evaluation of their education and experience assigns "weights" to each element of education, e.g. a first degree could be weighted 5 points if it is at a second class lower level and 7 points if second class upper and 10 points if first class; three years teaching experience in university could be weighted 3 points and 5 years experiences, 5 points. Done this way, whether or not the applicants appear before the employer for a further examination, a differentiation can be arrived at amongst competing candidates.

1.6.2 Written Tests

O. Glenn Stahl refers to this as "paper-and-pencil tests" and says they are included in examinations for which "aptitudes, intelligence, or concrete knowledge are prime determinants". They are most useful in cases where no experience is required. As a method, they hold greater promise of objectivity than many others. Depending upon the use to which it is put, written tests may be divided into two - the essay and the objective (short answer) type. The essay type, more susceptible to subjectivity than the other type, is used where literary skill is being measured. The short answer type, much easier to administer constructed and less liable to subjectivity, is used in testing intelligence or specific knowledge.

1.6.3 Performance Tests

As you can see from its name this test is one that demands amount of the job demonstration of knowledge and especially, skills. O. Glenn Stahl speaks of them thus: "among the tests that may be classed in this group are actual demonstrations on the job (involving use of tools or equipment). What distinguishes them from other types is that they employ some kind performance other than writing or speaking. The most common examples are tests for stenographer, typists, mechanics, drivers, etc.

1.7 Reference Checks

Stahl says, that, "candidates may meet all requirements, in terms of education and experience qualifications, have an excellent written test record, and still be unsuitable for employment by reason of character, temperament, quality of performance or similar factors which cannot be fully weighed in the formal testing program". It is for this purpose that reference checks are useful. The most common method is the making of questionnaires to the candidate's former employers or acquaintances. If the numbers of those involved is not too large, it is advisable to do the reference checks before embarking on other valuation processes. However, where the number is large and mainly for managerial positions, such checks are done as a final or close to the final step.

1.8 Physical Examination

Edwin Flippo says that "The physical examination is an employment step found in most business (and notes that) it can vary from a comprehensive examination and matching of an applicant's physical capabilities to job requirements to a simple check of general appearance and wellbeing". The first objective of this examination is to ascertain if the applicant is physically capable, e.g., if joining the fire-fighting corps, is his physical examination test eyesight and hearing, etc. The second objective is to safeguard the organization against untimely claims that may arise through deaths of unhealthy new entrants to the organization. The third objective is to prevent communicable diseases from entering the organization. This examination is usually the last step in the selection process and the results of the examination form the first items to be submitted by successful candidate as he is being "documented" prior to induction into the organization.

1.9 Selection

It may seem to you out of place for us to now talk of selection at this tail end of a unit whose title is selection. The reason for this is that all we have done so far are processes necessary for this last and most important assignment which is what all the steps above have worked to achieve. The end result of all the above steps except for the medical examination, is to arrive at what is known as a list of eligible. The list of eligible consists of all those who have scored the predetermined pass mark and above. Anyone who has not scored below the prescribed pass mark is eligible for employment. Omale discusses this stage says, because this is an eligible list, anyone picked out of it for employment is a qualified candidate. At this stage of employment, it is advisable that some care be taken to ensure "spread" so that not only one interest is represented. This is the correct usage of an eligible list. Assuming that there are 8 eligible candidates for employment, the next thing to is to conduct a "reference check" on them. If all the 8 are of good standing, I will select the 5 required but I will be advised in this to ensure some element of spread to ensure representation of various interest e.g. sexes, ethnicity, religion. I will send these 5 for medical examination and if they all succeed; I will send them into the organization for documentation.

Self-Assessment Exercise

What are the necessary steps to take by an organization in the selection process for eligible employees?

 1.10 Summary

This unit highlighted the process and procedure to follow by an organization in the selection of its new employees. The types of examinations to be administered to the would-be employees were also examined as well as the criteria to observe in the conduct

of text examinations. Reference checks, physical examination and selection as concepts were also looked into.

1.11 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Flippo, Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management (sixth edition), McGraw-Hill Book
    company, New York. - Omale, I "Past Practices in Personnel Management in the
Nigerian Civil Service: Issues and Procedures" in Professor Ali D. Yahaya
Dr Caleb Akinyele (eds) 1992, New Trends in Personnel Management A Book of
    Readings, Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) Topo Badagry
Stahl. Glenn O. (1962), Public Personnel Administration Harper & Row Publishers, New
    York.

1.12 Possible Answers to SAE

What are the necessary steps to take by an organization in the selection process for eligible employees?

The following can be discussed as necessary steps involved in the selection process by an organization:

i.   Examinations (its types: systematic evaluation of education, written tests, performance tests)

ii.   Reference checks

iii.   Physical (appearance) examination

MODULE 2

UNIT 1
INTERNAL SELECTION

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

The recruitment and selection processes we considered in the preceding unit are recruitment and selection from outside the service or external recruitment. Through it, vacant positions in the service are filled by bringing in people from outside the service. Internal recruitment fills position in the service with those who are already in the service. The extent to which this recruitment is done and how, is the concern of this unit.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

Define what internal selection is

Identify the various types of internal selection processes

Explain how each type of internal selection process is carried out

1.3 Definition and Types

As you have seen in the preceding unit, when a vacancy occurs in organization, the processes for filling such a vacancy from outside organization starts from the recruitment process. Also as you have seen, that recruitment process has to do with an external (outside the organization) job market. In contrast, when a vacancy occurs and it is the desire of the organization to fill it from within the organization, the external job market is excluded from the process. Internal selection is therefore the process of filling positions

in organization by the use of those who are within the organization rather than bringing in new entrants. One initial problem which we ought to guard against is this. In recruitment and selection from outside the organization, we are not so much concerned with the morale of the people in our recruitment field i.e. general public, not beyond maintenance of good publications. In internal selection however, if one amongst many staff on the same level is advanced, except for on the basis of very obvious outstanding performance, the rest may begin to grumble and morale may sag.

1.3.1 Types of internal Selection

There is one major type of internal selection and this is promotion. Other forms of internal selection are re-assignments, transfers and one that might not be too wide-spread but very much in practice in Nigeria is posting. It is a variant of re-assignment but because it is a massive and institutionalized variant, it will deserve special variation here. We shall take you through each at a time and explain how it is done.

1.3.2 Promotion

Promotion which is the advancement of a serving employee from a lower to a higher position and which usually implies an increase in compensation, is a personnel management function that has to be handled with caution. This is so because of its linkage to morale, motivation and careerism. Stahl says of it "opportunity for advancement and the chance to make the best possible use of one's capacities from one of the wellsprings of human motivation". He further says that "the proper determination of positions which can be filled election of the ablest employees for advancement, the development of employees to their maximum usefulness, and the proper balance between inside and outside recruitment lie at the very heart of good administration". Some organizations have a promotion policy which guarantees advancements to serving employees from time to time. Others have a promotion policy which sees promotion as a general staffing programme, a policy for filling positions with the ablest available talent from within or outside the organization. The problem with the policy of guaranteed period promotion foe employees is that it is capable of placing an overemphasis on seniority. In the words of O. Glenn Stahl: Over emphasis on `years of experience'... plagues many agencies in their effort to achieve objectivity in selections for promotion. Quite often the highly touted '20 years of experience' is merely one year of experience 20 times. Many are the clerks in executive jobs who are still operating them as clerical posts". In-bred promotions are not in themselves bad. What makes them bad are in the words of Stahl. the lack of the following essential ingredients adequate qualification standards for key positions; (2) adequate records and machinery which provide a means for finding the best candidates within the organization; (3) adequate measures of overall competence and potentiality; (4)comprehensive training programmes to keep the staff alert to new developments and to prepare promising men and women for advancement;

(5) promotion and transfer across division lines within the organization and thus providing as broad a field of selection and promotion opportunity as possible and (6) clear distinction between clerical jobs, requiring certain manipulative skills and aptitudes, and ability, so that the latter are automatically filled from the ranks of the former but are filled by men with education, the capacity to deal with generalizations as well as with `things' and the gifts to lead and innovate that ought to be expected of all executives. Organizations that have promotion policies that over emphasize the "injection" of new blood through filling vacancies from outside the organization, run the risk of firstly. being unattractive to new entrants at the lower levels. What attracts expert juniors to organizations is the knowledge that higher positions are available to aspire to in the organization. Indeed, without this prospect, the idea of a career is non-existent. The second reason is that, if an over emphasis is placed on filling vacancies from outside" the morale of serving officers will be dampened. In the words of Stahl, "The most important of all nonfinancial incentives (in organizations) is the opportunity for growth and the stimulus to grow".

1.4 Measures and bases for promotion

O. Glenn Stahl lists four methods and bases for promotion as (1) comparative performance, (2) seniority, (3) examination and (4) trial on the job.

1.4.1 Comparative performance

If this factor is to be used as a measure or a basis for promotion, it would be necessary to, firstly, have good, up-to-date records of performance and qualifications of all employees and secondly, an efficient method for finding those employees who should be considered for a given vacancy. For the first requirement, i.e. personal achievement records of the employee, it is necessary that a comprehensive record be available of such things as performance reports. Education and training, experience, interests, hobbies etc, The second requirement, the index of qualified candidates calls for an easy method of finding all those relevant for a particular vacancy. In developing this list, we are engaging in a process of internal recruitment. You remember recruitment in an earlier unit? Its purpose was to secure applications from all those interested in any particular job. In the same way, some organizations call for applications from their employees so that a list of those to considered in a promotion process can be compiled. This first set of measures of promotion relate, as you can see, relate to the need for good recording and record keeping. In this aspect as noted by Omale (1992) the Nigerian Civil Service is found to be lacking. He noted that the civil service commissions which are the custodians of employee performance evaluation reports and which uses them as a measure for promotion had no way of ascertaining that they were being completed and/or countersigned by the rightful officers. Also on account of poor storage and retrieval methods many of such reports get lost. When they get lost, and because reports of three consecutive years are required for consideration for promotion, they are filled in arrears

for the concerned staff and usually not by the staff under whom he worked, such a staff probably having been re-assigned. left service or perhaps died.

1.4.2 Seniority

Discussing this factor, Glenn Stahl makes very useful comments. He says that " ... the simplest and most time-honoured basis for promotion is the length of service of the employee, (but that) in most cases however, seniority is used in conjunction with other criteria for promotion". The assumption for the use of seniority as a measure for promotion is that long and efficient service is a guarantee for handling the functions of a higher position. Stahl says that this is a false assumption because "the character of the work in the lower grades may neither call into play nor develop the superior capacities required in the higher'". The circumstance that seniority can be usefully brought in, is when all things are equal. If the performance of all officers on the same level is adjudged equal, seniority can then become a deciding factor otherwise, it should ordinarily be assigned a small weight.

1.4.3 Examination

Written examinations are useful measures of promotability depending upon the type of position and the factor being tested. Testing for knowledge is comparatively simple and could be conclusive. However, as noted by Stahl, "...in the matter of personality traits, which play a larger role as responsibilities of positions increase, there is no immediate prospect of conclusive tests. Here, must be included such dynamic traits as leadership, judgment, initiative, resourcefulness, and cooperativeness". Thus for lower level, routine, repetitive jobs, written examinations may suffice, but for supervisory and executive jobs, may not be sufficient.

Self-Assessment Exercise
1.   What remedy would you recommend to curb the problem of poor storage (retrieval of records in the Nigerian civil service?
2.   What would you do to curb the incidence of "make-up" performance evaluation reports some of which can be 3 years in arrears?
3.   What weight is given to seniority in promotion exercise in any organization you know and what effect has it had on organizational performance?

1.4.4 Trial on the job

This is about the best measure with which to measure suitability promotion. The intelligible which are necessary for filling more responsible positions can be objectively analyzed using this method. Although opportunities for its use are limited as many times as they occur they should be used. The most conducive time for their use is in the normal course of operations, e.g. a subordinate acting for a boss when he goes on leave or on a fairly long assignment.

1.5 Transfers and re-assignments

You will recall that when we discussed promotion above, we said it was an advancement from a lower to a higher position with increase in compensation. A transfer, according to O. Glenn Stahl, " ...... Involves the movement of the employee to another position of the same class in another organization unit. This is a horizontal movement". It does not involve a change of duties but only a change from the jurisdiction of one executive to that of another. On the other hand, reassignment is a change of work, not involving increased responsibilities, in the same office. There are many reasons that can account for transfers. One, as noted by Stahl, is "original placement cannot ...wholly assure that the appointee is fitted to his job. There are always possibilities of round pegs in square holes................ ". Another point to be noted about transfers is that whereas some are within the same department (intra-departmental transfers) others are across (inter-departmental transfers). Usually the former are easier to effect, not involving the authority of the central personnel agency, the latter, is usually difficult to effect and usually involves the approval or the action of central personnel agency. A variant of transfers which combines the characteristics of reassignment is posting. Posting is the reassignment of a given class or cadre of officers who are functionaries of a given office, e.g the office of the Head of Service or the Establishment Division, from ministry to ministry, department to department as the exigencies of office/functions demand. These classes of officers are in a "pool" and are "rotated" from one ministry or department to another as a regular part of their character to improve growth of employee and of the organization. It has its advantages and disadvantages. The former is that it heightens morale by not tying one to a particular location and it engenders training in varied experiences. The latter is that it can take an employee to an undesired organization unit or location. If done too frequently it can lead to an employee not gathering any useful experience. With a reasonable use, its advantages out-weigh its disadvantages.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Say what is internal selection and explain its types

1.6 Summary

In this unit you have covered quite a number of concepts - internal selection, promotion, transfers, reassignment. You have also seen how some of these concepts are operated in the context of Nigeria.

1.7   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Omale. I "Past Practices in Personnel Management in the Nigerian Civil service: Issues
and Procedures in Ali D. Yahaya and Caleb I. Akinyele (eds) (1992), ASCON,
Topo Badagry. - O. Glenn Stahl (1992), Public Personnel Administration, fifth edition)
Harper
and Row, Publishers, New York.

1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

Say what is internal selection and explain its types

Internal selection is the process of filling positions in organization by the use of those who are within the organization rather than bringing in new entrants. In contrast, when there is a vacancy, is the desire of the organization to fill it from within the organization, the external job market is excluded from the process.

The following could be explained as types of internal selection within an organization:
(1) Promotion (2) Re-assignments (3) Transfers (4) Postings

UNIT 2
CAREER SYSTEMS

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

When one enters into an organization or a service, one does so on the bases of an occupation. Within the occupation, the employee moves from step to another on a ladder from the lower rungs to the highest. This progression is what will be discussed in this unit. This is a career. Here we shall identify and discuss the various types.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Say what a career is

List various types of careers

Explain what each type of career is

List factors used to distinguish between one type of career from another - choose between careers

1.3 Definition

We shall avail you two definitions of this concept - career which O. Glenn Stahl is "an old" term. According to him career has been widely used to denote: The progression of an individual in a field of work throughout employable years of his life. In his own way, Edwin B. Flippo defines career as: a sequence of separate but related work activities that provides continuity, order, and meaning in a person's life. Two factors are common to the two definitions above. Firstly, longevity. Both definitions allude to life-long work experience. Secondly, continuity. The first definition which is more relevant to public

service relates careerism to a given or chosen field of work. The second definition speaks of separate, but related work activities. Such phenomena are more common in the private sector. Our preferred definition here is the first one which relates a career to one field of endeavor.

1.4 Classification of Careers

O. Glenn Stahl identifies two methods for the classification of careers. The first is the Closed Careers and the second Open careers.

1.4.1 Closed career and Open careers

A closed career system is one which utilizes the device of low maximum age limit for entrance and the filling of upper level positions almost entirely from within to keep other entrants out. A closed career system does not permit entry at the middle or upper levels. Such a system is based on the concept that substantial opportunity for advancement can be ensured only if the hierarchy is refuelled in personnel from the base, preserving upper ranks for the completion of those already in the service. A Nigerian example that can approximate a closed career is the military. Virtually all military positions are entered into at the very base, in some cases at the Military School in Zaria at the age of 10 -12 years. It is from this tender age that one climbs the rungs to the top most position. Even when there is entry at 2nd lieutenant level of the officer corps, it is only at such a level and no other. The Open career system on the other hand permits entrance at any or all grade levels (by rank or position) in the service. In some instances, and places, even this entrance is limited by entry qualifications and examinations. In Nigeria however. such limitations are usually flouted. For example, although open, the administrative service had prerequisites for entry. However, with the politicization as well as militarization of the service especially at state government levels, quite a number of people who have had nothing near administrative qualification or experience are brought to the very top of the ladder. Such were the times when professors in non- management disciplines were taken into the civil service and made Heads of service. Of course, the outcomes were disastrous.

1.4.2 Programme careers and Organization careers

In a large organization with numerous activities and programmes, an employee may take a job that confines him to a section or a programme, whereas another employee may take a job that permits mobility from section to section. The former is a programme career and the latter an organization career. In the Nigerian context what ties an employee down in a programme is also the nature of career or occupation to which the employee belongs. Whereas, an agricultural officer for instance has to remain in the ministry soon finds himself in the ministry_ of' commerce and industry by process of "posting" or reassignment.

1.4.3 Job-oriented careers and Rank in the man

This classification, also known as the position and personal rank concepts, is important but very complex. Under the position concept, individual career progression is a progression from one position of jobs sequentially' in an organization. For example, the career of a stenographer fits into this type of classification. The jobs he does are sequenced into levels as for example, stenographer Grade l does a given type/level of jobs; a senior stenographer does a given type/higher level job, etc. On the rank concept, let us give you a fairly long quote from Stahl to explain it: The rank idea says: `Hire broadly qualified people, and work out their assignments from time to time to suit the needs of the enterprise and the aptitudes of the individuals. Let their progress and recognition be based on the length and overall quality of their service, regardless of the significance of individual assignments which they periodically assume. An example, which approximates the rank concept is the Nigerian administrative class positions. Employees in the administrative service are hired on the basis of broad qualification and they are given assignments. For example, because the rank is in the man, not in the position, you find an Assistant Director, a Deputy Director, a Director, etc., all at certain times, doing the work of caretaker chairmanship of local governments. During the military era in civil administration in Nigeria, it was commonplace to find a major, a lieutenant colonel, a full colonel, a brigadier general etc. all holding the same position of Military governorships of states.

This is the rank concept of careers. It ensures greater flexibility and produces greater adaptability of human resources to organizational needs. It may feature, to again quote Stahl, is that "... status (pay, prestige, rights, etc.) resides in the individual regardless of the nature of his assignment". Whereas in the position concept, "...status depends upon the work performed rather than upon the previous service of the individual".

Self-Assessment Exercise

Define personnel management and briefly explain some of its functions.

1.5 Summary

This unit has covered the career concept from definition through to forms and methods of classification of careers.

1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Flippo. Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management, (Sixth Edition) McGraw Hill Book

company, New York.

Stahl, Glenn O. (1962) Public Personnel Administration, (Fifth Edition_) Harper & Row
    Publishers, New York.

 1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

Explain the methods of career classification.

The following could be explained as methods of career classification:
(1) Closed careers and open careers (2) Programme careers and organization careers (3)
Job oriented careers and Rank in the man

UNIT 3
COMPENSATION

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Compensation is the payment an employee receives for the services he/she renders. In this unit we shall explore how it is determined, i.e., the factors that go into determining salaries and wages. We shall also look into influences on the level of salaries and wages payable by various organizations and employers

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

Define what compensation is

Explain the effects of economic, social, and ethical factors on salaries and wages

Identify reasons why some employers in organizations pay higher wages than others

Undertake a survey on how to gather facts to be used in establishing a pay scale

1.3 Definition and types

There is no concise definition of this concept. Its meaning is deduced from its purpose and policy. Edwin Flippo (1984) says that there are three purposes of employee compensation programmes, namely, (1) to attract capable employees to the organization, (2) to motivate them toward superior performance, and (3) to retain their services over an attended period of time. A.G. Cole (1997) adds a fourth purpose, i.e. that compensation is

to reward employees for effort, loyalty, experience and achievement. Putting all these together, we will provide you a definition of compensation: The money (salaries and wages) which an employer pays an employee for the services he the employee renders and which is meant to keep him rendering such services for an extended period of time. Wages and salaries form the most single obligation an employer owes to employees and this usually is the biggest item of an organization's expenditure. Cole notes that "typically, wages and salaries and related cost (pensions etc.) make up about 60% of the total costs of running a major business. This definition of compensation which talks about salaries and wages will not be complete if these two concepts i.e. salaries and wages are not defined and distinguished one from the other. James H. Donnelly Jr and his associates in their Fundamental of Management, do this by saying: The most common system by which non managerial employees can be compensated is wages, which are based on time increments or number of units produced. Non managerial employees traditionally have been paid at an hourly or daily rate, although some are now being paid biweekly or monthly. Employees who are compensated on a weekly or longer schedule are paid salaries.

1.4 Factors in determining the general pay level

1.4.1 Economic considerations

Even if you have not done economics before, you should not be discouraged by the economic concepts and ideas you will see here The first point to note here is that there is a vital relationship between the total amount spent for wages and the total productivity (i.e. the total amount of goods and services produced). The second truth is that there is a vital relationship between the amount spent on wages and the proportions of total income going to the other factors of production. For example, if an organization has a total of Nlm (one million naira), and needs N1/2m to procure raw materials for making say, bicycle tyres, and spends N700,000 on wages, what is left cannot procure the raw materials for the labor force to use. O. Glenn Stahl, putting all these economic factors together, concludes that "As society is economically organized at present, there is a practical limitation upon the height to which the general level of all compensation can go - a limitation determined first by the total productivity of industry, and second by the irreducible requirements of the various other factors of production. A wage set with due regard to these considerations is regarded as an economic wage, and private establishments paying `uneconomic' wages are likely to be forced out of business". Of course government is not bound by the economic factor above. In theory, what sets a limit to what government can pay in wages and salaries is its income and the extent to which it has to compete in the labour market. However, despite the fact that government is not bound by the economic argument, it behoves it to be guided by such arguments, competes with industry in the labour market. If it pays far in excess of what industry pays, labour will drain into public service and productivity of industry will suffer. If, on

the other hand, it pays far below economic way, it (the government) will find it difficult to attract labour.

1.4.2 Social and ethical considerations

O. Glenn Stahl says that, "Although from an economic stand point, government is somewhat freer in setting its pay policy than are competitive private establishments, from the social and ethical stand points it is less free to do as it will'". This is so because the government is the body which is saddled with the responsibility of ensuring that every citizen of a given country lives a life that is adjudged "adequate" and to ensure that this is attained, means paying a wage that cannot go below a certain level. The reason that Stahl advances for the social and ethical consideration is that the bargaining power of public employees is limited as a result of (1) the absence of effective organization among many civil servants (2) limitations upon the right to strike and to engage in political activities, and (3) the special character of much government work which makes it difficult for the civil servant to leave the service for private employment. He sums up this factor and its effects thus: - "The weak bargaining position in which many public servants find themselves produces a situation conducive to arbitrary and dissemination. The chief restraint against unfairness must be self-imposed, on the ground that the government should be a model employer. The social and ethical consideration is what gives rise to the idea of a living wage or what in the Nigeria of recent days you heard referred to as the minimum wage. Stahl says that "most contemporary references to a minimum wage are, in reality references to a minimum living wage ...(and) that the government should pay its employees a salary based upon what it costs them to maintain an appropriate standard of living". This approach to determination of salary has nothing to do with economic consideration but purely an ethical consideration. In the words of Stahl, "they are based upon the contention that every citizen of a civilized community should be assured the means to a reasonable sense of living according to the standard prevailing in the community".

1.5 Determining the minimum living wage

To determine the minimum living wage requires two steps. Firstly, there is the need to determine the general living standard to be provided. Secondly, there is need for a study of the cost-of living budgets as determining the amount necessary to maintain that standard. Stahl adds yet another necessary requirement, i.e. that "both of these are intimately related to the question of whether the minimum is to provide a living wage for a single man, a single woman, a married man, an average family or some other unit". He added that "obviously, what might be a living wage for a man with no dependents would not provide a living for a family of five". One way of solving the problem is what is known as the family allowance system, under which a minimum living wage is set for a single person and increments are added for dependents. With this done, there still remains the problems of the standard of living to be accepted as the minimum, below which a

citizen of a civilized community should not be expected to go. Glenn Stahl says "various standards have been recognized - poverty level, minimum subsistence level, health and decency level, comfort level, cultural level, etc". Whichever concept is used, there will always be the problem of lack of precision. What should be guarded against is the fact that, whatever concept is adopted, care should be taken that employees should be paid wages that enable them to live at least at the health and decency level. Having determined a given standard as the minimum acceptable as a health and decency level, the next step is the determination through cost-of-living and theoretical budget studies of the average pay necessary to maintain the acceptable standard.

Here, two methods are available for use. The first is through actual investigation of expenditures of a sample of the individuals or families in the class chosen as the acceptable standard. Under this method the amount of money spent by a sample of people living at the acceptable health and decency level is studied for a period of say, one month. What this figure gives will be a good estimate of a salary to be paid to employees to enable them live at such an acceptable level. The second method is through setting up a minimum quantity com piled by including the goods and services comprising the living standard of a broad and representative group, and then investigating the current market prices of such commodities and services. What this means is a compilation of goods and services that are needed to live at a level of health and decency for say a month. This compiled, the market prices are found. The amount arrived at is equal to the minimum wage that an employee should be paid to enable him live at that level.

1.6 Pay ceilings

Let us start the discussion by contrasting wages at the lower and higher levels in both government and private industry in the words of O. Glenn Stahl. He says: - (A) characteristic of the government wage structure, is the tendency for public wage levels to be somewhat above those prevailing outside so far as the lower brackets are concerned, and lower for professional and executive employment. Thus, salaries and wages in the public service are confined within narrower limits than those outside. The most serious aspect of this compression of pay scales is the lag in executive salaries in government as compared with those in the industry". What this means is that, an account of the social and ethical considerations discussed above, government is constrained to pay a minimum wage which is usually higher than what private industry pays, the latter not obligated the way government is. On the other hand, salaries at the top level of the services are higher in private industry than in government. The economic factors discussed earlier compels private industry to pay higher wages at the top or else it will not be able to attract adequate expertise. Government on the other hand is not under the same compulsion. Those at the higher rungs government service have some altruistic satisfaction that keeps them on the job despite correspondingly lower salaries. Also, whereas government salaries are pegged by government action, especially. legislative action, salaries in private industry do not experience such inhibition but rather get propped up by union power which is virtually absent in the service of government.

8.7 Additional factors in salary determination

The additional factors which might affect salary determination which we shall consider here are factors which give reason for salary differentials. O. Glenn Stahl mentioned two sorts of salary differentials, the first is geographic and the second is special. According to Stahl, geographic differential "is that which is added to or subtracted from the basic vote of all employees in all classes in a given locality for the purpose of equalizing real earnings between employees in various localities". Stahl says further that geographic differentials in salary "arises only in those jurisdictions (i.e governmental bodies) employing a considerable field service and is based upon realization that equality of pay is really determined not by the number of dollars received but what they will buy in a given locality". Sound as the case for geographic differentials may appear, their practical applications is beset with difficulties. One basic difficulty is that there is no practical way of determining the geographical boundaries for particular rate areas. With regard to special differentials, Stahl says that the factors which occasion them are "...the isolated character of a particular post, unusual involved in a particular assignment, and especially undesirable climatic conditions". He says that "where these factors are present, it may be desirable, from the standpoint both of fair and equitable treatment to the employee and of recruitment necessities, to employ special differentials". However, Stahl also says that special pay differential for hazardous work alone presents many perceiving problems. There are governmental jobs such as manufacturing, inspection, testing, laboratory, hospital, etc which pose danger to life in one way or the other. Rather than special pay differential, these factors should be taken into account when grading the job. Alternatively, rather than trying to meet the hazard problem by extra pay, many people, according to Stahl, "contend that hazard should be controlled by safety engineering and training, by careful selection of employees where special skills are required to avoid harm, and by careful adjustment working time or conditions, and that more adequate injury compensation and family benefits as the result of death should be looked upon as economic protection for the individual and his family".

1.8 The Nigerian situation

When the opportunity came in 1974 for a major work to be done concerning salaries and wages, among other things, in the public service, i.e. the work of the public service. Review Commission, popularly referred to as the Udoji Commission, the salary policy was developed based upon the following premises: (i) Public service salaries, if they are to have any economic base, must be generally related to salaries for comparable work in the private sector, which reflect the economics of the market". You will notice that the economic consideration is here. (ii) In view of the super-abundance of labour at the lower level of skills, the market price of labour at these levels as reflected in private sector pay is likely to be below that which the public service should be willing to pay, and below that which will support a desirable standard of living for public servants". You will notice here the abundant influence of the social and ethical considerations discussed above. (iii) Similarly, at the highest levels of management, factors such as contributory pensions,

security of tenure and psychic satisfaction contribute to salaries in the top management positions in the public sector being lower than those in the private sector". Here you will notice that the Nigerian situation advances what we might call more cogent reasons to explain why salaries in the upper brackets of the public service are lower than those in the same bracket in the private sector. (iv) The principle of equal pay for equal work militates against establishing regional or urban rural differentials between employees in the same grade". Here you will notice that the reason given against the adoption of geographic salary differentials is ideological rather than the practical ones given earlier under this topic. (v) Fringe benefits (see unit 9) such as pensions and allowances which are quantifiable should be taken into account in comparing compensation between the public and private sectors". These are the salient and most relevant premises upon which compensation is based in Nigeria. As you can see, no government can do without both the economic as well as social and ethical considerations in determining salaries and wages. Also as it is in other countries and for the same reasons, salaries are found to be higher in the public sector for the lower rungs than in the private sector and higher for the upper echelons of the organization in the private sector than in the public sector.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Use the Nigerian case to discuss the considerations to go into the determination of salaries and wages.

1.9 Summary

Compensation is one, if not, the most important incentives that makes an employee offer his services to an employer. How it is determined has been the main concern of this unit.

1.10 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Cole, A.G (1997), Personnel Management - Theory y and Practice (Fourth Edition) ELST.
        with Letts Educational, London.
Donnelly, James H. Jr, Gibson, James L, Ivancevich, John M., (1995), Fundamentals of
        Management, (Ninth Edition)
Federal Republic of Nigeria (1974), Report of the Public Service Review Commission,
        Federal Government Press, Lagos.
Stahl, Glenn O (1962), Public Personnel Administration (Fifth Edition), Harper and Row
        Publishers Inc. New York

1.11 Possible Answers to SAEs

Use the Nigerian case to discuss the considerations to go into the determination of salaries and wages.

The following factors could be explained as determinants of fixing salaries and wages in Nigeria like any other country:

i.   Economic considerations
ii.   Social and ethical considerations
iii.   Intended general living standard to be provided by the government
iv.   Cost of living prevailing in the country
v.   Geographic differentials
vi.   Special differentials

UNIT 4
FRINGE BENEFITS

Unit Structure

1.1   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcomes
1.3   Definition
1.4   Scope of benefits
1.5   Summary
1.6   References/Further Readings/Web Resources
1.7   Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

1.1 Introduction

Fringe benefits, also known as supplementary compensation or allowances are payments made to employees in addition to salaries and wages. Flippo sees its benefit as helping to ensure the retention of the employee in the organization on a long term basis. Different organizations pay different fringe benefits. In Nigeria, there is a marked difference

between the fringe benefits paid in the private sector as compared with those paid by government - the private sector pays higher than government does.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

i.   Define fringe benefit
ii.   Identify a number of fringe benefits
iii.   Recognize the philosophy and principles of fringe benefit programmes

1.3 Definition

Edwin B. Flippo discussing the nature of fringe benefits says: - "Different forms of supplementary compensation have a variety of titles in industry. Some refers to them as - service programs', others characterize them as `non-wage payment' or `employee benefits', still others emphasize the costs and label them `hidden payroll'. Typically, they have been most often referred to as fringe benefits. Giving what looks like a definition, Flippo says: In the broadest sense, such `fringes' can be construed to include all expenditures designed to benefit employees over and above regular base pay and direct variable compensation related to output. Flippo says that the "benefit" of fringe benefits is to retain the employee in the organization on a long term basis. He further says that there is little or no evidence that it serves to motivate employees to higher productivity. However, fringe benefits also known as "flexible benefits" by Stephen P. Robbins, now do have motivational value. He talks about flexible benefits (fringe benefits) thus: "Flexible benefits allow employees to pick and choose from among a menu of benefit options. The idea is to allow each employee to choose a benefit package that is individually tailored to his or her own needs and situations. It replaces the traditional 'one-benefit-plan-fits-all' programs that have dominated organizations for more than 50 years". Linking benefits to motivation, Robbins says: "Giving all employees the same benefits assumes that all employees have the same needs. Of course, we know that this assumption is false. Thus, flexible benefits turn the benefits' expenditure into a motivator. Consistent with expectancy theory's thesis that organizational rewards should be linked to each individual employee's goals, flexible benefits individualize rewards by allowing each employee to choose the compensation package that best satisfies his or her current needs".

1.4 Scope of fringe benefits

Flippo gives the following as major categories of fringe benefits:

1.   **Payment for time not worked**

Flippo says that "Examples in this area would include paid rest periods, paid lunch periods, wash-up time, clothes-change time, get ready time, vacations, holidays, sick leave, personal leave, voting time, and injury duty. There is seemingly no end to the innovative determination of new reasons for not working for pay. Perhaps the ultimate is a newly negotiated 'to-hell-with-it' benefit: a certain number of days provided for the occasion when the employee simply doesn't feel like going to work".

2.   Hazard protection

There are a certain number of hazards that must be commonly faced by all. Income maintenance during these periods is the purpose of fringes designed to protect against hazards of illness, injury, debt, unemployment, permanent disability, old age and death".

3.   Employee services

All people must have certain services available on a continuing basis, such as housing, food, advice, recreation, and so on. The trend toward the organization's providing such routine and ordinary services is exemplified by such fringe benefit programs as cafeterias, paid legal services, career counselling, educational tuition, aid in housing, medical services, low-cost loans, use of organizations vehicles for personal reasons, day-care centres for children, and paid membership in certain organizations.

4.   Legally required payments

An issue which is so far peculiar to the U.S.A. Flippo talks about it thus: "Our society, through its government, has cleared that certain minimum levels of company expenditures will be made in the area of protecting employees against the major hazards of life. Thus, regardless of company policy, organizations covered by federal and state laws must pay for unemployment compensation, workers' compensation insurance, old age and survivors' insurance under social security, and Medicare. With programmes as comprehensive as the listing above, no wonder the cost of fringes has become very large. Robbins says. average organization provides fringe benefits worth approximately 40 percent of an employee's salary. Some of the new fringes for workers are longer vacations, no employee expense for major medical coverage, cost of living adjustment of pensions after retirement, earlier retirement ages, possible training when severed from the organization, etc. For executives, fringes such as the following are envisaged: facelifts for executive and spouses, adoption fees, no-smoking pay, paternity leave, well pay, weight-loss pay. self-defence training, chauffeured limousines, company apartment or hotel room near the office, financial counselling, club membership, home entertainment expenses, and no-interest loans etc.

5. Facilitative employee services

Facilitative services are activities that employees must normally take care of themselves in their daily lives. Organizations, in order to relieve employees of some of the burdens

of these "cares" of life and thus free body and mind to concentrate on work, come in to provide relief services. Some of these are as follows: (a) Recreational programmes There are two types or levels at which organizations do promote sports. One is that in which a particular organization floats a sporting club and have a team that can compete in National and International sporting events. The use such a sporting activity to give publicity and perhaps nothing else by way of increased productivity. The other level of sporting activity is intramural. In this case the organization establishes sporting facilities for its employees to "enjoy". Such sports are golf, tennis (lawn and table), swimming, etc. Here again, the sporting activity hardly Contributes directly to productivity. Perhaps it can be argued that sports contribute to the "employee health and for sports lovers, may boost morale and thus indirectly contribute to productivity. (b) Cafeterias The most important contribution of company cafeteria is improved nutrition. Without it, employees are likely to settle for unsatisfactory snacks, or on the other eat very heavy food elsewhere which may reflect in greater fatigue and reduced productivity during the late afternoon. For these and other reasons, it is a wise decision organization to run cafeteria services for their employees. (c) Child care Flippo says that "Approximately half of all women with children under the age six are in the workforce (and that) for families with both parents working, it is estimated that day care expenses for children average 10 percent of gross income .... " For this reason a number of companies either assist employees by counselling as to where to find the services and helping to link up service providers with employees needing such service, or the company runs such child care services for its employees. The relief from worry and the cost-saving nature of in-house childcare services serve as motivators which can contribute towards greater productivity on the part of employees. (d) Employee purchase This is a practice under which the company allows the employees to purchase its own goods at a discount or under which the company buys the products of another company and sells them to its own employees at a reduced rate. The effect it has is on morale which may lead to increased productivity. (e) Educational tuition This is a process where the employer assists the employee to acquire education. Except that, as Flippo states, there is low interest in it by employees, it is a weapon with a double edge - the employee gains additional knowledge and skills that contributes to personal development, the organization gains when these skills are put to work on the job. These are some of the more common ones or ones used in country. There are more. e.g. vanpooling, and other employee service programmes, which can be used to increase morale and consequently productivity.

Self-Assessment Exercise

(a)	What are fringe benefits and why are they paid?
(b)	List and explain the types of fringe benefits that are available to employees.

1.5 Summary

Fringe benefits are a part of general compensation. It is part of what new entrants use in deciding whether to work for one organization rather than another. As such, organizations have to pay some attention to it.

1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Flippo. Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management (sixth edition), McGraw- Hill Book Company, New York.

Robbins, Stephen P (2001), Organizational Behaviour (Ninth Edition) Prentica Hall of India, New Delhi.

1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

(c)   What is fringe benefits and why are they paid?

(d)   List and explain the types of fringe benefits that are available to employees.

(a)Fringe benefits include all expenditures by the organization designed to benefit employees over and above regular base pay and direct variable compensation related to output. Fringe benefits are not related to the output of goods or services produced. They are paid in order to retain the employee in the organization on a long term basis.

(b) The following could be explained as types of fringe benefits available to employees:

i. Payment for work not done ii.

Hazard protection

iii. Employee services

    iv.Legally required payment

UNIT 5
EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL
Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

According to G. A. Cole, employee performance appraisal is one out of only 3 of the numerous personnel functions that evaluates the employee individuals. It is as a result. important because it is sensitive. In his words, this is " ... a task that is delicate as well as complex". In Nigeria, this task has been carried out at one time as a "confidential annual report" i.e. done by the manager/supervisor without the knowledge or any input by the employee being appraised; and at another time as an "open performance appraisal" system. Whatever it is or should be, is the concern of this unit.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:
  i.   Define the concept of employee appraisal
 ii.   List the reasons for which appraisals are done
iii.   Recognize an appraisal form
iv.   Construct a rating scales for employee appraisal
  v.   Conduct an appraisal interview

1.3 Definition and scope of employee performance appraisal

In their book. Human Resources Management, Theory and Practice, John Bratton and Jeffrey Gold (in the glossary of the book) define performance appraisal as an "Analysis of an employee's capabilities and potential drawn from assessment data of past and current work, behaviour, and performance. allowing decision to be made in relation to purpose - for example HRD needs" The say of HRD (Human Resource Development), among other things, as "A term used to indicate training and development .... "

Seen in the light of the definition above, performance appraisal has quite a number of factors in it to be considered. Firstly, it is an appraisal of the employee's capabilities and potential capabilities. As will be seen later, it is in part therefore, a rating of an employee's traits. Secondly, it is an assessment of data on work done. Therefore, it is not alone an appraisal of an individual's trait, but an objective measure of work done, using facts and figures. Taking these two factors together, performance appraisal can be seen to be concerned with assessment of both behaviour and performance. Thirdly, it has an aim, which is to allow decision to be made in relation to training, development, and as will be seen later, promotion, increase in salary etc. We have isolated these factors and emphasized them because in the context of Nigeria, as noted by I. Omale in a chapter of a book - Planning and Budgeting in Nigeria - Institutional and Policy Reforms (1994) these factors are singled out and weighted in a performance appraisal policy in the civil service. He enumerated the factors as follows: (a) actual performance compared with prescribed performance standards, (b) character traits, (c) attendance and punctuality at work (d) leadership performance. Some of the reasons for employee performance appraisal are contained under the topic "Scope" above. However, the reasons for it are numerous and G. A. Cole, provides a list as follows:

 • to identify an individual's current level of job performance to identify employee strengths and weaknesses • to enable employees to improve their performance • to provide a basis for rewarding employees in relation to their contribution to organization goals • to motivate individuals • to identify training and development needs • to identify potential performance • to provide information for succession planning. Summing the reasons for appraisal, Cole says "The most likely reason for the adoption of staff appraisal is to draw attention to present performance in the job in order to (a) reward people fairly, and (b) to identify those potentials for promotion or transfer".

1.4 Difficulties with appraisals

As we noted earlier performance appraisal is an intricate and complex affair. A. C. Cole cites three difficulties concerning both accuracy and fairness of appraisals. They are: • the construction of the appraisal documents • the style in which the appraisal is approached • the culture of the organization.

1.4.1 The appraisal document i.e. the form

As seen above under scope, the target of appraisal can be either performance or behavior of an employee. The instrument or form or document used for appraisal usually indicates what it is that is being appraised. A. G. Cole gives the characteristics of forms which seek information about the person rather than about his performance as: (i) generalized criteria (ii) generalized ratings of performance (iii) individual qualities rather than results (iv) box ticking as method of performance An appraisal form that seeks information about the employee rather than performance is at fig. 1.1 below Fig 1.1 Appraisal form emphasizing individual qualities Personal attributes leadership Initiative Judgment Decision-making Ability 1.Makes sound Customer Awareness Self-disciple 1. Always at

the center of activity 2. capable of leading smallish groups 3. has no real leadership qualities 1. Always acts on own initiative 2. Will act on own initiative in minor ways 3. Never acts unless instructed 1. Assesses a situation with cool discernment 2. Sometimes confused by strong counter-arguments, but generally makes sound assessment 3. Totally lacks any critical faculty decisions at all times 2. Cannot always foresee the outcome of his decisions 3. Decisions are more like guesses 1. Aware of need for quality, timeliness and price 2. Only partially aware of the importance of the customer during the working day 3. Customers' needs are seen as secondary to his own 1. Has well-balanced attitude towards work and leisure 2. Concentrates on work he prefers Appraisal styles Maier (1958) identified three basic approaches to the appraisal interview. These were as follows: (1) TELL AND SELL approach, in which the manager tells his subordinate how he is doing, and endeavors to persuade him to accept what has been decided for him in terms of improvement. (2) TELL AND LISTEN approach, where the manager tells his subordinate how he is doing, but then sits back and listens to the 79 individual's point of view both about the appraisal and about any follow- up action required. (3) PROBLEM-SOLVING approach, in which the manager effectively puts aside the role of judge in order to join the subordinate in mutual reflection on progress and mutual discussion about required action. Maier has in effect described a continuum of interviewer behavior ranging from a relatively autocratic style to one that is fully participative. continuum may be described graphically as below: Interview dominated by manager A continuum of appraisal interview styles (after Maier) 80 Interview shares between Manager and subordinate Manager Manager Manager Manager TELLS TELLS& TELLS& SHARES SELLS LISTENS problems and Solution with subordinate A. G. Cole notes the following as being the difficulties with appraisals utilizing the above form, i.e individual qualities appraisal. The first difficulty with this approach is that of measurement. How can a manager fairly assess qualities of leadership or judgment, for example? The second difficulty is that of relevance How central to success are diligence and cost consciousness, for example'? Hard work is not synonymous with effective work; awareness of costs may be disadvantageous if it discourages initiative or decision-making. The third difficulty is that the completing the form have to rely on subjective impressions instead concrete evidence. Fortunately, the senior management of the company concerned found it too difficult to operate such a generalized instrument and eventually substituted a results-oriented system. On the other hand, all appraisal which focuses attention on performance could have a form as the one of fig. 1.2 below. Fig. 1.2 Results-oriented appraisal form Company: Office Equipment Sales Position: Managing Director 81 Key Result Areas Targets Set for the Achieved Evidence Notes Period* Profitability Increase profit sales Yes ration by 5% Maintain present Market Share market share at 15% Annual Accounts No (13%) Industry Price-cutting statistics achieve gross sales of competitors N150m Sales Reduce average

No Annual delivery time to four (N 148m) Accounts weeks Delivery Ensure staff costs do yes

Customer not exceed 55% of Accounts total expenditure *Financial year Staff Performance yes Annual Budget Summary An appraisal using the above form will find it

possible to identify the relevant aspects of the job and to set measurable targets against which to assess the employee's performances in a fair and accurate manner. What is app raised is quality (how much?) quality (how well?), time (by what time?) and cost (at what cost?) In concluding this section however, it is advisable perhaps to adopt the Nigerian variant stated under scope above. There the two factors of behavior and performance, are being appraised. This is necessary because employee who deals with customers may have a very high quality job, accomplished in very good time, but delivers it in a ver y impolite manner. Not only can such a service or a good be rejected, the organization that harbors such an impolite staff may also be rejected. It may therefore be advisable to use the two forms above together for better result.

1.4.2 Rating scales in performance appraisal

Whichever factor we are measuring - behaviour or performance - appraisers still have to measure individual performance which they do by use of one or more scales. Cole lists and explains them as follows: 1. Linear or Graphic Rating Scales Initiative A B C D E 1 2 3 4 5 5 Initiative (Low) (High) Initiative Excellent ....Good ....Average............... Poor 2. Behavioural Scales -this is the type shown in fig. 1.1 above 3. Results/Targets Set - this is the example in fig. 1.2 4. Free Written Reports - in this, the appraiser writes essay type answers to questions set on the appraisal document.

1.4.3 Appraisal Interviews

This is a face- to-face meeting the employee and his manager or supervisor. Its aim is to discuss the subject of each item on the appraisal form. This is related to the open rather than the confidential appraisal method. It has a number of objectives. As listed by Cole these are: (1) to evaluate the subordinate's recent performance (2) to formulate job improvement plans (3) to identify problems and/or examine possible opportunities related to the job 83 (4) to improve communication between superior and subordinate (5) to provide feedback on job performance to the employee (6) to provide a rationale for salary reviews (7) to identify potential performance/possibilities for promotion or transfer (8) to identify training and development needs.

Self-Assessment Exercise

List and explain the reasons for employees' appraisal

1.5 Summary

In this unit, as much as possible, all that you need to know about performance appraisal have been discussed. It covers definition, scope and the format of appraisal as well as style.

1.7   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Bratton, John and Gold, Jeffrey (1999), Human Resource Management - Theory and
    Practice (Second Edition) Macmillan Press Ltd, London
Cole, G.A (1997), Personnel Management Theory and Practice (Fourth Edition) ELST with
    Letts Educational, London 84 Omale, I "Complementary Institutional Reform
    Programme: The Civil Service Reform, in Obadan, Mike I, and Ogiogio
Gene O (1994), Planning, and budgeting in Nigeria Institutional and Policy Reforms,
    National Centre for Economic Management and Administration, (NCEMA),
Ibadan.

1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

List and explain reasons for employees' appraisals.

The following could be explained as reasons why organizations conduct appraisals on their employees:
1.   to identify an individual's current level of job performance
2.   to identify employee strengths and weaknesses
3.   to enable employees to improve their performance
4.   to provide a basis for rewarding employees in relation to their contribution to organization goals
5.   to motivate individuals
6.   to identify training and development needs
7.   to identify potential performance
8.   to provide information for succession planning.

MODULE 3

UNIT 1

TRAINING

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Training is a very important personnel function to which every organization must pay special attention. The contribution of individual workers depends on what knowledge of the work they have and the skills they possess to carry out the work. These contributions will increase/improve with new knowledge and skill obtainable in most cases from training.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
• Identify what training is
• Define training Identify training needs
• Device training plans
• Conduct training needs surveys

1.3 Definition and Scope

As we embark on the definition of training, we want you to reflect whether the twin concept development is or is not the same as training; and whether both of them are or are not the same as education. Let us now, give the definition of training. We shall leave that of development to its own unit which comes later. G. A. Cole defines training as: Training [is]... any learning activity which is directed towards acquisition of specific knowledge and skills for the purpose of occupation or task. The focus of training is the job or task.

Scope on the hand, is quantity and quality of training. G.A. Cole gives a long list of what determines the quantity and quality of training on organizations. They are:

• Degree of change in the external environment (technological change, new legislation, etc)

• Degree of internal change (new processes, new markets, etc)

• Availability of suitable skills within the existing work force

• Adaptability of existing work force

• The extent to which the organization supports the idea of internal career development

• The commitment of senior management to training as an essential part of economic success• The extent to which management sees training as a motivating factor in work

• Knowledge and skills of those responsible for carrying out the training.

The quantity and quality of training an organization has depends on its policy toward training. In some organizations, and this is common in government agencies in Nigeria, training is adhoc, unplanned and haphazard. Organizations are careful about training and are systematic about identifying training needs, then designing training activities in a rational manner to meet the needs, afterwards evaluate the results. This is how it ought to be. The knowledge and skills that are or are not available in the public service as a result of training or lack of it are a function of two phenomena. The first is pre- entry training and the second is in-service training. We shall start by discussing pre-entry training.

1.4 Pre-entry training

Pre-entry training is the training an employee has undergone before he joins a service or an organization. You may be led into thinking that this being the case, it should not feature prominently in the discussion of training that goes 87 on in the service or in an organization. There are a number of reasons why it should. Firstly, in some countries or organizations, the training that takes place in institutions from which government or such organizations get their staff is influenced by government or such organizations. Let us make this clearer by an example. In the early 60s, and Institute of Public Administration was set up in Zaria, Nigeria. Its aim, among others, was to prepare administrative officers for the government. Although the training that took place there was "pre- entry" into service by those who attended it (and by the way not all who attended went into government service) was influenced by government needs. The curriculum was drawn up

to reflect the needs of government. Secondly, as noted above, the scope of training needed in an organization is determined, among other factors, by availability of suitable skills within the existing work force. Much of this existing skill comes from training. In order to ensure some appreciable level of pre-entry knowledge and skills, two schools of thought have guided in-take into public services of countries and/or organizations. The first school of thought is associated with Britain.

1.4.1 The liberal arts school of thought

O. Glenn Stahl states that: "In connection with the preparation of students for an administrative career, two schools of thought exist. One follows the lead of the United Kingdom which has been successful in recruiting for administrative duties the pick 14W graduates from Oxford, Cambridge, the London School of Economics, and other established universities". This is done on the assumption that: "..., the best administrators are those who have had a general liberal education, which makes for flexibility of magination and breadth of outlook". In the words of Lord Haldone (quoted by Stahl, in a learning before the Royal Commission of the Civil Service, he said "We still consider it worthwhile for our administrators to know their Aristotle and Plato". To a large extent, in the initial years of the Nigeria Civil Service, it was guided by this school of thought. The requirement for entry into administrative class of the Nigerian Civil Service was mainly a liberal arts degree of not lower than a second class. And for many years, this entry qualification was sufficient (without any additional training/to take one through the career rungs to the topmost position - that of a Head of Service.

1.4.2 The Science Oriented School of Thought

In this school of thought it is maintained that administration is not all art but also science. This being the case, principles can be deduced from its practice which can be taught and learnt. This school believes that a student with a liberal arts degree can be given specialist training in the technicalities of administration. Such teaching combined with internship opportunities can qualify young people for a career in administration. This school of thought argues that it is possible to provide vocational training in administration - subjects covered in such a training being determined by what an administrator actually does. Such courses will include according to Stahl, "administrative law, budgetary theory and practice, personnel administration, purchasing and handling of supplies, office procedures, reporting, statistics, research methods, and the like". The aim of training in this way is to produce a generalist, one who " ... should be acquainted with these various subjects, not as a practitioner or a specialist but one who should know how to utilize practitioners and specialists most effectively". Stahl say, in this connection that "An honest analysis of the work of the administrator will show that he is called upon to know more and more but probably never enough about any of the many fields subject to his direction to qualify as a specialist". The shortcoming of the training emanating from this

school of thought is that the generalists it produces, fit only into government administrative work and not much else i.e. its products have a small job (opportunities) market within which to operate.

1.4.3 Professionals with administrative training

What looks like a third school of though is the availing of graduates' various specialties with exposure to the art and science of leadership. This is premised on the belief that, in the words of Stahl, "The bulk of the non-clerical public jobs necessarily calls for technical knowledge in some field or the other". What this third school of thought aims at is to turn the expert in one field or the other to an administrator in order to rid him of what Stahl calls "the provincialism of the expert". By character, experts view issues from a narrowness of their expertise. Given some administrative training, the narrowness is minimized. This is on the premise that, again in the words of Stahl, "... cannot escape administrative responsibility at some time in their careers if they are to rise above mediocrity...." He adds therefore that, "... chemists, and lawyers and doctors and statisticians and similar specialists should be expected to have in their curricula certain minima of the social sciences, social psychology, literature, and English, as a liberal dose of administration or management science". He ended this by saying that, "Few vocations are without the need for executive capacity and an understanding of how to lead and to work with people". In Nigeria of recent times, the second and third schools of thought discussed here are now the guide-posts for administrative training. A part from the limited number of people who opt to read public administration as a first degree course, quite a number now come from the social sciences, the arts and the professions - engineering, law, the natural sciences, etc; to do postgraduate and higher_ degree courses in administration and management. In public service, a medical officer with a diploma in administration is likely to function more effectively as a permanent secretary in the ministry of health than a liberal arts graduates, so is an engineer with a higher degree management, a more effective chief executive in the ministry of works, etc.

1.5 In-service Training

In-service training starts from the application of the knowledge which an employee brings into service on the job to which he is assigned. It continues and includes making older employees more efficient in the performance of their present duties and even to equip them to qualify for advancement in one or more direction. In the words of Stahl. "Viewed thus broadly, in-service training is never accomplished, it is always in process". Here, we shall avail you of the forms and methods of in-service training, starting from: (a) Group training. Most of the pre-entry training we have discussed above are done in groups. However, within the organization, conferences and seminars are held, field trips are undertaken. These are all training sessions. One that is, but not usually? thought as training is a regular staff meeting. If well handled, and not made an order- giving and order-taking period, it could be very profitable training for both subordinate and

supervisor. Initial induction courses where large numbers of people are involved take this format. (b) One-the-job-instruction. This is the commonest form of training especially for the new entrant. The supervisor goes round to the work desk or bench and gives instruction on how the particular work is done. (c) Manuals and Bulletins - Handbooks, procedure manuals, or periodic bulletins, made attractive and readable are a great method of training in an organization. In Nigeria, the work of administration -the handling of personnel, of finances, of stores, of procedures are all taught mainly via manuals, the most important being the Civil Service Rules, the Regulations, the Stores Regulations and the Civil Service Handbook. No administrator, however long he has been in service has a table that lacks these documents - they are the administrator's companion. (d) Correspondences Courses - This is similar to what you are doing right now. When the circumstances are such that some employees are in the field, recourse is taken to the use of correspondence courses. Young administrative officers who were in the Colonial Service of Britain were taught here in Nigeria by notes written and sent from Britain. This was continued in independent Nigeria by circulars sent round Divisional Offices (now Local governments) by headquarters' staff. Instructions in such circulars were training instructions. (e) Use of Audiovisual Aids - You are also familiar with this in this Open University programme. O. Glenn Stahl has this to say about this method; "Few training devices have quite the appeal and force of graphic or auditor y presentations. They include such media as still pictures, models, specimens, posters, maps, charts, film strips, slides, and. most important, motion pictures". A final note on in-service training is the Nigerian understanding of it. In Nigeria, any training undertaken whilst an employee is in service, whether done in an institution outside the organization is regarded as training. Thus when, in the early 60s to late 70s many Nigerian administrators were sent on course to the Graduate School of Public and Internal Affairs (GSPIA), in Pittsburgh, U.S.A they were on training.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Discuss the two main types of training that may be available to an employee.

1.6 Summary
This unit has dealt with the meaning of training, discussed pre-entry as well as in- service training. It has also given the scope of training.

1.7   References/Further Readings/Web Resources
Cole G. A (1997), Personnel Management: Theory and Practice (Fourth Edition), ELST

Letts Educational, London

Stahl, Glenn O (1962), Public Personnel Administration (Fifth Edition) Harper & Row, Publishers, New York.

1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

Discuss the two main types of training that may be available to an employee.

The main types of training for employees in an organization that could be explained are (1) Pre-training (2) In-service training

UNIT 2
MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure
1.1   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcomes
1.3   Definition and Scope
1.4   Management Development Methods
1.5   Summary
1.6   References/Further Readings/Web Resources
1.7   Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

1.1 Introduction

You may wish to recall that in unit 11 where you learnt about training, we said it was the twin brother of management development. In this unit, we shall show you what management development is, and the various ways to bring it about.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you will be able to:

i.   Define management development
ii.   Identify management knowledge and skill
   iii.   List and explain various methods used in management development

1.3 Definition and Scope

As you must now be very much aware, almost all important concepts in our field of study have many definitions depending upon the perspective or focus of the writer. A.G. Cole gives a number of definition of development, himself quoting from other colleagues. Quoting Drucker, A.G. Cole, says; ...management development must embrace all managers in the enterprise. It must aim at challenging all to growth and self-development. It must focus on performance rather than on promise, and tomorrow's requirements rather than those of today Also, quoting from an MSc policy paper on Management Development, Cole says that Management development is .....any attempt to improve managerial effectiveness through a planned and deliberate learning process Yet another definition, and this time A. G. Cole quoting Professor Morris, says of management development that: ....development is a continuing improvement of effectiveness within a particular system, which may be a person, but in the case management development is within the management function of organization.

By Scope here we mean the field of managerial definition and expertise needing improvement so that the gap between present performance and expected performance may be bridged by management development. The following is a list of such activities.

provided by Cole who adopted the list from Pedler etal: 1. Command of basic facts 2. Relevant professional knowledge 3. Continuing sensitivity to events 4. Analytical, problem-solving, decision-making, and judgment making skills 5. Social skills and abilities 6. Emotional resilience 7. Pro-activity, i.e. the inclination to respond purposefully 8. Creativity 9. Mental agility 10 Balanced learning habits and skills 11 Self- knowledge Management development is needed in order to keep the manager possession of expertise so that he is not wanting in skills and knowledge in any of the above activities. This is how wide the scope of management development needs is.

1.4 Management Development Methods

A. G. Cole has identified three methods of management. Because the first two (a) Management education and (b) raining, look more like what we have already considered under unit 11, we shall concentrate effort here on the third, (c) Experiential learning which Cole talks about as "...learning by doing; on-the-job experience usually guidance from superior or colleague". In experiential learning he identifies and discusses the following:

1.4.1 Coaching/guided experience

Taking his definition from the word "coach" he defines coaching in this context as "...intensive training of one or more persons by another who uses instruction, demonstration and practice as his or her prime methods". He says, "unlike other forms of instruction which are often concerned with passing on facts or theoretical knowledge. coaching is about helping others to learn how to do things. " ... it is centered around a skilled individual who passes on his or her skills in a fairly intimate way to an individual or small group". The areas in which managers need to develop skills and competence are areas such as communication skills, group leadership, staff appraisal, handling grievances. planning and budgeting. It is in areas like this, in which cognitive knowledge - the learning of theories and facts will not do, that, in the words of Cole, "The presence of a skilled and valued colleague to help talk things through how to handle selected situations can avoid embarrassment and major errors of judgment..." 3.3.2 Mentoring The name "Mentor" is that of a trusted friend used by one of the Greek Illysses to train his son in the art of war fares. A mentor, in Cole's words " ... has come to mean someone mature and experienced who advises (and gives practical assistance where required) to a younger and less experienced person". He then says "Mentoring is a learning relationship which is broader than that in coaching. The latter is definitely skills or competency focused whereas the former is concerned with passing knowledge, insight and attitudes as well as skills". A mentor is usually not one's line manager but one higher and a person who has qualities that he passes unto a younger person 95 without the stress of accountability or boss-subordinate relationship being present. The following words of Cole capture the latter and spirit of the methods of coaching and mentoring very succinctly: Organizations that are using mentoring and coaching approaches their Management development are

attempting to gain added value from the Talents, experience and wisdom of their senior staff by encouraging them. To pass their store of experience to junior colleagues, and to do so in the Workplace rather than at a business school, staff college or some other External provider.

1.4.2 Delegation

Cole defines delegation as " ... essentially a power sharing process in which a manager transfers part of his or her authority to another, more junior person". The aim is to encourage practice by doing. In his words, Cole says "There are few better ways of assessing someone's suitability for a possible task than giving them a similar tasks and observing how well they perform". Coles ends his discuss on delegation by saying that "when delegation is backed up by mentoring and the support of the senior manager, it is likely to prove a powerful development tool".

1.4.3 Doing the work of a superior officer in his absence

For a number of reasons, a superior officer may be absent from office for a fairly long period of time and his subordinate may be required to perform his duties. Some of 'such reasons for absence may be annual leave, sickness, prolonged tour, etc. Such "acting for" duties offers a good opportunity for management development. In a number of instances, a subordinate does the work that has been "pending" and defying solution on the desk of his superior officer during such absences.

1.4.4 Other forms

A. G. Cole cites projects and secondments as opportunities for management development. Concerning projects, he says, staff could be sent as members of a special team put up to handle a special project. Participation on such projects avails a staff of special knowledge and skills not available on a regular job schedule. The same advantage can be derived from secondments, i.e. being put a job outside a regular job assignment. Similar to reassignments under unit 11, the aim to give more knowledge and skill by making staff do varied assignments. Concerning secondment, Cole concludes by saying "secondment is a good way of testing an individual's capacity for coping with a particular role".

Self-Assessment Exercise

List the various methods used for management development and discuss one of them in detail

1.5 Summary
This unit has covered the definition, scope and methods of management development.

1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
Cole, G.A (1997), Personnel Management: Theory and Practice (Fourth Edition), ELST, Letts Education, London.

1.7 Possible Answers to SAEs

List the various methods used for management development and discuss one of them in detail

Possible Answer:
The following methods are listed as methods of management development and one of them could be explained:
  i.   Coaching/guided experience
 ii.   Delegation
iii.   Doing the work of a superior officer in his absence
 iv.   Special Projects
  v.   Secondments

UNIT 3

MOTIVATION THEORIES

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

From the time that work ceased to be individual and family-based concerns, i.e. from the days the factory came into existence, the will to work began to decrease. Motivation theories are efforts at getting worker to do equal work for equal pay and to make workers do more work for more pay. Motivation theory, like personnel management as well as general management, has undergone evolution. In this unit, we shall examine the following motivation theories: Scientific Management Theory, The Human Relations Theory, The Behavioural Sciences Movement Theory, The Achievement Theory and Hertzberg Theory. We would see how each of these theories plays towards the motivation of a worker to do more work.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

•   State Frederick Taylor's Scientific Management Theory
•   List out the various components of scientific management
•   Explain each component of scientific management theory
•   Recognize what the human relations movement or approach is
•   Distinguish the human relations approach from the mechanistic approach
•   List and explain the various experiments that brought out these new "facts"
•   Identify the behavioural science approach to motivation

- Identify the contributions of Abraham Maslow and Douglas McGregor to this approach
- List and explain the various steps in Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs
- Distinguish between McGregor's theory X and theory Y
- Recognize McClelland's Need for "Achievement Theory
- List the factors present in a person who has a high need for achievement
- List what a person with a high need for achievement does
- Identify method for creating a high need for achievement in one who does not have it
- Identify the basis of Hertzberg's theory
- List the hygiene factors in Hertzber's theory
- List the motivation factors in Hertzber's theory
- Explain why hygiene factors do not motivate

1.3 Scientific Management Theory

This is the brain-child of Frederick Taylor giving his early history. Henry Albers said:
Taylor was born in German town, Pennsylvania in 1856. He attended school in France and Germany and travelled extensively in Europe. As a result of poor eyesight, this first-rate scholar was forced to take up appointment as a labourer rather than take up studies at College, the entrance into which he had passed with "honours' although he started as a labourer, Taylor, according to McKinney and Howard, at different times, was a Mechanical Engineer, a production specialist, a business executive and a consultant. Scientific Management meant quite a number of things. For instance, McKinney and Howard identify three outstanding contributions of Taylor i.e. (1) he applied the analytical and scientific approach to improving production methods; (2) he popularized the view that management could be systematically organized as a body of knowledge that could be taught and learnt; (3) he introduced the concept of functional supervision. However, the aspect of Taylor's work that is of common purpose to us here is that which relates to motivation. These are the ones which McKinney and Howard classify as (1) the scientific education and development of workers and managers; (2) the intimate friendly cooperation between management and workers. Referring to this motivation aspect of Taylor's work, Bratton and Gold say that "Taylor was appalled by what he regarded as inefficient practices and the tendency of workers not to put in a full day's work - what Taylor called `natural soldering.'  Bratton and Gold further said that Taylor "...saw workers who do manual work to be motivated by money, the "greedy robot, and to be too stupid to develop the `one best way' of doing a task."

1.3.1 Nature of workers and how to motivate them under the scientific management way

McKinney and Howard say that "In Taylor's view, humans are rational economic beings; thus, the best way to motivate them is by incentives". Also, they maintain that "In Taylor's view, people are malleable and can be manipulated by pay incentives and cooperative friendly relationships into greater productivity". These views of human beings were experimented upon and to a great extent, he was proved correct. Before we report the result of some of his experiments, let us show you the ways he said human beings should be handled for greater productivity. (l) Taylor suggested that each worker should be (scientifically) selected and trained for the job for which he or she is best suited. (2) He suggested that a careful study should be made of the worker's body movements to discover the one best method for performing an activity in the shortest time possible. (3) Workers should be paid according to their individual output. The following two experiments and their results show the success of the motivation aspect in Taylor's scientific management theory. (a) The Bethlehem Experiments. "Pig Iron handling" Albers reports that at Bethlehem (Pennsylvania) steel company, a group of 75 men were involved in loading pig iron. Before the intervention of Taylor's methods, each man loaded about 12 -' /2 long tons of pig iron per day. He reported that "A fourfold increase in output resulted from a scientific study of pig iron handling, a better selection of workmen, and training workers in the improved methods". After a series of experiments, Taylor arrived at the fact that a man should be able to handle 47 -' /2 long tons per day. In order to do this much work, Taylor worked into his experiment a rest period of about 57% of the time. With this done, he succeeded in getting a subsequently all men in the gag of workers to handle 47 -' /2 long tons of pig iron per day. An economic incentive followed as rather than $1.15 per day, the average wage rose to $1.85 per day. (b) Another experiment he performed was in connection with shovelling of coal. Before Taylor's intervention, each worker brought his own shovel. Taylor's experiment brought about the factory supplying shovels and the matching of men with appropriate shovel size and length. The end result was in the words of Albers, "phenomenal". As a result of the success of the Taylor's experiments: The number of yard labourers were reduced from between 400 and 600 to 140. The average number of tons handled by each man per day increased from 16 to 59; handling cost per ton decreased from 7.2 to 3.3 cents......... and increase in wages from $ 1.15 per day to $ 1

1.3.2 Planning in Scientific Managements

Scientific management did separate the planning function for that of the doing function. The former the responsibility of management and the latter that of the worker. The rationale for this, Henry Albers recounts in Taylor's words thus: All of the planning which under the old system was done workman, as a result of his personal experience, must of necessity under the new system be done by the management in accordance with the laws of science; because even if the workman was well suited to development and use of scientific data, it would be physically impossible for him to work at his machine and at a desk at the same time. It is also clear that in most cases that one type of man is needed to plan ahead and an entirely different Type to execute the work. 3.2.1 Scientific

Management and human behaviour According to Henry Albers, "Taylor's ideas on cooperation were predicated on the assumption that the primary interest of management and the worker is economic gain in the form of lower labour costs and higher wages". In Taylor's view, once the worker became aware of the great advantages of scientific management, he would acquire "a friendly mental attitude towards employers and his whole working conditions"'. As much as possible Taylor attempted to isolate worker from believing that if they come together, they would unionize and create problem for management. Scientific management was based solely on the individual worker who, in Taylor's vievti- was motivated by the love of money to work. Thus, to him (Taylor) either unions (collective bargaining) nor negotiation should be allowed to determine working conditions or working hours. These decisions were the prerogative of management. The strength to lay behind the dynamics of human behaviour in organizations were to await another set of experiment which would begin at Hawthorne in 1924 and which is the issue to be discussed in unit 13 that follows. 3.2.3 Others in the Scientific Management Movement Taylor was not alone in development of the scientific management theory. He was the father of it all right but other joined him and some carried it on after him. Prominent amongst these are their contributions are as follows: 101 (a) Henry L. Gantt. He was an associate of Taylor. His own contribution in the area of motivation was, in the words of Robert J. Thierauf et.al. "he contributed to the scientific approach by considering the human aspect of management's attitude toward labor. The creation of the personnel department was recommended by Gantt as an integral part of Taylor's scientific approach". (b) The Gilbreths. The contribution of Frank B. Gilbreth and Lillian E. Ginreth was in the area of motion and time studies which they did to an almost unbelievably high degree of minuteness and reliability. (c) Harrington Emerson. He was best known for his "betterment work". He did not contribute in the areas of motivation. (d) Morris L. Cooke. He is noted for introducing time and motion studies into the public sector i.e. municipal government. He is reputed to have instituted effective cost reducing policies among the various government agencies. In the area of motivation or personnel management in general, he is said to be responsible for introducing increased job security and workmen's benefits into government service. (e) Concluding the contribution of the scientific management approach to motivation, Thierauf et-al, noted: By the mid twentieth century, Taylor's `scientific management revolution' had been accomplished. Scientific management had come to include such diverse activities as industrial psychology, job evaluation, employee training, personnel administration, and the entire field of industrial relations. Work simplification, by which a job and the required motions are analysed to make the job easier to perform, is based in part on motion and time studies. So are work study, work improvement, and work sampling. All these activities have a common goal raising production standards by cutting costs and effort and by improving employer employee relations.

1.4 The Human Relations Movement
- Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Experiments.

You will recall that Frederick Taylor is regarded as the father of the scientific management approach. Elton Mayo is generally accepted as the father of this approach or this school of thought. Amitai Etzioni says "John Dewey indirectly and Kurt Lewin most directly also contributed much to its initiation". Also you will recall that most of the experiments of the mechanistic approach of Taylor's scientific management theory took place in a steel works in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. The human relations approach was borne out of a reaction to the classical, formal approach, amongst which our mechanistic approach is notable, He then graphically "unsays" what the former had said thus amongst others: " (1) the amount of work carried out by a worker (and hence the organizational level of efficiency and rationality) is not determined by his physical capacity but by his social `capacity': (2) non-economic rewards play a central role in determining the motivation and happiness of the worker" and so on and so forth. The first of the studies of the human relations approach took place at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Works in Chicago, Illinois from 1927 to 1932, as a result of which they have come to be known as the Hawthorne studies. To make it clear to you, we shall take one experiment after the other, state its hypothesis, say briefly how it was conducted and give its finding(s).

1.5 The Illumination Studies

The aim of this experiment was to test the effect of increased (or decreased) illumination on workers' performance. You will recall that the mechanistic approach had said that the performance of workers depended on conduciveness of the physical environment in which they worked. Indeed, this was why Taylor went into the details he did in designing shovels to fit each "size" of worker. Using the theories of scientific management. The Hawthorne studies proposed a hypothesis, or made a prediction that better illumination would result in increased productivity -just as a more appropriate shovel was to increase productivity in a shovelling coal. The result of this experiment was that, the investigators were amazed to find that no relationship existed between these two variables, illumination and productivity. In fact, in one of the studies, the results indicated productivity continued to increase even when illumination was decreasing. It only dropped off after the light became so dim that workers could not see properly. You may also recall that under scientific management, Taylor had said that a worker produced much more when he was given a rest break of 57% of the time. At Hawthorne, 5 workers were taken out of a group of workers on the same job for the purpose of experiment. They were put in a special room with a special working condition - this condition was that unlike the large work group, they (these 5) were given rest breaks. It varied from 5 minutes to 10 to 15 minutes. The result was in the words of Etzioni. that "while the rate of production showed a fairly consistent and general increase, it was related to increases in the rest breaks and hence could not be attributed to them". Further, "this fact was surprisingly demonstrated when after the rest breaks were abolished at the end of the experiments, and the longer "fatiguing" work day was restored, production continued

higher in the experiment (5 worker group) than the general factory rate". The conclusion was that "there was ` .... no evidence in support of the hypothesis that the increased output rate ...was due to relief from fatigue". These findings became the bases for another set of hypothesis for further study. The new hypothesis was that "increased production was the result of the changed social situation of the workers, modification in their level of psychological satisfaction, and new patterns of social interaction, brought about by putting them into the experiment room and the special attention involved". This new hypothesis led to the most involving of the Hawthorne studies.

1.6 The Bent Wiring Room Experiment

Under scientific management, all efforts were made to keep worker from work. At the time of this experiment, worker groups were already in existence and had made ineffectual the pay system which management had set up. Etzioni says, "The workers were producing far less than they were physically capable of, they were following a social norm enforced by their co-workers which defined the proper amount of production, rather than trying to fill the quota management thought they could achieve even though this quota allowed workers to earn as much as they physically could. The phrase `artificial restriction of output' was coined by observers of this phenomenon, to contrast it with the `natural' output that was physically possible". The bank wiring experiment consisted of 14 workers who worked for 6 weeks. The condition set to guide their output was that the workers were paid individual hourly rates based on their individual average output plus a bonus that was determined by the average group output. In line with Taylor's 106 theories on incentives, the managerial assumptions were that the workers would work as much as, people since that would bring the individual worker more money, and that the group would cooperate and produce more to earn more money. In practice however, the men set a norm for what constituted the day's work and anyone who "broke" the rules was ridiculed for being a "speed king" or "rate buster" if he exceeded the group norm or labelled as a "chiseller" if he performed far below expectation. At the end of the experiments, the following, in the words of Amitai Etzioni, are the findings and conclusions of the Hawthome; (1) The level of production is set by social norms, not by physiological capacities. (2) Non-economic rewards and sanctions significantly affect the behaviour of the workers and largely limit the effect of economic incentive plans. In the experiments above, two rewards and sanctions which are symbolic rather than material, were particularly powerful. Workers who did confirm to the group norms lost the affection and respect of their co-workers and friends. It was found in the wiring room experiment that all the workers preferred the amicable relations with their friends to making more money. Although Amitai Etzioni reported that a later study by Melville Dalton point to the fact that it is not always the case, it did not debunk the Hawthorne findings. Later studies by Dalton found that "those who were `rate busters' were individuals whose education and social experience taught them how to get along with less affection and respect, at least in the work context". Dalton also found that Catholics were fewer rate busters than Protestants. This is based on the belief that

Catholics are more "sociable" and sensitive to affection and respect of others while Protestants are believed to be more self-oriented. Dalton also found that the rate busters "often grew up on farms or in small towns, while the conformers came from big cities where they learnt loyalty to their peer groups in street gangs". One other non-economic factor that influence the rate of production of the workers was their belief - that if they worked harder and thus produced more, their pay rates would be reduced, and that if they did not produce a given amount, they would be unfair to management and might be fired. Meanwhile, management had not given optimum rate of production it expected from workers, although it desired increased production. Thus, in the words of Etzioni they influenced, if not determined, the level of production in the factory". Often, workers do not act or react as individuals but as members of groups. A group norm is set by the group and individuals deviated from it and are penalized by their workers. The importance of Leadership for setting and enforcing group norms and the difference between informal and formal leadership constitutes another major modification of scientific management caused by these studies. Scientific management placed the onus of getting things done on the foreman and supervisors. In the wiring room experiment one of the workers emerged as an informal leader in the group. He was the most liked. It was he whose advised was solicited. In the analysis, he helped the workers to function as a group. This is the human relation approach.

It is in many ways diametrically opposed to the scientific management approach.

13.7 The work of Douglas McGregor

-The Behavioural Sciences Movement

The work of Douglas McGregor, to put it in its proper context, the work of Douglas McGregor is classified under a movement called "industrial humanism" and it is a standing between the human relations movement and that of the behavioural scientists. As we shall see later, so closed was the industrial humanism movement to that of the behavioural scientists' that McGregor's theory Y was born as a result of the work of the behavioural scientists. Robert

J. Thierauf and his associates, giving account of the humanism movement, regard Douglas McGregor as the father of the movement. They said: Early in 1960, a movement called `industrial humanism arose ....The leader of this movement was Douglas McGregor. Although he died in 1964 before his work as fully developed, his contributions - in particular those set forth in his well-known book, The Human side of Enterprise - were instrumental in furthering the movement. At the time McGregor postulated his theory X and theory Y, organizations operated under the mechanistic theory which was propelled by Taylor's scientific management theory. McGregor found, in addition to what was the main tenet of the mechanistic theory, that it operated with an underlying assumptions concerning man. These are the assumptions which gave rise to McGregor's theory X. Let us now show you what theory X is.

1.8 The Conventional View - Theory X

The conventional conception of management's task in harnessing human energy to organizational requirements, McGregor says, can be stated broadly in terms of three propositions which for ease of reference be called theory X. Under this, (1) Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise - money, materials, equipment, people - in the interest of economic ends. (2) With respect to people, this is a process of directing their efforts, motivating them, controlling their actions, modifying their behaviour to fit the needs of the organization. (3) Without this active intervention by management, people would be passive - even resistant - to organizational needs. They must therefore, be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled - their actions must be directed - this is the task of management of getting things done through other people. Behind this theory, there are several assumptions though less explicit, but widespread, nevertheless. (1) The average man is by nature indolent - he works as little as possible. (2) He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led. (3) He is inherently self-centred, indifferent to organization needs. (4) He is by nature resistant to change. (5) He is gullible, not very bright. Conventional organizational structures and management policies, practices, and programmes reflect these assumptions. Using these assumptions as guides management has tried two options to control and direct human behaviour - the hard and soft approaches. The hard approach involves coercion and threat (usually distinguished), close supervision, and tight controls over behaviour the modern day Nigeria, such hard approaches will be exemplified by such acts as locking out late-comers to office, getting subordinates to obtain permission every time they go out of the office and ensuring that they return at a given time, issuing query for every slip made, meting out punishments such as written warnings, cut in salaries. suspensions reductions in rank etc., for every offence, according to law. The soft approach is a method involving being permissive, satisfying people's demands, achieving harmony. The soft approach is typified by listening to staff and waiving punishment particularly on compassionate grounds. For example, an employee is absent from duty without leave and the law says he is to be disciplined in a given way, but the boss waives this punishment because the employee had to take his sick wife to hospital or the like. The soft approach also entails listening to suggestions on work and work procedures made by subordinates and "giving in" to such suggestions if found workable. In the final analysis the soft approach is all that gives impression of weak leadership. Both the hard and soft approaches have met with difficulties. In the hard approach, it has been found that force breeds counter-force in form of restriction of output, antagonism, militant unionism subtle effective sabotage of management objectives. The soft approach leads frequently to the abdication of management, to indifferent performance. People take advantage of it, constantly expecting more but giving less and less. Some try to tread the middle course by preaching the doctrine of "firm and fair" in an attempt to take advantage of both the hard and soft approaches. It was discovered that social science findings challenged this whole set of beliefs about men and human nature and about the task of management. The social scientist does not deny that human behaviour in organization is approximately what management perceives it to be. But he is pretty sure that this behaviour is not a consequence of man's inherent nature. It is a consequence rather of the nature of

industrial organizations, of management philosophy, policy and practice. The conventional approach of theory X is based on mistaken notions of "what is cause" and "what is effect." To explain this, McGregor used the findings of Maslow on the hierarchy of needs, which summarized as thus: (1) Physiological Needs, as is already too well known, these are needs for food and drink and even air to breath - which only become motivators of behaviour when man is deprived of them. (2) Safety Needs, when the physiological needs are satisfied, the safety needs emerge. They are needs for protection against danger, threat, deprivation. They include need for secured jobs and steady income. (3) Social Needs, these are needs for belonging, for association, for acceptance by one's fellows, for giving and receiving friendship and love. They become important after the first two level needs have been fulfilled. (4) Ego Needs, above the social needs - in that, they do not become motivators until lower needs are reasonably satisfied - are the needs of significance to management and to man himself. They are the egoistic needs, and they are of two kinds: (a) Those needs that relate to one's self esteem needs for self confidence for independence, for achievement, for competence, for knowledge. (b) Those needs that relate to one's reputation - needs for status, for recognition, for appreciation, for the deserved respect of one's fellows. Unlike lower needs, these are rarely satisfied; man seeks indefinitely for more satisfaction of these needs once they have become important to him. However, the typical industrial organization offers few opportunities for the satisfaction of these needs to people at lower level in the hierarchy. The conventional methods of organizing work, particularly in mass-production industries give little heed to these aspect of human motivation. (5) Self-fulfilment Needs Finally, a capstone on the hierarchy of man's needs, are what we may call the needs for self-fulfilment. These are needs for realizing one's own potentialities, for continued self-development, for being creative in the broadest sense of this term. Modern life gives only limited opportunity for these relatively weak needs to obtain expression. The deprivation most people experience with respect to other lower level needs diverts their energies into the struggle to satisfy these needs, and the needs for self-fulfilment remain dormant. (6) Management and Motivation, McGregor notes that the man whose needs for safety, association, independence or status are thwarted is sick, and his sickness will have behavioural consequence. We will be mistaken if we attribute his resultant passivity, his hostility, his refusal to accept responsibility, to his inherent "human nature". These forms of behaviour are systems of illness - of deprivation of his social and egoistic needs. The man whose lower - level needs are satisfied is not motivated to satisfy these needs any longer. Management often asks, "why aren't people more productive? We pay good wages, provide good working conditions, have excellent fringe benefits and steady employment. Yet people do not seem to be willing to put forth more than minimum effort". The fact that management has provided for these physiological and safety needs has shifted the motivational emphasis to the social and perhaps to the egoistic needs. Unless there are opportunities at work to satisfy these higher- level needs, people will be deprived; and their behaviour will reflect this deprivation. Under such conditions. if management continues to focus its attention on physiological needs, its efforts are bound to be ineffective. McGregor says that people will make insistent demands for more

money under these conditions. It becomes more important than ever to buy the material goods and services which can provide limited satisfaction of the thwarted needs. Although money has only limited value in satisfying many higher level needs it can become the focus of attention if it is the only means available.

The Carrot-and-Stick Approach

The carrot-and-stick-theory of motivation, McGregor says, works reasonably well under certain circumstances. The means for satisfying man's physiological and (within limits) his safety needs can be provided or withheld by management. Employment itself is such a means, and so are wages, working conditions, and benefits. By these means, the individual can be controlled so long as he is struggling for subsistence. But the carrot-and-stick theory does not work at all once man has reached an adequate level of subsistence and is motivated primarily by higher needs. Management cannot provide a man with self-respect, or with respect of his follows, or with the satisfaction of needs for self-fulfilment. It can create such conditions that he is encouraged and enabled to seek such satisfaction for himself, or it can thwart him by failing to create these conditions. However, the creation of conditions is not in control. It is not a good device for directing behaviour. And so management finds itself in an odd position. The high standard of living created by our modern technology provides quite adequately for the satisfaction of' physiological and safety needs. But by making possible the satisfaction of low-level needs, management has deprived itself of the ability to use as motivators the devices on conventional theory has taught it to rely, i.e. rewards; promises, incentives, or threats and other coercive devices. The philosophy of management by direction and control, regardless whether it is hard or soft is inadequate to motivate because the human needs on which this approach relies are today unimportant motivators of behaviour. Direction and control are essentially useless in motivating people whose important needs are social and or egoistic. Both the hard and soft approaches fail today because they are simply irrelevant to the situation. People deprived of opportunities to satisfy at work the needs which are most important to them, behave exactly as we might predict - with indolence, passivity, resistance to change, lack of responsibility, unreasonably demands for economic benefits. It would seem that management is caught in a web of its own weaving. A New Theory of Management - Theory Y McGregor says that for these (above) and other reasons, with different theory of the task of managing people based on more adequate assumptions about human nature and human motivation. The broad dimensions of such a theory is what McGregor played bold to call "Theory Y". They are: (1) Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise - money, materials, equipment, people - in the interest of economic ends. (2) People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organizations. (3) The motivation, the potential for developing the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour toward organizational goals, are all present in people. Management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of management to make possible for people to recognize and develop

these human characteristics for themselves. 4) The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives. This is a process primarily of creating opportunities releasing potential, removing obstacles, encouraging growth, providing guidance. It is, as McGregor noted, what Peter Drucker has called "Management By Objectives", in contrast to "Management By Control". It does not involve the abdication of management, the absence of leadership. the lowering of standards, or the other characteristics usually associated with the "soft'" approach under theory X.

1.9 The Work of McClelland
-   **Achievement Theory**

We have examined the works of McGregor and Maslow among the behavioural science contributions to motivation theory. Here we are going to examine the contribution of McClelland. In his own case his theory was built on the concept of achievement. Christened Need for Achievement Theory, it linked motivation to an inborn (a trait) desire to achieve which some people have and some others do not have. The theory does not leave those who do not have in their desperation, it propounds a method by which the need for achievement can be cultivated. McClelland's theory of motivation is based on three major motives - the need for achievement and fear of failure, the need for power, and the need for affiliation. He said however that "most of McClelland's research and writing is based upon the first of these, the need for achievement (n-arch) The main tenet of n-arch is that, "it is said that there are two basic types of people: on the one hand, there are those who strive for success, challenged by opportunity and are willing to spare no effort in order to attain a desired goal. On the other hand, there are those who do not really care very much at all whether or not they are successful. That is to say, some people have an urge to achieve while others do not. So much has been the work on this that there exists a test used in assessing the achievement of need in people. One such test is known as the Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT). We shall not be going into what this is. It is sufficient here for us to note what years of study have revealed that people who have high needs for achievement display certain common characteristics" which are: (1) They set themselves goals which are moderately difficult to attain and pose a certain amount of challenge to their energy and resourcefulness. If goals are too easily achieved, they feel little sense of accomplishment. (2) People with high n-arch are attracted by work situations which allow them to take personal responsibility for goal achievement. Peter Blunt says further that "they have high confidence in their own abilities to accomplish moderately complex tasks, and feel that their chances of success are greater than most other people's. This inclines them to avoid committees and other work situations where they may be required to work towards goals other have set. Similarly, they are averse to gambling situations where they again have no personal control over outcomes" (3) Concrete feedback on performance is essential for people with high n-arch, so that they know how well they are doing. Where concrete feedback is not the

outcome of an effort, money is used as a surrogate. Thus people with high n-arch who go for money do so as a symbol of success not as a motivator, the motivator for high n-arch people is goal achievement. (4) People with high n-arch are more inquisitive about their environments.

1.10 Need for Achievement Theory and National Development

McClelland has extended this theory beyond individuals to nations. The "readers" that school children use have been assessed for n-arch contents. It was found that textbooks used by school children in India contain stories which are fatalistic and score very low on n-arch assessment, which accounts for that country's readers are rated high on n-arch assessments. An interesting account is given of Britain at two different times in history by McClelland. Using school children readers, Britain scored high on n-arch assessment in 1925 and that period coincided with a period when its economy did well. In 1950, it rated very low on n-ach going by school children's readers. This period also coincided with that of a loss in the enterprise in Britain. A pertinent issue to which fits into this section is the issue of the type of fictions that a nation produces and reads; the stories that the young ones of a nation are exposed to. We do not have too much information on this but we know vaguely that at a point in the United States of America, rather than tell (in writing or orally) folk-love on animals and birds etc, the nation's novelists went into "science fiction". These are highly imaginative and creative stories of how things ought to be but are not and possible ways to bring them about. There are writings like Alvin Toffler's Future Shock, ... 's The Age Afquarius, and so on. There are movies in cartoon form like Star Trek, etc. We are told that what is today the wonder machine - the computer was once the science fiction of an imaginative and creative writer. We know that folklore like the "Tortoise and the Hair's" "Agude Ego", "How the Fly lost his Tongue", the "Washerman Donkey", etc will continue to have their place in our "Tales by Moon Light". However, in order to hope to land a Nigerian on the moon or another celestial body someday, we have to go into imaginative and creative writing which by their nature score high on n-arch assessments. This is how to build a nation of "goal getter". Tomorrow's heroes are made of heroes about whom they read today, even in fiction.

How to increase n-Ach in people

McClelland has been part of team which designed a course for the purpose of increasing nach in people. The course had the following 4 aims: (1) The courses were designed to teach the participants how to think, talk and act like a person with high n-Ach. (2) The courses stimulated the participants to set higher but carefully planned and realistic work goals for themselves. (3) The courses utilized techniques for giving the participants knowledge about themselves (4) The courses created a group espirit-de-corps from learning about each other's hopes and fears, successes and failures and from going

through an emotional experience together. The need for training or for courses like this is that, as noted before, high n-Ach is there in a person or it is not there. If there; the individual thinks and acts in line with its dictates. If not there, the individual does not think and act in the way of high n-Ach man. That there is a possibility of its being taught and learnt, there is the possibility to turn a low n-Ach individual or a collectivity to a high n-Ach man or notion.

1.11 The Work of Frederick Hertzberg
- Hertzberg's theory and its scope
The work of Frederick Hertzberg which we shall consider in this sub-unit is yet another of the works of the behavioural scientists. He is popular in propounding a two factor theory of motivation - the hygiene factors and the motivator factors. What these concepts mean and what the theory states using them is what we are going to look at here.
What Hertzberg hygiene factors and which are extrinsic to the job, include: "company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status and security". What this means is that however good and however appealing these factors are to the employee, they cannot lead to satisfaction that will motivate him to work. The best they can do is to lead to a situation of "no dissatisfaction". Peter Blunt states
Hertzberg's theory "no dissatisfaction". You will understand it easier. He says that Hertzberg's theory consists of two general propositions as follows: (1) Individual motivation at work is a function of the intrinsic characteristics of the job which include: (a) Achievement, (b) Recognition, (c) Work itself, (d) Responsibility (e) Advancement (f) Personal development. These factors are referred to as motivators" On the other hand, the second proposition is: (2) Dissatisfaction at work is a function of a set of job conditions called hygiene factors. When operating to a sufficient degree, these factors prevent dissatisfaction, but they cannot act as motivators. Such factors include: (a) Salary (b) Job security (c) Working conditions (d) Personal life (e) Relationship with supervisors (f) Relationship with fellow workers and subordinates (g) Company policies (h) Fringe benefits. Peter Blunt says, inputting the theory down in its totality that, "The theory assets, then, that no matter how high a worker is paid or how good his working environment may be, this type of factor alone will not be sufficient to induce high levels of motivation or satisfaction. By the same respective of how interesting or how challenging a job might be (intrinsically motivating), there will be dissatisfaction if pay or conditions are inadequate". We will add here that such dissatisfaction notwithstanding, the employee stays motivated and performs.

Self-Assessment Exercise
List any five theories of motivation and explain any two in detail.

1.12 Summary

This unit has dealt with various motivation theories and how these affect the productivity of the worker at work.

1.13   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Albers, Henry H (1974), Principles of Management - A Modern Approach (Four
    Edition) John Wiley & Sons, N. York.
Bratton, John and Gold, Jeffrey, (1999), Human Resource Management - Theory and
    Practice (Second Edition) Macmillan Business
McKinney, Jerome B. and Howard, Lawrence C. (1979), Public Administration:
    balancing power and accountability. Moore Publishing Company, Inc Oak Park,
Illinois. Thieruf, Robert J. Klekomp Robert C. Geeding Daniel, E. (1977)
    Management Principles   and Practices, John Wiley & Sons, Santa Barbara.

1.14 Possible Answers to SAEs

List any five theories of motivation and explain any two in detail.

Any five of the following could be listed as theories of motivation and explanation of any two of them could be given:
  i.   Scientific Management
 ii.   Human Relations Movement
iii.   Illumination
 iv.   Bent Wiring Room Experiment
  v.   Behavioural Sciences Movement
 vi.   Conventional View – Theory X
vii.   Work of Mcclelland (Achievement Theory
viii.   Hertzberg's Theory

UNIT 4
EMPLOYEE/INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Employee relations or industrial relations are the links that exist between employers and employees, the latter not as single individuals but collectivities known as Labour Unions or trade unions. This unit is concerned with such unions and examines what they are, how they are formed and how they operate.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
• 	Define a trade or a labour union
• 	Trace the origin and evolution of trade/labour unions in Nigeria
• 	List the functions of trade unions

1.3 Labour unions, definition and origin in Nigeria

Labour unions and trade unions mean the same thing and the two terms are used interchangeably. Thus defining this term, Edwin B. Flippo says: "A labour union or trade union is an association of workers formed to promote, protect, and improve, through collective action, the social, economic, and political interests of its members". Flippo adds that the "dominant interest with which the union is concerned is economic". And that "in this area desires and demands, for improved wages, hours, and working

conditions are foremost". E. E. Uvieghara on his own part defines trade union, (quoting from the Trade Union Decree, 1973) as "any combination of workers or employers, whether temporary or permanent, the purpose of which is to regulate the terms and conditions of employment of workers..." According to him, "the definition has only two important criteria for determining a trade union - (1) combination must be of workers or employers; (2) it must have the proper purpose: that of regulating the terms and conditions of the employment of workers".

- Origin of Trade Unions in Nigeria

In his book, Trade Union Law in Nigeria, E.E Uvieghara says that, "There is no evidence that trade unionism, as it is known today existed in any part of present day Nigeria earlier than 1912 when the Nigerian Civil Service Union was formed". As noted by Yesufu, and quoted by Uvieghara, numerous trade associations predated the Nigerian Civil Service Union, for example, organizations of hunters, blacksmiths, carvers and weavers. These, like a longer list provided by Elias, who also said that they had "... been associating together from very early times in order to regulate admission and expulsion from their respective associations and to lay down conditions under which persons were allowed to practice these professions, "as well as the Nupe blacksmiths, brass silversmiths, glass-makers, weavers, bead-workers, etc, were not the origins of the modern day trade unions. Rather, the origin of the modern day trade union in Nigeria was the Southern Nigerian Civil Service Union, which later became the Nigerian Civil Service Union and which was formed "to promote the welfare and interests of native members of the civil service". In 1931, the Railway Workers' Union and the Nigerian Union of Teachers were formed. This was the origin of unionism in Nigeria. Whereas, talking about the early Nigerian Civil
Service Union, Mr. `Wogu Ananaba, quoted by Uvieghara said, "The Nigerian Civil Service Union was `was hardly a trade union as trade unions are known today; it was more or less a petition-writing body heard only when a crisis was developing or an important official was retiring or proceeding on transfer or coming to assume duty", the Nigerian Union of Teachers was the best-run and well organized. It had the following aims, among others: (i) to study, promote and improve conditions affecting the teaching profession in Nigeria; (ii) to submit to government the opinions of teachers on matters directly or indirectly affecting the teaching profession in Nigeria. (iii) to cooperate with the Education Department and various missionary bodies on matters relating to education. As can be seen from these aims and what is said about trade unions in the definition above, modern trade unionism had started.

1.3.1 Types of trade unions

Edwin B. Flippo notes that there are two types of labour unions, the industrial and the craft, and that these are often referred to as the horizontal, respectively. Flippo says that the industrial union "is vertical in the sense that it includes all workers in a particular

company or industry regardless of occupation". Giving examples of such unions he cites the "United Automobile Workers and the United Steel Workers" - both of the USA. Nigerian examples will include the United Textile Workers and the already much talked about, Nigerian Civil Service Union. In the words of Flippo, "The horizontal or craft union is an organization that cuts across many companies and industries. Its members belong to one craft or to a closely related group of occupations". Examples of such are the Union of Typists, and the already mentioned Nigerian Union of Teachers, as well as Nigerian Union of Journalists. Talking about types of trade union we would like to cap it up with the growth and existence of central labour organizations in Nigeria. By 1942 when the first central labour organization came into existence there were already over 50 (fifty) unions. In an introductory remark to the growth of a central labor organization, Uvieghara gives the reason for it as disunity and chaos that had pervaded the trade unions in the country. He said: "The history of the growth and development of labour centres in the Nigerian trade union movement shows, more than anything else, the disunity and utter chaos which have plagued the movement soon after what may be regarded as a healthy start". He cites as concrete problems of the movement, the inability to "fashion for themselves a working man's creed; (and that) it was the story of constant allegations of greed and avarice, dishonesty and corruption, incompetence and indifference of a leadership clique and of an apathetic and inert rank and file". These were the problems which led, in 1941 to "representatives of some unions - the Railway

Workers' Union, the Nigerian Marine African Workers' Union and the Public Works Department

Workers' Union -(meeting and 130 founding) the African Civil Servants Technical Workers' Union" which was the nucleus of the first central labor organization in Nigeria. In 1942, it metamorphosed into the Federated Trades Onion of Nigeria, the first ever truly central labor body in Nigeria. The following year, it became the Trade Union Congress (TUC) with the following aims, among others; (i) to unite all trade unions into one organized body (ii) to deal with general labour problems affecting workers in the country (iii) to protect the legal status of and rights of trade union organizations (iv) to help with the proper organization of trade unions. Etc. The T.U.C bedevilled by political ambitions got disunited into three different organizations - the Nigerian National Federation of Labour, the Federation of Government and Municipal Nonclerical Workers' Union, and the remnants of the T.U.C. It is these 3 which, in the words of Uvieghara, in April, 1950 "...sank their identities" into the then new Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) as we know it today.

1.4 Public Servants and Unionism

Although as noted above, trade union in Nigeria started from the service, not all civil or public servants are permitted to unionize or take part in trade union activities. Writing on this, and using the then constitution of the land, Akin Emiola said: "In spite of the provisions of section 37 of the Nigerian Constitution and section 12 of the Trade Unions Act, some categories of public officers are, however, denied either express statutory

provisions or by necessary implications the right to join a trade union or participate in trade union activities". The category of public officers so exclude persons employed in the police, the prison and armed services; the customs preventive service, employees of the security section of the Nigerian Security Printing and Minting Company. The same provision is extended to employees of the Central Bank of Nigeria as well as to workers of the Nigerian External Telecommunications Limited. Emiola said, concerning this exclusion list that "In fact, the staff of any service - be it of Federal or of state government - authorized to bear arms are all prohibited from being members of, or taking part in, the activities of a trade union". Emiola says two more things touching, the prohibition of certain members of the public service from unionism. Firstly, he says: "The categories of workers prohibited in this way are not closed. The minister of Labour is empowered to specify by regulations, 'other establishments.... from time to time' whose staff may be brought with in the provision prohibiting them from belonging to, or taking part in, the activities of a trade union". Secondly, according to Emiola, "...the Trade Unions Act applies to a limited scale and job categories in the public service. It follows that ...there are apparently certain scale or job grades within the enumerated services to which the Act does not apply and who are for the same reason outside the prohibition". He says that. "It is pertinent, of course, to say that ...the Act still preserves the right of the affected classes of workers to take part in the setting up of joint consultative bodies in the establishments concerned. Such bodies cannot, however, be brought within the definition of 'trade union' and are in no way substitutes for trade unions".

1.5 Labour negotiations in the public service

Emiola says that strikes or positive industrial actions are "far-fetched in the traditional public services". When there has been need for negotiations, as there was following the strike by the railway workers in 1945, the method the government used was negotiation through Whitley councils. Explaining what these councils are, Emiola said: "Whitleyism is a legacy inherited from the British system of industrial relations". Discussing Whitley councils, O. Glenn Stahl said that they are "...an elaborate plan of joint industrial councils, named after J. H. Whitley, their founder, in 1919. These are councils made up of equal representation of management and worker and providing the machinery through which in the words of Stahl, "virtually all phases of public personnel policy are discussed and the contending interest ameliorate' Giving an account of how well the Whitley councils in Britain, Glenn Stahl states: "In the early years its existence, the National {Whitley} Council made a number of significant achievements, including adoption of a plan reclassifying the whole service, acceptance of a cost-of-living bonus system, the creation of promotion boards in the departments, and the facilitation of transfers". Much later, Stahl says, emphasis shifted to the departmental councils which concerned themselves with the day-to-day problems of administration. In general, Whitleyism was a success in Britain as concluded by Stahl thus "Nevertheless, there seems to be a consensus among British and American authorities that Whitleyism has been a success in the British public service". What could be said about Whitleyism in Britain could not

however be said about its Nigerian counterpart. Emiola, reviewing the performance of the Whitley Councils in amended thus: "However, the system of negotiating wages and conditions of service through the Whitley Councils turned out to be a lame duck". Quoting Professor Adeogun, Emiola says "It is clear that collective bargaining between the government and their employees through the Whitley Councils has hardly been effective ... It seems very odd that despite the establishment of Whitley Councils since 1948 for negotiations between government and its employees, practically every major demand by workers for wage increase or review since the second world war has been settled, not through collective industrial machinery but by special committees, commissions or arbitrations". When you hear of such commissions as the Gorsuch Commission, the Harragin Commission, the Mbanefo Commission, the Adebo Commission and the most popular, the Udoji Commission, they all were put in place to settle some labor issues, especially salary increases/reviews. The ineffectiveness of the Whitley Councils gave birth not only to commissions, tribunals and committees but to some active bargaining mechanisms which are the issues we shall consider in the next unit.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Explain the concept of labour union or trade union

1.6 Summary

This unit has dealt with one section of a two-part subject - trade unionism. The next section deals with collective bargaining.

1.7   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Emiola, Akin (1985), Public Servant and the Law, University of Ife Press 133 Flippo
        Edwin B. (1984), Personnel Management (Sixth Edition), McGrawHill Book Company, New
        York.
Stahl, Glenn O (1962) Public Personnel Administration (Fifth Edition) Harper & Row Publishers, New York

1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

Explain the concept of labour union or trade union

A labor union or trade union is an association of workers formed to promote, protect, and improve, through collective action, the social, economic, and political interests of its members. The dominant interest with which the union is concerned is economic. And that in this area desires and demands, for improved wages, hours, and working conditions are foremost. A trade union is any combination of workers or employers, whether temporary or permanent, the purpose of which is to regulate the terms and conditions of employment of workers. There are basically only two important criteria for determining a trade union - (1) combination must be of workers or employers; (2) it must have the proper purpose: that of regulating the terms and conditions of the employment of workers.

UNIT 5
COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

You will discover here that the traditional methods of doing business with one's workers in an organization in which management decides on what to do and merely informs worker is now out of date. Writing on the subject of collective bargaining, Edwin B. Flippo notes that "The National Relations Act (of the USA) specifies that it is an unfair labour practice for the employer to refuse to bargain collectively with chosen representatives of a certified labour organization". By the same token, "The Labour Management Relations Act specifies that it is an unfair practice for the representatives of a labour organization to refuse to bargain in good faith with the employer'". This is now the mandatory nature of collective bargaining that we examine here.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
•   Define collective bargaining
•   Identify the processes of collective bargaining
•   Identify and be able to apply the strategy of bargaining
•   Recognize and be able to apply the various union bargaining pressures

1.3 Definition and Scope

According to Edwin B. Flippo, collective bargaining is a process in which representatives of two groups meet and attempt to negotiate an agreement that specifies the nature of future relationships between the two. Flippo emphasizes this definition by saying that "On subjects where bargaining is required by law, the employer is no longer free to make and enforce unilateral decisions. And on matters not so legally mandated, the employer is influenced by such risks as strikes, slowdown, and withholding of cooperative efforts".

1.4 The processes of collective bargaining

The pre- negotiation phase to a labour organization, full time negotiation is its business. On the contrary, in the words of Flippo, "The company, whose major objective is production and distribution of an economic good can ill afford to consider collective bargaining as a fringe duty that merits little special attention. Negotiations between unions and employers end up in contracts and contracts are valid for certain periods only. Flippo notes that the signing of a particular contract signals the beginning of the preparation for the next. This is the time to begin to assemble data e.g. facts and figures on wages, hours, pensions, vacations, etc. for use in the negotiation for the next contract.

1.5 Negotiating teams

On the side of the employer, it is usual to have a team or a committee. This broadens the base of participation. It is also usual to have a representative. In order to leave some room for reflections on point at issue, the chief executive of the organization is usually not included in negotiating team. On the side of the union, the team usually includes local officials of the union, some employees of the organization and "representatives of international union". Most of the union bargainers are full time specialists in the art of bargaining and negotiating with various managements.

1.6 Strategies for bargaining

Flippo opens discussion under this heading by making the following remark: "Because of the considerable importance of the labour agreement, it essential for management to plan its strategy and tactics carefully preparation for the bargaining sessions'". Strategy involves mapping out the plan and deciding on the policy which will guide the organization in the bargaining process. The union on its own part also does the same thing - it maps out its plans and decides on guiding principles. What follows at a real collective bargaining session is very similar to the bargaining that a buyer and seller engage in our markets. Before management enters the conference room for bargaining its negotiators must agree on the maximum concessions that can be granted to anticipated demands of the union. Often the union files it demands in advance of the meeting. The company must know the point above which it will not go, preferring to risk a strike instead. For example, management will not go beyond a 10% wage offer and union will

not accept a less than 8% wage increase. But as can be seen, and similar to the bargains you must have been engaged in our markets, union, ready to settle for 8% wage increase in the final analysis, starts its bargain by demanding 16%. Management on its own part, willing, in the final analysis to go as far as to accept a 10% wage increase for the workers, starts negotiation by offering only 4%. The usual process of giving and taking then plays itself out until union settles for nothing less than 8% increase and management offers nothing more than 10% salary increase. In collective bargaining, Flippo advises that an organization's strategic plan could include the following: 1. Avoid mutual agreement clauses that would prevent management action. Management should retain the right to manage the subject to challenges by the union under the contract. 2. Keep one's eyes on the entire package. A work procedure concession may eventually cost more than a substantial pay increase. 3. Keep the company personnel informed of the progress of bargaining sessions. Supervisors must be involved, and union members are also employees. Develop agreements where the union leaders can always maintain that they "won". Union leaders have to run for reduction on their record and management can more frequently afford the appearance of having "lost". 5. Determine the point at which the organization is willing for the union to go on strike. The union is fully aware of the fact that frequently used in its "threat" form. Management must adopt a basic attitude of not being afraid of a strike.

1.7 Union Bargaining Pressures

On their own part, labour unions have strategies and tactics which they employ in extracting greater concessions from management. The strategies used by management as discussed above are also used by unions. In addition, there are certain stronger types of pressures available to unions. These are strikes, picketing and boycotts, and they will be discussed briefly here.

1.7.1 Strikes

Flippo defines a strike as " .... a concerted and temporary withholding of employee services from the employer for the purpose of exacting greater concessions in the employment relationship than the employer is willing to grant at the bargaining table". He says further that the possibility of a strike is the ultimate economic force that the union can bring to bear upon employer. Without the possibility of a strike in the background, there can be no true collective bargaining. There are various types of strikes. The most important to you here are listed and explained below' taken from Flippo: 1. Recognition strike - this is a strike to force the employer to recognize and deal with the union. 2. Economic strike - this is the typical strike, based on a demand for better wages. hours, and working conditions than the employer is willing to give.

1.7.2 Wildcat strike

These are the quick, sudden and unauthorized types of work stoppages. Such strikes are not approved by union leadership and are contrary to the labor agreement. They are sometimes viewed as a form of "fractional bargaining" by a subgroup of employees who have not achieved satisfaction through regular grievance processing or collective bargaining procedures.

1.7.3 Sit-down strike

This is when the employees strike but remain at their jobs in the organization. Such strikes are illegal since they constitute an invasion of private property. Employees are free to strike for certain objectives but they must physically withdraw from the organization's premises.

1.7.4 Picketing

Picketing is the patrolling of strikers in front of the entrance of organization's premises in order to ensure total work stoppage. If employer accepts the strike and shuts down the organization, such picketing will be routine and peaceful. However, if the employer attempts to use nonstriking workers or any other to keep the organization "going" the picketing might turn violent as strikers seek to prevent work at the factory. Picketing is legal. It's only illegality is when it turns violent and so steps should be taken by the employer and the union to prevent this.

1.7.5 Boycotts

Flippo discusses boycotts under the heading secondary boycotts. Perhaps, for their intentions, this is about the only way it makes sense to classify them. According to him "secondary boycott takes place when a union, which is seeking a concession from employer A, places pressure on employer B to influence employer A to grant the concession". This may entail the union attempting to make employer B and any others whose company has dealings with A refusing to deal with employer A until it grants the demand of its union. This works this way: - Organization A produces fast food which is purchased and consumed by organizations B, C and D. If the union in organization A succeeds in getting organizations B, C and D to boycott the food produced by A, A will be forced to shut down. To avoid this, A may be forced to "give in" to the demands of its union.

1.7.6 The public servant and strikes

Citing certain provisions, the Trade Disputes Act 1976, Akin Emiola states that "...it is illegal for any public servant ... to call out their men on strike. Alluding to the same phenomenon in the USA, Flippo says "some have decried the prohibition of strikes by public employees as affecting a type of second-class citizenship". He gives a rationale for this ban by saying that "Others feel that public employment offers unusual degrees of job

security, for which the employees should be willing to give up some other economic rights". As noted earlier, the possibility of a strike is the ultimate economic force that the employee has in dealing with the employer. This is perhaps the reason behind Emiola's apprehension to the effect that "whether the provisions can, in fact, be enforced in practice is an entirely a different matter". He then goes on to cite the breaches of the provisions by saying: It is relevant to note that in spite of the purported ban on the right of the worker to strike or the employer to impose a lockout, teachers throughout Nigeria did engage in a successful nationwide strike in December 1978 in the same way as the Lagos State Government ordered a lockout of teachers in its teaching service in 1977 following the teachers withdrawing of labour". Of course strikes in the core public service, i.e. the civil service, here become so routine and so rampant that one has to completely agree with Emiola that "It will be seen that the provisions of the Act banning workers from positive industrial action are honoured in the breach than in observance."

Self-Assessment Exercise

(a) Define what is collective bargaining (b) Define strike and explain its types

1.8 Summary

Unit 15 which is a follow-up of unit 14 which discussed trade unions, has taken a look at one of the most important functions of trade collective bargaining. It has examined this concept from its pre-negotiation stage throughout to the final contract stage. The place of the public service in collective bargaining and strikes have been so examined.

1.9   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Emiola, Akin (1985), Public Servant and the Law, University of Ife Press Flippo, Edwin B

(1984) Personnel Management (Sixth Edition) McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

1.10 Possible Answers to SAEs

(a) Define what is collective bargaining (b) Define strike and explain its types

(a)   Collective bargaining is a process in which representatives of two groups meet and attempt to negotiate an agreement that specifies the nature of future relationships between

the two. The key words here should be "negotiation of agreement between two groups or parties".

(b)   Strike is a concerted and temporary withholding of employee services from the employer for the purpose of exacting greater concessions in the employment relationship than the employer is willing to grant at the bargaining table. Without the possibility of a strike in the background, there can be no true collective bargaining.

The following could be explained as types of strike: (1) Wildcat strike (2) Sit-down strike (3) Picketing (4) Boycotts

MODULE 4

UNIT 1
ETHICS IN PUBLIC SERVICE
Unit Structure

 1.1 Introduction

Ethics is inherent in man. This is why/how it is the concern of personnel management. It belongs to the evolutionary stage of the study of personnel management we have tagged the behavioural science movement. Whether one is courteous at work or not, whether one handles one's position in trust for the public or as a personal property, etc. are issues of ethical dimensions. This unit deals with what ethics is and the methods employed to get it ingrained in public and also private servants.

 1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:
•   Define ethics
•   Identify its significance in organizations
•   List attitudes which can be termed as good conduct

1.3 Definition and Scope

Ethics has been defined in the glossary at the end of the book by John Bratton and Jeffrey Gold as: The code of moral principles and values that governs the behaviour of individual or group with respect to what is right or wrong. The scope of ethics in organizations covers both management and leadership. Writing on the management aspect under the heading "Managing Ethically" Joseph W. Weiss says: "Business ethics is the art and discipline of applying ethical principles to examine and solve complex moral dilemmas. Business ethics asks, "what is right or wrong? Good or bad? in business transactions"

Talking of scope of ethics in organizations, Weiss gives an interesting set of statistics of top ethical issues. He says: "In an international survey, of 300 companies worldwide, over 80% of Chief Executive Officers and senior managers listed the following as the top ethical issues facing businesses: employee conflicting interests (91%) inappropriate gifts (91%) sexual harassment (91%), unauthorized payments (85%) and affirmative action issues (84%)" He also cites another sets of figures in a national survey of 1,400 working women which showed that " ... the most frequently occurring unethical practices in business include managers lying to employees; expense account abuses at high levels; nepotism and favouritism; and taking credit for other's work". Discussing the "Ethical dimensions of leadership", Weiss says that "leading effectively also means leading ethically and morally. He says that "While businesses expand over geographic and cultural boundaries, questions concerning the sense of right and wrong of leaders and followers in their business practices gain in importance". Ethical decisions are not easy to take as the question of right or wrong is so much "person-dependent". However, Weiss gives three criteria that define the limits of ethical reasoning, thus (1) Ethical reasoning should be logical; assumptions should be based on facts, and judgments made explicit. (2) Facts and evidence should be accurate, relevant and complete. And (3) Standards used in one's ethical reasoning should be consistent, if not, those standards should be modified".

1.4 Ethical principles

Weiss gives a list of ethical principles which might be of help to test the right or wrong of decisions or policies. They are:

1 Ethical relationship

He says under this that "Moral authority is based on individual or cultural self-interests customs, or religious principles". That, "An act is morally right if it serves the one's (or the culture's) self-interests, needs or standards". Whilst one who is in Rome is enjoined to do as the Romans do, one also has to give regard to one's national laws and moves. Weiss gives as an example, an intriguing case. He says: " ... at a cultural level, an American manager working in Mexico ...may be forced to choose between wining a contract

illegally by not following U.S standards or winning the contract by following local practices.

2. Utilitarianism

A morally or ethically sound decision or policy is the one that, judged on the basis of cost-benefit analysis, the benefits exceed the cost for the majority of people.

3.   Rights

The principle of utilitarianism above notwithstanding, moral and ethical authority is based on the "...inalienable rights and entitlements of individuals or groups guaranteed to all in their pursuit of freedom of speech, choice, happiness, and self-respect". A manager who overlooks the rights of even one individual or group jeopardize the implementation of a decision, policy or procedure.

4.   Universalism

Weiss says that "Moral authority is based on the extent to which the intention of an act treats all persons as ends (not means) in themselves and with respect". This rule enjoins managers to give individuals unique treatment if their cases so demand and that they be not treated as a statistic.

5.   Justice

Weiss, on this principle says: "Moral authority is based on the extent to which opportunity, wealth, and burden are fairly distributed among all. Here, fairness and equity govern the decision". He then notes that "Justice has three components: procedural (how rules, procedures, and the means of distributing burden and wealth are determined). compensatory (how fairly people are compensated for injustices done to them), and distributive (does the punishment fit the crime?)". Weiss says that leaders can use these principles to understand their underlying ethics in their policies, procedures and decisions.

1.5 The Practice of Ethics

In a chapter titled "Code of ethics on Government Service", the Civil Service Handbook, an official manner (issued by the Federal Ministry of Establishments and Service Matters. A number of "how-to-do" things (ethically) is given. We shall give you some of them here. (1) Discipline - Here it enjoins the civil services in the country to be disciplined, to obey rules and regulations and ensure that the interest of the service is paramount in whatever is done. It calls on senior officers to prescribe codes of conduct which they themselves can and should comply with. It says that "Those who wish to lead other people should always remember that effective leadership involves exemplary character, hard work and transparent integrity. (2). Good conduct and ideals - Under this heading,

the following issues are discussed, among others: (a) Loyalty - a civil servant is required to serve the government loyally and give adequate service in return for the salary or wage paid. (b) Honesty - civil servants should be honest in their dealings with the public and "demand or receive nothing in money or kind from anyone in the performance of their duties". (c) Courage - the manual says that a civil servant should possess the courage to work hard. Another type of courage it says, "involves doing what is morally right even though one does stand to gain personally from such action". It says: "You should do the right thing especially if it will enhance the reputation of your service and the state. You should at all times resist temptation from whatever quarters. Where the prior consent of a superior authority is necessary, courteous in getting it. (d) Courtesy - The civil service Hand book requires the public employee to be polite and courteous to both those in the service and the general public. It says (to senior officers) that "polite instructions are usually more easily obeyed, (and that) courtesy in the office and to the general public makes it easier to get on with other people, (and that) A heavy schedule of duties or any other circumstance cannot justify bad temper by civil servants". (e) Cooperation - The civil service or any section of it needs the cooperation of a lots of members to succeed. When any member(s) isolate themselves in the belief that they are as good as the rest put together, success in jeopardized. (f) Tact - The manual of the civil service says concerning this that "Tact means skilfulness in handling a difficult situation without giving offence to the people involved. This is very necessary in the service". (g) Industry - The civil service Handbook says that this means "...useful hard work" because, "some workers work furiously to get little or nothing done". To be industrious is to know one's work. well and to stay within bounds and establish schedules of when to start and to finish any given assignment. (h) Avoidance of delay - To avoid delay is to work hard, to devote time to (only) official work during work and to take time off to get well, if sick. (i) Tidiness - a tidy office is impressive to visitors and it also gives an idea of the state of mind of its user. The Civil Service Handbook also enjoins civil servants to be properly dressed to duty. It says "It is a good idea to dress in a business - like manner, not as if one were going to a formal party or a beauty queen parade. It does not cost much to dress simply with carefully chosen material. It is useful to remember that how people dress tells keen observers a great deal of the general character and taste of such people". (j) Helpfulness - It is enjoined in the Civil Service Handbook that help be offered without regard to kinships or friendships. Also, the senior civil servants are enjoined to help junior ones, in particular encouraging them to apply themselves to study rather than waste time and resources on playing pools. (k) Kindness - this, according to the Civil Service Handbook does not mean giving to what they are not entitled to. Rather it involves "...respecting the privileges and rights of officers, employees and members of the public in respect of the fact that those concerned are unknown to you. A civil servant ... should ... serve impartially". This manual also says that kindness "involves having a humane approach in dealing with people indifferently. This applies to staff as well as members of the public". Doing this should however be without breach of the regulations. Another set of ethical behaviours has to do with a very important and sensitive issue i.e. attitude to public funds. In this respect, the civil service Handbook requires civil servants

to be frugal in spending and conscientious in revenue collecting. Other sets of ethical attitudes that a civil servant should have e.g. national consciousness, good image of the civil service as well as social problems and social justice is emphasized.

Self-Assessment Exercise

i.   What is ethics
ii.   What are the ethical behaviours expected of an employee in an organization?

 1.6 Summary

This unit has done the following: given the definition of ethics, state the two broad types - management and leadership in ethics; it has given a "test" to be used in knowing if a decision, a policy, a procedure is a not ethical, it has given principles of ethics and using the Nigeria case, it has examined ethics in the practical realm.

 1.7   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Bratton, John and Gold, Jeffrey (1999), Human Resource Management - Theory and
        Practice (Second Edition) Macmillan Press Ltd, London Federal Republic of
        Nigeria, Civil Service Handbook, Federal Ministry of Establishment and Service
        Matters, Lagos.
Weiss, Joseph W. (1996) Organizational Behaviour of Change - Managing Diversity, Cross
        cultural Dynamics, and Ethics. West Publishing Company, Minneapolis/St. Paul.

 1.8   Possible Answers to SAEs

i.   What is ethics
ii.   What are the ethical behaviours expected of an employee in an organization?

(i)   Ethics is a code of moral principles and values that governs the behaviour of individual or group with respect to what is right or wrong. The scope of ethics in organizations covers both management and leadership as well as employees in the organization. Ethics deal with what is morally right and expected of a person in an organization and what is equally morally wrong of a person in a works place.
(ii)   The following could be listed and explained as ethical behaviours expected of an employee in an organization:

i. Loyalty
ii. Honesty
iii. Courage
iv. Courtesy
v. Cooperation
vi. Tactfulness
vii. Industry
viii. Tidiness
ix. Helpfulness
x. Kindness

UNIT 2
DECISION-MAKING

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

This unit will look at the meaning of decision-making and its scope, the steps involved in decision making process and ways to improve the process. Decision-making, at whatever level an employee is found, is one of his most important functions.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
- Define decision-making
- Locate where decision-making capacity can be enlarged
- List steps in the decision-making process
- Recognize how decision-making ability can be improved

1.3 Definition and Scope of Decision-Making

Decision comes from the action word "deciding" which Harold F. Smiddy defines as implying ".... freedom to choose from among alternatives without externally imposed coercion, freedom to conceive alternatives from which to choose". Decision-making, therefore, is the act or process of selecting a right and effective course of action from two or more alternatives for the purpose of achieving a given goal or objective of an organization.

Decisions are made within boundaries set up by many constraints which the following: prevailing and unalterable features of the social, political economic and technological

environment. The individual's interpretation of the legal, moral, ethical and religious limits to possible courses of action. Deciding is thus a matter of value judgment and of wisdom. One way to develop the sense of values of the individual in order to improve his decision making ability and thus the quality of his decisions is to orient him toward the objectivities of the organization for which he works. Now that we are reasonably settled on the issue of the definition decision/decision making, let us turn attention to the nature and focus of decision making in organizations. In the first place, we partially agree with one of Smiddy's propositions that "decisions are made only by individuals, not by groups". From the way we have talked about decision thus far, for example, that (among other things) they are a product of value judgment, perhaps they cannot be much else than individual responsibilities. Smiddy is so emphatic on this point that he says: each decision can be specifically defined as the responsibility of specific position. The incumbent of this position is personally individually responsible and accountable for the results and the consequences of the decisions so designated as his responsibilities.

1.4 Enlarging decision-making capacity

Where a decision is made the sole responsibility of an individual much as it is advisable to tap the knowledge of others (colleague subordinates), it is crucial to bear in mind that the final decision is the responsibility of the one into whose hands it is entrusted. The following should be noted in decision making process: 1. Leader makes decision and announces it. In this case, the leader identifies a problem or realizes the existence of a problem, he ponders over possible solutions and chooses one. In doing this, he does not consult with or make use of any input from his subordinates. 2. The Leader "Sells" his Decision Here, the leader keeps problems and decision making to himself. However, rather than announce the decision he has made, he sells it or persuades his subordinates to accept it for fear of resistance. 3. The Leader Presents his ideas, invites questions Here again, the decision is made, indeed, already made by the leader. He invites questions on it as an avenue to make it clearer to his subordinates. 4. The leader presents a tentative decision subject to change. This is a situation where as the one above, the leader has thought over the problem and found the solution. In fact, he has earmarked a solution. The problem and the tentative solution are tendered for debate but the final decision is the leader's. 5. The leader presents the problem, gets suggestions and then makes his decision This time unlike others above, the leader comes to his group without a preconceived answer. He uses his group as a resource base to obtain answers. At the end however, he alone takes the decision. 6. The leader defines the limits and request the groups to take a decision. This time, the leader passes to the group usually with himself as a member, the right to make decision. Before doing this, he defines the problem and the boundaries within which the decision must be made. 7. The leader permits the group to make decision within prescribed limits. Here the group has almost absolute freedom to identify and diagnose the problems, develop alternative procedures for solving it, and deciding on the alternative to use. The executive, depending upon the urgency surrounding the issue and the knowledge his subordinates are likely to have on the issue may use any of

numbers 1-5 above in making decision. Involving his subordinates is a morale booster and is highly recommended. On the issue of the level of organization at which decision making takes place, here we wholly agree with both Smiddy, and McKinney and Howard that it takes place virtually at all levels of organization. Whilst McKinney and Howard say: "Decision making falls within the province of all levels of management though it is generally assumed to be reserved essentially to individuals fairly high in the administrative hierarchy. Smiddy proposes that: "All individuals rather than only managers, make decisions and need to do so responsibly. What these authors mean is that there is need to decentralize decision making in organizations. Smiddy was specific as to the locus (level) of each decision. He puts it as comprehensively (and a little difficult to comprehend) as follows: The determinant position level for responsibility and authority to make a particular decision should be that organizational level nearest the work where both needed skills and competence on the one hand and needed information embracing understanding of both direct and environmental probable impacts of the decision - on the other hand can reasonably be brought to exist; so that such information and understanding be brought to bear in choosing wisely from among possible alternatives, or risks as responsibility and need for decision, Smiddy recommends that not only managers (generalist) but specialists be assigned decision making responsibility. This is an important point in Nigeria of today wherein emphasis is shifting from the generalist to the specialist (the professional) in the administration of public affairs. In the past the specialists were unfortunately marginalized even in the decisions on professional issues. The shift to professionalization should open avenues for specialists to exert themselves in decision making.

1.5 Step to Decision Making

Although time and space will not permit a detailed analysis of this, it behoves us to at least sketch out here the steps which lead to sound decision making. The following five steps are as given by an eminent management scholar, Peter Drucker: l. Defining the problem 2. Analysing the problem 3. Developing alternative solutions 4. Deciding upon solution 5. Converting the decision into effective action. It is pertinent to state here that not all decisions have to go through these five steps in order to be made. Management scholars have divided making into two broad categories - programmed and non - programmed decisions. Programmed decisions are those which deal with problems permitting well defined search and choice procedures to be used each time they occur. The problems giving rise to them are repetitive and so solutions can almost be prefabricated. Non-programmed decisions on the other hand involve problems which "...are often new and highly ill-defined, making it difficult to tell what factors are applicable for obtaining a desired solution". Normally for such problems, need arises to shift the focus of decision making "upstairs". Improving Decision Making Ability of Executives. Since we have said in clear terms that decision is a product of judgment, that it depends too much on the individual; and since we know that individuals are gifted differently, how can decision making ability be improved? Pondering over such issues, T.

Ross Moore, gives the following response to his own question - "Can Decision Making be learnt?" It would be very convenient and comfortable merely to say that decision making is something which springs from the intuition of certain types of people. This would make our problem quite simple. We could go back to the old saying that either a man has it or he doesn't. However, Moore believes that just like entrepreneurism which was thought irreplaceable has been replaced quite successfully by management, decision making can be learnt. Time will not allow us to go into details on how this can be done but a few tips will be given. One way in which it can be learnt is picking the brain of the successful decision maker to catalogue the process he utilizes in so doing. Such a process can then be studied, adopted and taught. However, this is not easy as many a good decision maker does not know how they were made Another way of improving decision making ability is making more of them. Ross Moore says the following in this regard: "I have personally found one further very important thing about the decision making process indicates that it can be learnt. The more decisions I make, the better is their quality". Another way of improvement in the quality of decisions in organizations rather than decision making ability of individuals is to drop those who are incapable of making decisions from so doing. Ross Moore puts this point thus: I have also observed that there are those who seem to be unable to make decision..... Others are actually afraid to take chance. Still others simple do not want the responsibility of any form of decision making. A man unable to make decision merely adds a form of paralysis in any organization.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Discuss the steps involved in decision making process

1.6 Summary

Decision making is a critical function in organizations. It is a personnel function because it is one of the important things the employee does in organizations and in respect of which he is given additional training and which also forms the basis for his performance appraisal.

1.7   References/Further Readings/Web Resources References/Further

Moore, Ross T "Synthesizing Information" in H.B Maynard (ed) (1960), Top Management
        Handbook, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York Smiddy, Harold F. "Deciding"
        in H. B. Maynard (ed) ibid Tennenbaum, Robert, Wechsler, Irving R,
Massarik, Fred (1961), Leadership and Organization, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New
        York

1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Discuss the steps involved in decision making process

The following could be discussed as steps involved in decision making process:

i.   Defining the problem
ii.   Analysing the problem
iii. Developing alternative solutions
iv.   Deciding upon the solution
v.   Converting the decision into effective action

UNIT 3
CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

This unit treats a negative aspect of inter-personal and inter-group relations in organizations, i.e. conflict and its management. It defines what conflict is, says how dysfunctional it could be and how it can be managed and resolved. A number of management theorists see it as not completely negative. What bad it constitutes and what good it could be, will be examined here.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
•   Define conflict
•   List a number of conflict situations
•   Manage conflicting situation to prevent getting worse
•   Resolve conflicts

1.3 Definition

Conflict is a condition that arises when two or more individuals or groups perceive their own interests as being challenged by the other(s), and when strong feelings can be aroused. Supervisors, organizational units, or staff divisions often come into conflict with one another either because of the principles that divide the labor among them and prescribe their relations are not clear, or because the prescribed rules are being adhered to

by some but not by others, or because differences of interest, view points, or personalities need to be reconciled. Despite the best of management practices in acting and communicating, conflicts between employees and the organization will always occur.

1.4 The discovery of conflicts of interests

For many reasons, there is now more communication in organizations than before. The human relations movement as well as the activities of labour unions have led to this development. The louder voice of employees in business is viewed by some as evidence that the amount of disagreement and trouble has been on the increase. On the other hand, as observed by Flippo, "it may be that such trouble has always existed, but now it can rise to the top and be observed". The following are some of the ways given by Flippo through which conflicts are discovered: (a) Direct observation: Flippo says that "A good supervisor knows the customary behaviour of subordinates, and when significant changes in that behaviour occur, he or she is concerned with possible motives. Observations are also made on productivity which may show a decline. Also such statistics as grievance rates, accident rates, requests for transfer, resignations and disciplinary cases, etc may reveal that an unspoken conflict exists. (b) Suggestions box. The type of suggestion box referred to have is what Flippo calls "a gripe box". He says, concerning it, "The company that establishes an anonymous gripe system is concerned with the problem of bringing all conflicts of interest to light. Anonymity may provide the courage to submit a dissatisfaction that will otherwise go unvoiced". (c) Open door policy Flippo accurately describes this policy as " .... commonly announced but seldom works". The higher level executives usually say they operate an open-door policy by which they mean anyone could come in discuss any problems concerning them or the organization. However, whoever tries to use this policy soon realizes that the open door ends at the secretary's office and for most people, at receptionist's. If open-door policies work beyond window-dressing, they are capable of detecting and removing grievances even before they mature. (d) Exit interview. This an interview granted by a departing employee. If the truth can be told, it is a good source of discovering the causes of dissatisfaction in organizations. However, the departing employee owes no obligation to grant it and because he might be looking unto the organization for references for the next job. Some organizations go around this difficulty by mailing exit interview questions three months after the employee's departure by which time he must have already settled in another job and can be now "tell it as it is". (e) The Ombudsman - The ombudsman in an organization is an additional ear for the chief executive. Although he is meant to receive and resolve grievances, the use he serves in this section of discovery of conflicts is to serve as a source of data. Complaints taken to him which an employee is not able to take to his direct boss serves as a source of data for types and prevalence of conflicts in organizations. (f) Group meetings Some chief executives or supervisors do solicit for complaints publicly at group meetings. At such meetings, individuals who cannot complain on their own pick courage and reveal hidden conflicts. Some executives use this soliciting method in individual interviews with present employees to discover

sources of difficulty. These are some, but certainly not all methods used in unearthing difficulties or conflicts in organizations. Our next effort will be on the processing of grievances.

1.5 Types of Conflicts

Joseph W. Weiss identifies 5 types of conflicts. They are: structural, intrapersonal, interpersonal, inter- group and inter-organizational.

(a)   Structural Conflict

This occurs because of cross functional departmental differences over goals, time horizons, rewards, authority, line and staff activities, status and resources. The different parts of organizations, sales research and development (R&D) production, finance. legal and personnel, etc., have in Weiss's words, "...different goals, different cultures, different approaches and resources, and conflicts can naturally be expected to arise between them". He gave examples of how structural conflicts can arise. In one example he says: Production personnel have traditionally clashed with R&D people because production is sometimes given new but untested production designs by R&D. If The design is faulty, both the product and sales people later feel the 'heat' from customers. And conflict ensues. In the second place; The legal, finance and human resources departments are classified as `staff positions; that is, they are not directly related to direct production operations. Staff positions are usually appointed by the upper level managers. Staff professionals' rewards, resources, status, authority, goals, and specialization are usually not directly linked to market performance. Conflict can occur between staff and line positions over status and authority differences.

(b)   Intra-personal Conflict

According to Weiss, this occurs within an individual. This type of conflict is divided into three, namely, intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict and person-role conflict. The first refers to a situation where a person receives conflicting information from others concerning a particular role. For example, a sales person is given an award for good performance by his supervisor and shortly he is invited by the Chief Executive and confronted with a complaint from a major client that his method is aggressive. This creates a conflict of confidence in the one and same individual. The second of this type of conflict - inter-role - occurs, according to Weiss, "... when an individual experiences pressure over several roles in their job or life. For example, a working mother (who may also be single) may experience conflict over the nurturing needs of children. At the same time, she must also meet the same standards of her male counterparts". The third of this type of conflict - the person-role conflict occurs finds his clashing with his job requirements. Giving an example of this type, which is perhaps more common in life, Weiss says: " ...an R&D professional who is a perfectionist is required to speed up

product design and to overlook the zero based defects policy. This person may experience conflict over being pressured to follow standards other than his own'".

(c)   **Inter-personal Conflict**

This type of conflict occurs between two or more individuals. Weiss says that "...the nature (of it) in organizations can be emotional or content based and is caused by many factors: personality differences, values, judgments, perceptions, competencies and management styles". One of the causes of this type of conflict is, as noted by Weiss a "difficult" person. Quoting Bremson, Weiss identifies seven types of "difficult" persons. We do not intend to go into details by listing and discussing each type. We shall discuss only two which are most common in organizations. Firstly, the Hostile- aggressive. This type "surprise and attack people at emotional and substantive levels". When they attack, the attacked is advised to be assertive and to "stand up" to them. The second type is the "know it all" type which is subdivided into "bulldozers" and "balloons". Bulldozers are people who do know a subject competently but use their competency to bully others. The way to handle these is to prepare very well for them; to listen and paraphrase their main points and use questioning to raise problems. Balloons on the other hand are people who do not know a subject well and bluff instead. They should be confronted, but in private (to help them save face). When they state perceptions as facts, they should be offered factual evidence.

(d)   **Inter-group Conflict**

This occurs as a result of disagreement over any number of tongue or substantive issues. Also basic differences in group structure ... can often be sources of pressure between groups.

(e)   **Inter-organizational Conflict**

 This occurs between enterprises and external stakeholders. Largescale strikes, e.g. the ones known in Nigeria here between Association of Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and the university system, is one of such conflicts. Exercise 1.2 List out the various types of conflicts and explain any two of them.

1.6 Conflict- Resolution (Management)

Joseph W. Weiss, adapting from K. Thomas's Conflict Resolution Approach gives five styles of conflict management. These are: 1. When quick, decisive action is vital (e.g., emergencies) 2 On important issues where unpopular actions need implementing (cost cutting, enforcing unpopular rules, discipline). 3. On issues vital to company welfare when you know you are right. 4. Against people who take advantage of non-competitive behaviour. Collaborating l. To find an integrative solution when both sets of concerns are too important to be compromised. 2 When your objective is to learn. 3 To merge insights

from people with different perspectives. 4. To gain commitment by incorporating concerns into a consensus. 5. To work through feelings that have interfered with a relationship. Compromising 1. When goals are important, but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes. 2. When opponents with equal power are committed to mutually Exclusive goals. 3 To achieve temporary settlements to complex issues. 4 To arrive at expedient solutions under time pressure. 5. As a backup when collaboration or competition is unsuccessful. Avoiding l. When an issue is trivial, or more important issues are pressing. 2. When you perceive no chance of satisfying your concerns. 3 When potential disruption outweighs the benefits of resolution. 4 To let people cool down and regain perspective. 5. When gathering information supersedes immediate decision. 6 When others can resolve the conflict more effectively. 7 When issues seem tangential or symptomatic of other issues. Accommodating 1. When you find you are wrong - to allow a better position to be heard, to learn, and to show your reasonableness. 2. When issues are more important to others than to yourself - to satisfy others and maintain cooperation. 3 To build social credits for later issues. 4 To minimize loss when you are outmatched and losing. 5 When harmony and stability are especially important. 6. To allow employees to develop by learning from mistakes.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Say what is conflict and explain its types

1.7 Summary

This unit has taken a fairly comprehensive look at conflict and management. It has offered you definitions and methods/procedures in recognizing conflicts and managing them.

1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Cole, G.A (1997), Personnel Management, Theory and Practice, (Fourth Edition) ELST with Letts Educational

Etzioni, Amitai (1964), Modern Organizations, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey Flippo.

Edwin B (1984) Personnel Management (Sixth Edition MCGraw-Ilill Book Company, New York.

Weiss, Joseph W (1996), Organizational Behaviour and Change- Managing Diversity, Cross Cultural Dynamics, and Ethics, West Publishing Company, Minneapolis/St Paul.

1.9   Possible Answers to SAEs

Say what is conflict and explain its types

Conflict is a condition that arises when two or more individuals or groups perceive their own interests as being challenged by the other(s), and when strong feelings can be aroused. Supervisors, organizational units, or staff divisions often come into conflict with one another either because of the principles that divide the labour among them and prescribe their relations are not clear, or because the prescribed rules are being adhered to by some but not by others, or because differences of interest, view points, or personalities need to be reconciled. Despite the best of management practices in acting and communicating, conflicts between employees and the organization will always occur.

The following could be explained as types of conflicts in an organization:
i.   Structural conflict
ii.   Intra-personal conflict
iii.   Inter-personal conflict
iv.   Inter-group conflict
v.   Inter-organizational conflict

UNIT 4
LEADERSHIP: STUDY AND THEORIES

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

Leadership is one of the most critical aspects of organizations. Leonard D. White underscores its importance in 1950 when he wrote; and quoted by McKinney and Howard, thus: - "The life and spirit of an organization do not spring from its structure. Quality depends on the motivations that energizes staff. They derive in large measure from the character of the leadership." A one-time vibrant and very successful organization under one leader can become very dull and fail woefully under another.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:
•   Define leadership
•   Identify and explain a number of theories of leadership

1.3 Leadership Theories

Talking about leadership, McKinney and Howard did say what captures the essence of leadership beautifully and comprehensively, as: The person who can mesh divergent and conflicting forces, recognize and create opportunities, use the influence and moral basis of his or her position, and employ the minimal amount of resources, and employ the minimal amount of resources to maximally achieve publicly desired ends. When the average person thinks of leadership the most common association is usually to charisma - a Greek word meaning divine right. In this view, leadership is regarded as a gift of influence over the behaviour of others. Some of us have this gift and others simply do

not. Generally, the discussion and practice of leadership has involved aspects: (1) attributes related to or emanating directly from the leader, (2) conditions created from interpersonal and group influence, and (3) conditions determined largely by environmental and situational factors.

1.4 The Leader's attributes (Trait theory)

Leadership was traditionally presented in terms of the traits that the leader possessed and how they influenced the achievements of organizational goals. For centuries, writers examined the lineage of great personalities in search of the qualities that all successful leaders possessed in common. A number of factors turned up: for example, that leaders were generally taller followers; that they had greater retention ability than the average person; that saints lived longer than the average peasant during the Middle Ages. In varying degrees this approach was carried over into the writings of public administration. Leonard D. White in the 1950s spoke of leaders' command of symbols, skills in inventing policies and plans, courage in deciding, and what he called the Leaders' "touch - and allusive quality initiative in nature". Leadership in this mode involves: (1) Single-mindedness - (which) is sufficient to sustain striving for the fulfilment of' a goal. (2) Basic intelligence - not necessarily esoteric intellectual gifts but a demonstrated ability to think. One of the objectives of early public administration courses was to teach the student to "think administratively". (3) Physical energy. No one without an abundance of energy can ever be a leader. (4) Personality balance. Without sacrificing integrity of purpose, the leader must relate personal needs to the organization's goal. (5) Self-confidence. Without losing sensitivity and empathy for others, the leader must present an image of assurance, the capacity to deal fairly with others, self-control and decisiveness. (6) Character and integrity. Leadership is also associated with striving for higher purpose for the public interest. - "Ask not what your country can do for you, but what you can do for your country". The theory of leadership that stresses personal characteristics has largely fallen into disuse. "Fifty years of study," comments Eugene E. Jennings, "have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders from non-leaders" Nonetheless, the traitist theory remains important. The absence of supporting research has not deterred the continual use of traits in the selection of leaders. The major assumption at the outset was that greater leadership could accomplish through fulfilling certain sociological needs of operators. Ideas of efficiency, deeply embedded in the trait approach, were balanced with a new emphasis on organizational stability and the building of a sense of community at the work place. Trait Approach involves: (1) decision-making centralized in an administrator (2) interactions reflect a person's position in the hierarchy (3) authority is the basis of integrative force in the organization (4) communication channelled through formal organization structure (5) control of operation for the sake of performance.

1.5 Group Approach Theory
This theory is characterized by the following: (1) wide participation in decision-making

(2) face-to-face group interactions (3) mutual confidence is the primary integration in the organization (4) inter-group and inter-group communication (5) growth for members of the organization is recognized as a priority objective. As the group approach to leadership become acceptable in theory leader's role become primarily one of helping group to clarify and achieve its goals. One important consequence of this change was s shift in emphasis or even displacement of organization goals for the group's. Another was an almost unnoticed shift of leadership from executive to managerial and supervisory levels. The group approach also did the following: (a) produced a functional leadership that varied with group needs; (b) recognized the latent power-over time - of group norms to transform externally (from legislature from a higher level in the hierarchy) introduced rules: (c) transformed the leader into coordinator - partly leading and partly led.

1.6 The situational approach to leadership

Following the traitist and human relations groups is the situational theory this approach maintains that the situation dictates the qualities of leadership and that ear for a different leadership capacity. Rather than adjusting organization to fit the leader, here the leader is adjusted to the organizational requirements. Among the situational variables identified are: (1) expectations of following, (2) technology associated with the task to be performed, (3) pressures of schedules and the delivery environment, (4) required degrees of interpersonal contact, (5) various stages of the organization's development. Gordon Lippitt and Warren Schmidt have identified six stages of organizational development that call for different kinds of leadership: (1) creation of a new organization (2) survival of a continuing system (3) attainment of stability (4) gaining reputation and prestige (5) achieving uniqueness and adaptability and (6) contributing to society. It is obvious that each condition calls for different qualities. The leader, in the situational approach, is at best a coordinator of internal pressures. It is believed that the Lippitt and Schmidt approach applies to executives dealing with the overall configuration of the organization rather than with its administrative dimensions. Again, like in the other theories, the data of situational theories are more a priority than empirical.

Self-Assessment Exercise

List and discuss leadership theories

 1.7 Summary

This unit covers the definition and theories of leadership as it is traditionally conceived. The next unit takes a view of leadership that is subordinate based.

1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

McKinney, Jeremy B, and Howard, Lawrence C. (1979), Public Administration balancing power and accountability, Moore Publishing Company, Inc. Oak Park, Illinois.

1.9 Possible Answers to SAEs

List and discuss leadership theories

The following are listed and discussed as leadership theories:

i.   Trait Theory
ii.   Group Approach Theory
iii.   Situational Approach Theory

UNIT 5
LEADERSHIP: FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE SUBORDINATE

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

The preceding unit, we examined the concept of leadership from somewhat traditional viewpoint. In this unit we will be introduced to a fairly different definition and conceptualization of leadership. Here you will see how leadership is led by subordinates.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
  i.   Re- define leadership
 ii.   Recognize various ranges of leadership behaviour
iii.   Choose from the various styles of leadership which one you will need for which situation.

1.3 Definition

Offering what they term as a basic definition of leadership. Tennenbaum and his associates in their book titled Leadership and Organization, leadership as: "Interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal." They further said that; Leadership always involves attempts on the part of a leader (influencer) to affect (influence) the behaviour of a follower (influencee) or followers in situation. This definition has the virtue of generality. It does not limit the leadership to formally appointed functionaries or to individuals

whose influence `potential rests, upon the voluntary consent of others. Rather, it is applicable to all interpersonal relationships in which influence attempts are involved. Relationships as apparently diverse as the super subordinate, the line-staff, the consultant-client, the teacher-student, husband-wife, or the parent-child are all seen as involving leadership. One way of characterizing this definition of leadership is to say that it treats leadership as a process or function rather than as an exclusive attribute of a prescribed role. The subordinate often influences the superior, or members, the chairman, and of course the wife, the husband. In any given relationship, the roles of the influencer and the influence often shift from one person to the other. In the public service the Executive cadre as well as its technical counterpart is a vital bridge between the top and the bottom of the service. As a result of this, functionaries in the Executive cadre are both subordinates and superiors at the same time. To the top echelon, the Executive cadre is a subordinate group, whilst to the clerical/secretarial and messengerial cadres, the Executive cadre is a vital super-ordinate group. As subordinates you will be doing great service to your organization if you are aware of the fact that you are one of three vital forces that affect the way a manager may decide to manage. The other forces (which do not concern us directly today), are forces in the manager himself and forces in the situation of management. Let us therefore focus attention on:

1.4 Forces in the Subordinate

Before deciding how to lead a certain group, the manager will also want to consider a number of forces affecting his subordinates' behaviour. He will want to remember that each employee, like himself, is influenced by many personality variables. In addition, each subordinate has a set of expectations about how the boss should act in relation to him (the phrase "expected behaviour" is one we hear more and more often these days at discussions of leadership and teaching). The better the manager understands these factors, the more accurately he can determine what kind of behaviour on his part will enable his subordinates to act most effectively. Generally speaking, the manager can permit his-subordinates greater freedom if the following essential conditions exist: 1. If the subordinates have relatively high needs for independence. (As we all know; people differ greatly in the amount of direction that they desire). 2. If the subordinates have a readiness to assume responsibility for decision making. (Some see additional responsibility as a tribute to their ability; others see it as "passing the buck"). 3. If they have a relatively high tolerance for ambiguity. (Some employees prefer to have clear-cut directives given to them; others prefer a wider area of freedom). 4. If they are interested in the problem and feel that it is important. 5. If they understand and identify with the goals of the organization. 6. If they have the necessary knowledge and experience to deal with the problem. 7. If they have learnt to expect to share in decision making. (Persons who have come to expect strong leadership and are then suddenly confronted with the request to share more fully in decision making are often upset by this new experience. On the other hand, persons who have enjoyed a considerable amount of freedom resent the boss who begins to make all the decisions himself). The restrictive effect of many of the forces

will, of course, be modified by the general feeling of confidence which subordinates have in the boss. Where they have learnt to respect and trust him, he is free to vary his behaviour. He will feel certain that he will not be perceived as an authoritarian boss on those occasions when he makes decisions by himself. Similarly, he will not be seen as using staff meetings to avoid his decision responsibility. In a climate of mutual confidence and respect, people tend to feel less threatened by deviations from normal practice, which in turn makes possible a higher degree of flexibility in the whole relationship.

1.5 Range of Leadership Behaviour

As a leader the Executive cadre functionary has been aware of the existence of several ways in which to lead, depending upon age of organization and situation. The Manager makes the decision and announces it. In this case the boss identifies a problem, considers alternative solutions, chooses one of them and then reports this decision to his subordinates for implementation. He may or may not give consideration to what he believes his subordinates will think or feel about his decision; in any case, he provides no opportunity for them to participate directly in the decision-making process. Coercion may or may not be used or implied. The Manager "sells" his decision. Here the manager, as before, takes responsibility for identifying the problem and arriving at a decision. However, rather than simply announcing it, he takes the additional step of persuading his subordinates to accept it. In doing so, he recognizes the possibility of some resistance among those who will be faced with the decision, and he seeks to reduce this resistance by indicating, for example, what the employees have to gain from his decision. The manager presents his ideas, invites questions. Here the boss who has arrived at a decision and who seeks acceptance of his ideas provides an opportunity for his subordinates to get a fuller explanation of his thinking and his intentions. After presenting the ideas, he invites questions so that his associates can better understand what he is trying to accomplish. This give and take also enables the manager and the subordinates to explore more fully the implications of the decision. The manager presents a tentative decision subject to change. This kind of behaviour permits the subordinates to exert some influence on the decision. The initiative for identifying and diagnosing the problem remains with the boss. Before meeting with his staff, he has thought the problem through and arrived at a decision - but only a tentative one. Before finalizing it, he presents his proposed solution for the reaction of those who will be affected by it. He says in effect, "I'd like to hear what you have to say about this plan that I have developed. I'll appreciate your frank reactions, but will reserve for myself the final decision". The manager presents the problem, gets suggestions and then makes his decision up to this point the boss has come before the group with a solution of his own. Not so in this case. The subordinates now get the first chance to suggest solutions. The manager's initial role involves identifying the problem. He might, for example, say something of this sort. "We are faced with number of complaints from newspapers and the general public on our service policy. What is wrong here? What ideas do you have for coming to grips with this

problem? The function of the group becomes one of increasing the manager's repertory of possible solutions to the problem. The purpose is to capitalize on the knowledge and experience of those who are on the "firing line". From the expanded list of alternatives developed by the manager and his subordinates, manager then selects the solution that he regards as most promising. The manager defines the limits, and requests the group to make a decision. At this point, the manager passes to the group (possibly including himself as a member) the right to make decisions. Before doing so, however, he defines the problem to be solved and the boundaries within which the decision must be made. As example might be the handling of a parking problem at a plant. The boss decides that this is something that should be worked on by those involved, so he calls them together and points up the existence of a problem. Then he tells them: There is the open field just north of the main plant which has been designated for additional employee parking. We can build underground or surface multilevel facilities as long as the cost does not exceed $100,000.00. Within these limits we are free to work out whatever solution makes sense to us. After we decide on a specific plan, the company will spend the available money in whatever way we indicate. The manager permits the group to make decision within prescribed limits. This represents an extreme degree of group freedom only encountered in formal organizations, as, for instance, in many groups. Here the team of managers of engineers undertakes the identification and diagnosis of the problem, of developing alternative procedures for solving it, and decides on one or more these alternative solutions. The only limits directly imposed on the group by the organization are those specified by the superior of the team's boss. If the boss participates in the decision making process, he attempts to do so with no more authority than any other member of the group. He commits himself in advance to assist in implementing whatever decision the group makes.

1.6 Key Questions

As the continuum in the figure above demonstrates, there are a number of alternative ways in which a manager can relate himself to the group or individuals he is supervising. At the extreme left of the range, the emphasis is on the manager - on what he is interested in, how he feels about them. As we move toward the subordinate centred end of the continuum. however, the focus is increasingly on the subordinates - on what they are interested in. How they look at things, how they feel about them. When business leadership is regarded in this way, a number of questions arise. Let us take four of special importance: (1) Can a boss ever relinquish his responsibility by delegating it to someone else`? Our view is that the manager must expect to be held responsible by his superior for the quality of the decisions made, even though operationally these decisions may have been made on a group basis. He should, therefore, be ready to accept whatever risk is involved whenever he delegates decision making power to his subordinates. Delegation is not a way of "passing the buck". Also, it should be emphasized that the amount of freedom the boss gives to his subordinates cannot be greater than the freedom which he himself has been given by his own superior. (2) Should the manager participate with his

subordinates once he has delegated responsibility to them? The manager should carefully think over this question and decide on his role prior to involving subordinate group. He should ask if his presence will inhibit or facilitate the problem-solving process. There may be some instances when he should leave the group to let it solve the problem for itself. Typically, however, the boss has useful ideas to contribute, should function as an additional member of the group. In the latter instance. it is important that he indicates clearly to the group that he sees himself in a member role rather than in an authority role. (3.) How important is it for the group to recognize what kind of leadership behaviour the boss is using? It makes a great deal of difference. Many relationship problems between boss and subordinate occur because the boss fails to make clear how he plans to use his authority. If, for example, he actually intends to make a certain decision himself, but the subordinate group gets the impression that he has delegated this authority, considerable confusion and resentment are likely to follow. Problems may also occur when the boss uses a "democratic" façade to conceal the fact that he has already made a decision which he hopes the group will accept as its own. The attempt to "make them think it was their idea in the first place" is a risky one. We believe that it is highly important for the manager to be honest and clear in describing what authority he is keeping and what role he is asking subordinates to assume in solving a particular problem. 4. Can you tell how "democratic" a manager is by the number of decision; his subordinates make? The sheer number of decisions is not an accurate index of the amount of freedom that a subordinate group enjoys. More important is the significance of the decisions which the boss entrusts to his subordinates. Obviously a decision on how to arrange desks is of an entirely different order from involving the introduction of new electronic data processing equipment. Even though the widest possible limits are given dealing with the first issue, the group will sense no particular degree of responsibility. For a boss to permit the group to decide equipment policy, even within rather narrow limits, would reflect a degree of confidence in them on his part.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Choose three problem situations and identify a suitable leadership behaviour

1.7 Summary

This unit discusses only two issues - firstly, unlike the traditional approach, leadership here is   fluid. Secondly, depending upon the audience, one style or behaviour rather than another is   appropriate.

1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Tennenbaum, Robert, Wechsler, Irving R., Massarik, Fred (1961) Leadership and Organization,
McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

MODULE 5

UNIT 1
DISCIPLINARY ACTION

Unit Structure
1.1   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcomes
1.3   Definition
1.4   Scope and types of offences
1.5   Forms of disciplinary action
1.6   Guides to Disciplinary Action
1.7   Summary
1.8   References/Further Readings/Web Resources
1.9   Possible Answer to Self-Assessment Exercise

1.1 Introduction

This course started with methods of getting people outside organization interested enough in it to apply to join it, through all processes you have seen involving examinations/interviews (for entry) compensation, fringe benefits, appraisal of performance, training, motivation etc.; up until this point. This unit deals with disciplinary action. As will be seen, this is an action taken to convert some malfunctions in the system and taken to ensure that employees are on course, promoting the interest of organization as well as theirs.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
•   Define disciplinary action
•   Identify various types of methods/processes employed in disciplinary action
•   Recognize different forms of indiscipline leading to disciplinary action
•   Relate an offence to any appropriate disciplinary action

1.3 Definition

Edwin B. Flippo defines disciplinary action thus: " .... disciplinary action is confined to the application of penalties that lead to an inhibition of undesired behaviour. G. A. C ole on the other hand defines disciplinary action or procedure as: A set of rules or guidelines for dealing with instances of bad behaviour or rule breaking amongst employees; the most common sanctions warnings, suspensions and dismissals. On types of disciplinary actions, Flippo lists the following: (1) Oral reprimand (2) Written reprimand (3) Loss of privileges (4) Fines (5) Lay off (6) Demotion (7) Discharge

1.4 Scope and types of offences

The scope of disciplinary action is determined by the scope of offences subject to discipline. The rules governing the Nigeria civil service known as the Public Service Rules, categorizes offences into 4 and defines category as follows: (1) General Inefficiency - this "consists of a series of omissions or incompetence the cumulative effect of which shows that the officer is not capable of discharging efficiently the duties of the office he holds". (2) Misconduct - this is " .... defined as a specific act of wrongdoing or improper behaviour which can be investigated and proved". It includes: (i) Willful act or omission or general misconduct to the scandal of the public or to the prejudice of discipline and proper administration of the Government e.g. dishonesty, drunkenness, false claims against Government, foul language, insubordination, negligence, falsification or suppression of records, failure to keep records, sleeping on duty, loitering, unruly behaviour, dereliction of duty, etc.; (ii) engaging in trade or business without authority; (iii) improper dressing to office or while performing official duties; (iv) hawking merchandise or engaging in any other form of trading on office premises during office hours. (3) Serious Misconduct (gross misconduct) - this is a specific act of very serious wrongdoing and improper behaviour which can be investigated and proved. It includes: (i) Willful act or omission or general misconduct to the scandal of the public. (ii) Conviction on a criminal charge (other than a minor traffic or sanitary offence or the like) (iii) absence from duty without leave (iv) disobedience of lawful orders, such as refusal to proceed on transfer or to accept posting, etc. (v) negligence; (vi) suppression of records; (vii) false claims against Government (ix) engaging in political activities; (x) unauthorized disclosure of official information etc.; (xi) corruption; (xii) embezzlement; (xiii) fighting while on duty (xiv) membership of secret societies; (xv) violation of section 14(3) of the 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria; (xvi) contravention of any provision of the Public Service Rules and Financial Regulations; (xvi) dishonesty (xviii) drunkenness; (xix) insubordination; (xx) Falsification of records; (xxi) failure to keep records; (xxii) foul language; (4) Conduct prejudicial to the security of the state - the public service Rules say that where an officer has committed a misconduct involving the security of the state or prejudicial to it, the

officer shall be subject to the normal disciplinary procedure but that the punishment shall be aggravated.

1.5 Forms of disciplinary action

As we have already listed above, oral reprimand is the wildest and most common of the disciplinary types available. It is used when the offence is light and is a first offence. Some e.g. A. G. Cole says after an oral reprimand has been used, the fact that is oral notwithstanding, this action should be recorded i.e. it should be indicated in the employees record that on such a date, he/she was orally warned. Following the oral warning, in order of gravity, is the written warning. In business as opposed to government organizations, what follows written warning could be loss of privileges. Flippo puts this form of disciplinary action thus: "For such offences as tardiness or leaving work without permission, fines or loss of various privileges can be used. The fines usually have some relationship to the work time actually lost. The loss of privileges includes such items as good job assignments, right to select machine or other equipment, and freedom of movement about the workplace or company". Layoffs, which are known in public service as suspensions, in the words of Flippo "... can vary in severity from one to several days' loss of work without pay". Demotion is a reduction in rank and usually accompanied by reduction in pay. In the words of O. Glenn Stahl, "The employee who suffers demotion is subject to a continuing penalty, since his monthly earnings are permanently less than before the action was taken. In addition, the stigma is greater, and the new duties to which he is assigned may be less agreeable". Discharge in the words of Flippo " .... is the most severe penalty that a business organization can give and constitutes `industrial capital punishment'. In the Nigerian public service, there are two variants of discharge, termination of appointment and dismissal. In Nigeria, dismissal is removal or discharge from service which involves not only loss of income and status but also, and in the words of Stahl, "loss of pension privileges (and) with continuing disability so far as re-entrance into the service is concerned" In Nigeria not only does a dismissed officer lose his ability to re-enter the organization or service from which he is dismissed, but from any government or other service. The form of removal or discharge from service which does not involve loss of pension and re-entry rights is known in Nigeria as termination appointment.

1.6 Guides to Disciplinary Action

Edwin B. Flippo gives the following list as being among the most commonly cited concepts: (a) Disciplinary action should be taken in private. The reasoning behind this is that disciplining is an act of conditioning behaviour, and not to punish. The harm done to pride and dignity by open disciplinary action has the opposite effect of conditioning of behaviour. It is however worth noting that disciplinary action also is meant to deter would be offenders. (b) An application of penalty should always carry with it a constructive element. The way to do this is to tell the individual involved in clear and precise language the reasons for the punishment and be told how to avoid such penalties

in future. (c) Disciplinary action should be applied by the immediate supervisor. This is very often violated especially in organizations with a central personnel unit. In the university for example, the Dean of a faculty should be the one to apply penalty to all employees under him. What happens however is that the Registry which is the central personnel office or unit, is charged with such a responsibility. This delays the process and leads to inappropriate punishment for the offence., (d) Promptness is important in the taking of disciplinary action. Flippo cautions that "The desire for promptness should not lead to quick but unfair punishments. Yet on the other hand, if punishment is delayed too long, the relationship between the penalty and the offensive act becomes hazy. The penalty not only tends to lose its positive effect on behaviour but also seems to stimulate greater resentment than if it were applied earlier". (e) Consistency in the administration of disciplinary action is highly essential. This means, among other things, that two people who have committed the same offence should be given equal punishment assuming that neither has more offences in the past than the other. (f) An immediate supervisor should never be disciplined in the presence of his own subordinates. Concerning this, Flippo says: "the concept of privacy would forbid the disciplining of anyone in the presence of others. It is doubly important in the case of managers, who must preserve a position of status and power in addition to the formal authority granted by the organization. The importance of this guide should be obvious but the author has observed more than one occasion when it was violated. The grapevine will be active enough when managers are disciplined, without their status being completely destroyed by public action". (g) After the disciplinary action has been taken, the manager should attempt to assume a normal attitude toward the employee. Flippo notes that this is an important but difficult guide to follow. After a punishment, it is advisable to assume that the incident is closed. Steps should be taken to effect healing and behaviour correction. The supervisor should not go about seeming to wait for the next offense.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Discuss any five types of disciplinary actions that can be taken against an employee in an organization.

1.7 Summary

This unit has explored the concept of disciplinary action. It is availed a number of definitions of the concept, given the scope of the concept judged by the scope of the offenses which lead to disciplinary action. We have also seen various forms of disciplinary actions as well as explained the important guidelines in the process of administering disciplinary actions.

1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

G. A. Cole (1997), Personnel Management - Theory and Practice (Fourth Edition), EL ST vv-ith Letts Educational, London.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (2000), Public Service Rules, Federal Government Press, Apapa Lagos.

Flippo, Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management (Sixth Edition) McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York

Stahl, Glenn O (1962), Public Personnel Administration, Harper and Row Publishers, New York.

1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Discuss any five types of disciplinary actions that can be taken against an employee in an organization. Any five of the following as types of disciplinary action can be taken against an employee:

(1) Oral reprimand (2) Written reprimand (3) Loss of privileges (4) Fines (5) Lay off (6) Demotion (7) Discharge

UNIT 2

SEPARATION - 1 (TENURE & TURNOVER)

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

This unit deals with concepts which are virtually at opposite ends of pendulum. Tenure has to do with security of employment whilst turnover has to do with departure from employment. This unit says what each concept means and how, being at opposite ends, they are nonetheless treated together.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:
• Define tenure and turnover
• Identify various types of tenure
• List various reasons and types of turnover
• Recognize the methods of controlling turnover

1.3 Tenure and separation (Definition and Scope)

Writing under the caption of "Tenure and Turnover" O. Glenn Stahl, speaks of Tenure as relating to "The desire to be secure, to be protected, to find equanimity, to fulfil one's desire ... "Tenure we shall define here as: The job characteristic that spells out the conditions and length of time that an employee holds it, all things being equal. The scope of tenure is decided by the number of types of appointment that are available in a

particular service. In the Nigerian Civil Service, example, there are a number of types of appointments each with conditions and length of service or tenure.

1.4 Turnover

Edwin B. Flippo defines turnover "in the broad sense" as the movement into and out of an organization by the workforce. From this definition of turnover, you can now see how and why turnover and tenure have to be taken together. Whereas the"movement in" to a service is the beginning of tenure, and the "movement out" defines turnover, definition puts the two concepts together. The other reason for taking them together is found in a correlation established between them by Stephen P. Robbins in his book - Organizational behaviour. However, before we go into that correlation, let us take note of his own definition of turnover which he says is: Turnover is the voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal from an organization. For example, the appointment as a trainee or pupil has it tenure pegged at 2 years, so also has that of appointment on probation and many contract appointments.

1.5 The significance of turnover

Flippo says that turnover is an index of stability of the workforce in an organization and that an excessive movement is undesirable and expensive. When an employee leaves an organization, Flippo says the following costs are incurred: (1) Hiring costs, involving time and facilities for recruitment, interviewing, and examining and replacement. (2) Training costs, involving the time of the supervisor, personnel department, and trainee. (3) The pay of a learner is in excess of what is produced (4) Accident rate of new employees are always higher (5) Loss of production in the interval between separation of the old employee and the replacement by the new. (6) Production equipment is not being fully utilized during the hiring interval and the training period. (7) Scrap and waste rates climb when new employees are involved (8) Overtime pay may result from an excessive number of separations, causing trouble in meeting contract delivery dates. Writing on the same issue as above, Robbins says "A high turnover rate results in increased recruiting, selection and training costs... A conservative estimate would be about $15,000 per employee. A high rate of turnover can also disrupt the efficient running of an organization when knowledgeable and experienced personnel leave and replacements must be found and prepared to assume positions of responsibility". One positive significance though is that stated by Robbins thus: "All organizations, of course, have some turnover. In fact, if the "right" people are leaving the organization - the marginal and sub marginal employees - turnover can be positive. It may create the opportunity to replace an underperforming individual with someone who has higher skills or motivation, open up increased opportunities for promotions, and add new and fresh ideas to the organization". One other significance added by Flippo is that of lower salary bill as older, high-seniority persons are replaced by lower- paid entrants. Another significance of turnover rates is the amount of it that exists in an organization and its causes. Turnover rate is measured in a number of ways but the most used method is the comparison between the "movements out" as a percentage of the "movements in" within a given period - say a month or a year. With this rate known, sub rates can also be known for each department or unit or for each cause of departure, e.g. and according to O. Glenn

Stahl, "death rate, retirement rate, voluntary quitting rate, lay-off, and removal rates, and so forth". Finally, turnover rate is significant as a gauge. Stahl says in this regard that: In general, the separation rate supplies a gauge of the attractiveness of the service as a whole, in comparison with employment opportunities. It is also an aid in analysing between various units within a given service and between various grades and classes of employees. Furthermore, it throws light on the relations between employees of differing seniority, efficiency, and so forth. The turnover rate, according to Stahl, should provide a guide to following: (1) Trouble areas in the organization (2) The relation of the various types of separation to: (a) Types of employment (b) Salary classes (c) Length of service (d) Performance (3) Compatibility of employment conditions in the several establishments or in the headquarters as compared with the field services. (4) Detects in the whole employment process, but particularly in the policies affecting recruitment, selection, placement and compensation.

1.6 The Control of turnover

O. Glenn Stahl states that "the problem of controlling turnover may be divided into two parts: first, determining the causes of the various types of separation; second, adjusting and developing the personnel program in the light of these causes". Regarding the first problem, one of the methods for determining the causes of turnover is the exit interview. This is the process of interviewing employee to find out his reason for leaving the organization. In addition to serving this purpose, Glenn Stahl says, the exit interview is also "...a means for smoothing out misunderstanding and preventing avoidable separations". In specifics, the functions of an exit interview are the following: (1.) To learn all pertinent facts about each employee and his reasons for seeking employment elsewhere. (2). To give information, whenever advisable, regarding opportunities in the organization and how the employee may best take advantage of them. (3) To serve the employee, taking into consideration his own best interests and the interests of the organization and consequently to create goodwill toward the organization. It is to be noted however in that the first objective is not usually achievable as departing employees hardly disclose the true reasons for their action. The point we are making here is that if the reason for departure is known, steps can be taken to prevent it. For example, if an employee is quitting for lack of progress, he can be informed that it is in the pipe line and that a month hence, he is due to be promoted a zonal director of a new zone to be created. Also, if the reason for departure is known, even if it is too late to do something about the departing employee, that reason can be worked on so that it ceases to be a reason for the departure of other employees in future. This is the point made as part of the second problem below. O. Glenn Stahl says: The second phase in the process of controlling turnover consists making adjustments in employment conditions and policies which have been suggested by the analysis of the reasons for turnover. Such adjustments will vary as the number of reasons for departures from organizations vary. In general, however, Stahl says that employment dissatisfaction may be explained by either (1) failure to fit the man to the job, which implies unsatisfactory recruitment, selection, and placement procedures

or (2) undesirable employment conditions". Whichever is the cause should be traced and properly taken care of in order to prevent excessive turnover with its attendant high costs to the organization.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Say what is turnover in an organization and discuss any five associated costs that are likely going to be incurred when an employee leaves an organization.

 1.7 Summary

This unit has explored the various aspects of tenure and turnover. It has given the definitions of the concepts and listed and explained the various types of employment, the various reasons for turnover and given methods for the control of turnover.

 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources 22.6

Federal Republic of Nigeria, (2000), Public Services Rules, Federal Government
        Press, Apapa, Lagos
Flippo, Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management, (Sixth Edition) McGrawHill Book
        Company, New York
Robbins, Stephen P (2001) Organizational Behaviour, (Ninth Edition), Prentice-
        BHall of India, New Delhi.
Stahl, Glenn O (1962) Public Personnel Administration (Fifth Edition), Harped   Row,
Publishers, New York.

 1.9   Possible Answers to SAEs

Say what is turnover in an organization and discuss any five associated costs that   are likely going to be incurred when an employee leaves an organization.

Turnover is the voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal of service from an organization by an employee. The withdrawal is either voluntary where the employee takes an exit from the organization out of his own will without been forced to do that, or involuntary when the employee leaves the organization against his wish.

The associated costs that may be incurred by an organization when there is employee turnover include the following:

(1) Hiring costs, involving time and facilities for recruitment, interviewing, and examining and replacement. (2) Training costs, involving the time of the supervisor, personnel department, and trainee. (3) The pay of a learner is in excess of what is produced (4) Accident rate of new employees are always higher (5) Loss of production in the interval between separation of the old employee and the replacement by the new. (6) Production equipment is not being fully utilized during the hiring interval and the training period. (7) Scrap and waste rates climb when new employees are involved (8) Overtime pay may result from an excessive number of separations, causing trouble in meeting contract delivery dates.

UNIT 3
SEPARAT ION - 2 (RETIREMENT)

Unit Structure

1.1 Introduction

We have, in the preceding unit, examined the process of "movement in" and "movement out" of service. This unit examines what to some, if not most people, is a terminal "movement out" of service whilst one leaves, because the final "movement out" is really, death. Retirement is a terminal movement out because it is age-related, and as we shall see in this unit, age may be related to other factors such as ability, sickness, reduction in capacity etc.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:
• Define retirement
• Distinguish retirement from other "movements out" of service
• Explain causes that lead to retirement
• Identify types of retirement
• Identify programs instituted to benefit those in retirement

1.3 Definition and Scope

G.A. Cole gives a very short but complete definition of retirement thus: Retirement refers to the time when an employee reaches the end of his working life. The most important factor in retirement and a factor that sets it apart from other movements out of organizations is the "time" factor. So time dependent it is that Edwin B. Flippo opens discussion on it by dealing in chronologies and life expectancies. He says for example: Around the beginning of this century, the average life expectancy of a citizen of the United States was 49 years. By 1981, this had risen to 70.3 years for males and 77.9 years for females. On the basis of these figures, it is apparent that large numbers of employees will live beyond the usual working age, thereby requiring an event known as retirement. Not only is retirement age-related or dependent, governments and other organizations have predetermined the span of a working life for employees. According to G. A. Cole, this span covers the time a man enters work until the age of 65 years, and for a woman until the age of 60 years. He refers to this as "statutory retirement age", i.e., it is mandated by law that men and women attaining these ages must retire.

1.4 Types of retirement

There are two main types of retirement - mandatory and voluntary retirement. Discussing these types of retirement, Flippo says: "One of the key issues in modern times is whether the decision to retire should be made by the organization or left to the employee concerned". He thereafter cited the results of a survey that showed that out of 460,000 workers retired, 30% said a compulsory retirement age had been established in their organizations. He also noted that the most common age set was 65, "a practice that dates from the 1880s when the German Chancellor Otto Von Bismarck initiated a social security system and arbitrarily picked that particular age".

1.5 Mandatory retirement (age)

As can be seen here, the mandatory age of 65 years which seems to have a wide- spread acceptance was arbitrarily picked and in an era where Flippo says "Of course in those days few workers lived long enough to hit the retirement age". Therefore, in light of the life expectancy of modern times, amendments have been made to this age stating movement positions Flippo states: "The 1978 amendment to this act raised the limit to 70 years. Thus, it is currently illegal to require an employee to retire solely for reasons of chronological age prior to reaching 70 years". Flippo say that "many organizational managers have maintained that compulsory retirement at a fixed age for all is beneficial. The following are the reasons given: (1) it is simple to administer with no implications to prove that the older employee no longer meets job requirements. (2) openings are created to which younger employees can advance. (3) human resource planning is facilitated when retirement schedules are known. (4) graceful exits are provided for employees who

are no longer qualified in as much as the firm will wait out the final few years of declining productivity, it stimulates employees to make plans for retirement in advance of a known date. Arguments against a fixed and compulsory retirement age are also plausible and rife. The main one is that it deprives individuals of a right to choose and fails to realize that individuals vary in talents. Also, in terms of productivity, energy and creativity, people age at different rates. Flippo notes that "forced retirements would result in insignificant losses of real talents; consider the contributions after age 65 of such persons as Winston Churchill, Averill Hairman, Margaret Mead, and Arthur Fielder". Perhaps the answer to the question of retirement tied to age, is to treat each case on its own merit. Flippo says in this respect that "some people should be retired at the age of 60 while others can still make a valuable contribution beyond the age of 70". This seems to be the line which the President and the Federal Executive Council of Nigeria took recently with respect to academic staff were required to mandatorily retire at age 65, but the new thinking is that each university is to decide when academics of the rank of Associate Professor and above are to retire. The yardstick for retirement in case is now to be productivity rather than chronology. A final advantage of workers continuing on the job beyond 65 years, as noted by Flippo, is that, "it will lessen the strain on our (America) social security system. Twenty years ago, the ratio of employees working to those collecting benefits was 56 to 1. It is currently down to 3 to I". In Nigeria where the retirement age is low for civil servants (it is 60 years), the pension wage bill has become disturbingly high. The knowledge, skills and talents outside the service are likely to be superior to and more numerous than what is in the service. And rather than do for the civil service what is being done for academics, some governments in Nigeria are thinking of further lowering the retirement age to 55. The implication of a low retirement age is that rather than retire at an advanced age into idleness, despondency and usually early death, today's retired people's corps is a vibrant, healthy and agile group that go in for other jobs and are virtually collecting double salary i.e. a pension, now made as handsome as a whole salary, and another salary in a new work place. Before we leave the issue of mandatory versus voluntary retirement, let us note one more variant. This is the one, which like the Nigerian case combines the voluntary and the mandatory systems. In Nigeria an employee under the pensionable service has an option to retire voluntarily at any age from 45 years to 65. At 60 years of age or 35 years of service however, he has to retire mandatory.

1.6 Pensions and gratuities

We shall consider two issues here. Firstly, the contributory versus non-contributory pension schemes and secondly, the issue of qualifying year for pensions and gratuities.

1.6.1Contributory versus Non-contributory Pensions

In some organizations employees are made to contribute to their pension scheme. However even where they are not ostensibly made to contribute, it is not unconceivable that they do contribute. Stahl says, concerning this, thus: "Even under the so-called non-

contributory systems, although the employing agency presumably bears the entire burden, it may in part be borne by the employees through lower salaries'". The contributory pension scheme, Stahl says, has the following advantages: - it is easier to establish because the burden is divided, it checks extravagant demands on the part of the employees since it is clear that a part of the cost would be borne by themselves. The employee accepts a joint responsibility to fund a scheme which plans for the depletion of his faculty in the interest of the organization as well as himself. In organizations where there exists a qualifying period for the enjoyment of a pension, a contributory scheme gives the employee his own portion of the contribution even if he has not attained the qualifying year. What this entails is that there is no period of departure of the employee which sends him out empty handed.

1.6.2 Qualifying period for pensions

Some organizations stipulate the number of years an employee is expected to have served before he is entitled to a pension or gratuity. This is common under the non- contributory scheme. In Nigeria at one-time employee did not qualify for pension until he had served for 15 years and did not qualify for gratuity until he had served for 10 years. Recently, qualifying period for pensions and gratuities have been reduced to 10 and 5 years respectively. The implications of this action is that it now facilitates earlier departure from service. On the contrary if the service or any particular organization desires to keep its employees longer in its employment, it could do so by increasing the qualifying period for pensions and gratuities for its staff.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Define retirement and discuss its types.

1.7 Summary

This unit has covered the topic of retirement in all its ramifications and has also

covered the topic of pensions and gratuities.

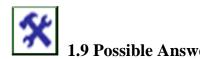### 1.8   References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Cole, G.A (1997), Personnel Management: Theory and Practice (Fourth Edition) ELST with Letts Educational, London

Federal Republic of Nigeria, (2000), Public Service Rules, Federal Government Printing Press, Apapa, Lagos

Flippo, Edwin B (1984), Personnel Management (Sixth Edition), McGrawHill Book Company, New York

Stahl, Glenn O. (1962), Public Personnel Administration (Fifth Edition) Harper and Row Publishers, New York.

1.9 Possible Answers to SAEs

Define retirement and discuss its types.

Retirement refers to the time when an employee reaches the end of his working life in an organization. The most important factor in retirement and a factor that sets it apart from other movements out of organizations is the time factor.

The following are explained as the two types of retirement open to employees:

i.   Mandatory   retirement   ii.
Voluntary retirement