



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

91, Cadastral Zone, University Village Jabi, Abuja

DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

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COURSE TITLE: INDUSTRIAL/ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Course Writers:

Jayeoba, Foluso Ilesanmi, PhD
(Lagos State University)

Lawal, Olufemi Adigun, PhD
(Lagos State University)

Course Editor:

Programme Coordinator:

Martha Oruku
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Head of Department:

Dr. (Mrs.) Yemisi I. Ogunlela
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Dean of Faculty:

Dr. Timothy O. Ishola
(National Open University of Nigeria)

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MODULE 1: INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY, LEARNING AND ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

UNIT 1. MEANING OF INDUSTRIAL/ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Industrial Psychology as a sub-field of Psychology dated to the work of some notable writers such as Hugo Munsterberg, Fredrick Taylor, Leta Mayo, Abraham Maslow and so many others whose works are focused on the issues of man at work, functioning either as individuals or in groups. Our lives as individuals revolve around industries and organisations from where we sojourn either as workers or owners of businesses to make ends meet. Since the home, church, market place, shopping malls, and schools are all forms of organisation, there is no escaping the grip of the rules, relationships that range from the very simple to complex forms and the conforming structures and processes that are features of organisations. In the same vein, industries are forms of organisation and although they are commonly associated with machines and equipments, man is an important component.

Because of the pervasiveness of industries and organisations, Industrial/Organisational Psychology as a scientific discipline seeks to study the impact of organisations on man and vice versa.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- * Understand the meaning of Psychology
- * Understand the meaning and the distinction between Industrial Psychology and Organisational Psychology
- * Appreciate the goals of Industrial/Organisational Psychology
- * Know in brief, some of the other sub-fields of psychology.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF PSYCHOLOGY

Human behaviour holds a lot of charm for all and sundry. Philosophers such as Socrates and Plato speculated a lot about human behaviour. There are many puzzles as well as several rightly or wrongly held myths and believes about human behaviour.

Puzzles such as:

- i. How do we remember things?
- ii. Why do we dream?
- iii. How and why do drugs alter human consciousness?
- iv. What will cause someone to taking his/her own life, via suicide, or take the life of others via gun shots or what is the origin of extreme behaviour like suicide bombing?
- v. What makes individuals such as Boko Haram members become social misfits?
- vi. Why will several ranks of the military continue to obey Abacha even when murderous orders were involved?
- vii. Why will a sergeant Roger pull the trigger on eminent civilian like Kudirat Abiola in the name of order from above?

Also **myths** and widely held **believes** that are either right or wrong such as:

- i. Intellectual ability declines rapidly with ageing,
- ii. People with exceptional abilities or IQ are often poorly adjusted to society,
- iii. Consistent use of rod can correct errant children's behaviour,
- iv. Whistling in the afternoon summons demons or snakes, and
- v. Anyone standing in the doorway during rainfall risks being thunderstruck.

Many people carry some of these puzzles and held believes into their daily lives and interactions with others. In extreme cases, prejudices and stereotypes are built on faulty premises and assumptions about other natives, ethnic groups and nationalities. Psychology, as a scientific field of study, is aimed at interrogating

these beliefs and assumptions, making meaning out of human thinking, dreams, puzzles and prejudices by means of empirically verifiable methods and logical proofs.

The term Psychology is a combination of two words; *Psyche* which means the mind and *Logos* which means word. In the past, psychology is deemed as the study of the mind and mental life. At the turn of the 1920s however, many psychologists such as J B Watson began to view the mind as something that is unobservable and difficult to subject to scientific study. Within the same ambit of time however, Sigmund Freud (1934) proposed a method for the study of human mind called psychoanalysis. The implication of which is that both covert (unobservable) and overt (observable) behaviours can be studied. Modern Psychology according to Kosylin & Rosenberg (2001) is the scientific study of human behaviour and mental processes.

Psychology as a field of study has grown in leaps and bounds, especially in developed countries such as Germany, Russia and America where several fields of practice have been identified and classified. There are over 50 fields of practice and subdivisions and by the turn of the 20th century psychology rated as one of the topmost professions in America ranking with education, political science and philosophy (Ruckmich, 1912). The growth had continued unhindered in developed countries. In developing countries like Nigeria, the study of psychology has continued to gain appreciable ground both as academic discipline and profession.

3.2 MEANING OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Industrial Psychology as a subfield of study initially focused mainly on individuals at work. The principal concern was about individual differences at work. This focus was as a result of the concept of man as mere factor of production. This approach was influenced by Taylorism whose mechanistic conception of work pitch man as sharing narrow roles in productivity after work has been divided and the one-best way was found to improve productivity through appropriate connectivity between productivity and reward (Taylor, 1911). It was common to dig around issues such as staffing and training and traditional psychological studies of individual differences covering intelligence, personality, sensation, perception, learning and abnormal work behaviour.

3.3 MEANING OF ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Industrial Psychology as an academic discipline started with the pioneering works of Leta (1913) who published the first known book about managing human behaviour in industrial organisations and Gilbreth & Gilbreth (1917) who writing about the same time as Frederick Taylor reported their studies on motions studies. By the scope and results from Elton Mayo and colleagues work in the 1930s, it was soon apparent that man's contribution to work is regulated by factors beyond the individual (Mayo, 1933). Equally of note was the application, as far back as 1920s, of classical conditioning to advertising where TV commercials and logo are paired with attractive models and celebrities as promoted by J. B. Watson. Informal groups at work and such issues as group morale, social conformity, attitudes and the generally observable changes that both physical and social aspects of the work place represents and other scenarios such as structure, processes and people became topical issues which are codified as Organisational Psychology. Organisational Psychology thus began as a separate field of study different and independent of Industrial Psychology.

Another influence at this point is the contributions and application of Social Psychological studies to work places. While Industrial Psychologists were focussing on individuals at work, Organisational Psychologists shifted concerns to influence of group and group processes at work. The American Psychological Association, a body regulating the practice of psychology in America however merged the two set of psychologists into what is now the Industrial/Organisational Psychology Division 14 in 1990s. The sub-field is now simply referred to as 'I/O Psychology'. It is one of the several sub-fields of psychology and its goals are basic as in general psychology, which are to measure, describe, explain, predict and control human behaviour at work for the overall benefit of man, entrepreneur and society in general.

Industrial/organisational psychology, also called workplace psychology, is a systematised and specialised body of knowledge about human behaviour in industries and organisations. It is germane to ask the question at this point, what then is work? The array of goods and services generated as a result of organised effort, called work, is awesome. Work involves the deliberate use of physical, emotional and mental energy to produce utilities. Harnessing these energies have led to production of tangible goods such as agricultural products putting food on tables, automobiles for mobility, energy as bare bone for domestic and industrial uses, telecom equipment for

communication, textiles for clothing and such a wide varieties of other goods; also intangible goods such as legal, social psychological or counsel, health care, security, education and so forth. To do this certain basic inputs such as land, raw materials, energy, information, capital, equipment/technology and people. Work produces jobs which are organised or deliberately designed group of activities composing of units of tasks, duties, responsibilities within the context of peculiar conditions and rules which significant amount of influence on performance and gives coherence to attainment of set goals and objectives.

According to Cascio and Aguinis (2005) organisations are all around us as businesses, hospitals, political parties, government (civil and public service) international and nongovernmental organisations, military/defence formations, social clubs, churches, Boy and Girl Scouts and schools. Industries on the other hand are organised body of people, structure, equipment/technology and processes aimed at manufacturing utilities for human consumption. Organisations basically offers services whether tangible or intangible, the outcome of which societies of man depend upon to achieve the important objectives of modern living which includes attainment of fundamental rights to decent food, water, shelter, education, protection and other life's socio-political, psychological and career aspirations. Whether as industries and organisations, the common denomination is the presence of people acting, thinking and feeling in particular ways that are significant to the attainment of the goals and objectives of the entities in which they are a part of the whole.

3.4 BASIC ISSUES IN I/O PSYCHOLOGY

With the background already provided, the rest of the chapter will now focus on salient issues that engage the attention of I/O psychologists. The issues are many and can only be briefly touched upon in an introductory course of this nature. The issues selected for brief discussion are:

- i. Assessment of human attributes at work
- ii. Work and Job design
- iii. Selection and placement of people on jobs
- iv. Training and learning at work
- v. Performance appraisal
- vi. Organisational change and development
- vii. Ergonomics, equipment design and man-machine fit
- viii. Attitudes, attitude measurement, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship, work motivation and performance
- ix. Social and interpersonal skill; self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, leadership, assertiveness, negotiation, communication, mentoring
- x. Self-Assessment, Career choice and development
- xi. Industrial accident, safety and health

3.5 GOALS OF PSYCHOLOGY

Understanding human behaviour, from a scientific point of view, is the overall goal of Psychology. This broad, all-important goal involves five basic activities:

i. Measurement of behaviour: Much of the work of psychologists involve measuring of concepts, attributes, characteristics or variables that impact or conditions human behaviour. The psychological processes, concepts or attributes that are regularly measured are; anxiety, learning attitudes, abilities, intelligence, creativity, interest, perception, sensation, emotion, and so forth. Measurement

ii. Describing: Attributes or concepts that are so measured are classified, identified, or categorized in terms of their salient features, or characteristics. While doing this, the concept/attribute is being described.

iii. Explanation: This mean adducing reason(s) to why people think, feel, or act the way they do. It is one of the major goals of any scientific discipline and this may be achieved through formulation of theories. A theory provides explanatory framework, by organizing facts in a meaningful pattern that lend itself to logic and reasoning.

iv. Prediction: The goal of predicting behaviour is underscored by the need to take decisions that will be valid for now and in the future. This effort relies heavily on objective and accurate measurement of attributes to be so predicted.

v. Control: Another equally important goal is the need to; based on predicted behaviour, encourage frequent occurrence of desired behaviour and stoppage of undesired ones. The professional psychologist, just like physiologist uses knowledge from medical research to treat illness, seeks to apply knowledge from Psychology to bring about changes in behaviour.

3.6 SUB-FIELDS OF PSYCHOLOGY

According to Jayeoba (2008), Psychologists apply their training in different areas of endeavour. For anybody to practice as a psychologist in any field he requires at least an M.Sc degree in psychology. The fields of practice are outlined and briefly explained below.

(i) **Clinical Psychologist:** The clinical psychologist comes close to many people's idea of what a psychologist is. They are "doctors" who diagnose psychological disorders and treat them using psychotherapy. The clinical psychologist is different from a psychiatrist. The main difference being that the psychiatrist holds a degree in medicine while a clinical psychologist holds an M.Sc, M.Phil or PhD. In addition, the psychiatrist uses drug in treating behaviour disorder while the clinical psychologist uses psychotherapy in psychology. A clinical psychologist may practice privately or work in government hospital or mental homes. Both clinical and counselling psychology have been described as healing professions since both diagnose and treat abnormality in human behaviour.

(ii) **Counselling Psychologist:** This work is almost similar to that of a clinical psychologist. Also in terms of training they are similar. The main difference is that counselling psychologists work with people of milder emotional problems. He uses tests to measure traits like intelligence, interest, aptitude and personality characteristics based on which he has insight into people's problem and counsel on adjustment strategies. The counselling psychologist may be involved in private practice or employed in schools or public service. They have different areas of focus depending on the category of problem they choose to tackle; adolescents problems, marital problems etc.

(iii) **Experimental Psychologist:** The experimental psychologist is primarily engaged in research using experimental method. His work need not directly apply to practical problems. The value of his work lies in others finding useful application of his theories and propositions. They are found in universities, social research centres, etc.

(iv) **Physiological Psychologist:** The psychologist is a specialist in research into physiological problems. His focus is on issues bothering on physiological basis of behaviour e.g. the brain, and the nervous system as they affect behaviour. His method is basically experimental and may use animals, such as rat and monkeys to infer human behaviour.

(v) **Industrial-Organisational Psychologist:** As the name implies, the psychologist applies psychological principles, procedures, theories and insight to tackling industrial and organizational problems especially as they relate to the human aspect of the organization. He is involved in personnel recruitment, training, motivation, business administration, marketing strategies, communication, job counselling, as researcher and lecturer in universities, consultancy, etc. He is sometimes referred to as *Personnel psychologist* and functions in administrative management position in both public and private sectors of the economy. In America, the I/O Psychologists is in high demand especially because of flexible application of their skills and earns a mean annual salary of 125,980 USD annually, only next to the Psychiatrist.

(vi) **Social Psychologist:** The social psychologist applies psychological principles and theories in understanding human behaviour in social setting. His scope of interest is wide and covers issues like attitude and attitude change, people perception or perceptual stereotypes, determination of influence and power, conformity etc. In the field, he works side-by- side the sociologists and uses psychological instruments to determine people's attitude to political, ethnic or racial issues.

(vii) **Developmental Psychologist:** Developmental psychologists try to understand complex human behaviour by studying the onset of a behaviour pattern and the orderly way in which they change over time. He may specifically be interested in change as they occur across ages. Psychologists studying behaviour changes occurring in earlier years are called child psychologists. On the whole, developmental psychologists are interested, not only in the etiology of behaviour, (normal or abnormal) but seek to understand its progress, effects and mode of sustaining (if normal) or terminating (if abnormal) such behaviour. The developmental psychologist can also focus exclusively on areas like child psychology – e.g. prenatal, neo-natal and infancy, adolescence, adult or old age / psychology or ageing. He may also be concerned with certain features of development e.g. cognitive, physiological or emotional development.

(viii) **Engineering Psychologist:** The engineering psychologist or ergonomist is interested in the position and interaction of man with machines of varied complexities used in industries and organizations. His

concern is how, through anthropomorphic measurements, to match human traits and attributes to the design and use of machines. In brief, his main focus is on man- job fit and so his area of concern spans organisational design, designs of environment of work, job- design and equipment design. He may work directly in industries and organisations or as consultant ergonomist.

(ix) **Forensic Psychologist:** Involved in criminology and legal issues relating to investigation and prosecution of criminals. That is, using psychological insight to gain confession to crimes without resort to torture and abuse of human right. They forensic psychologist also assist in managing after-effects of acquittal and conviction.

(x) **Military Psychologist:** Like the name implies, he function in military setting in different capacities, as counsellor, ergonomist or in the use of psychological principles and procedures, to select, train and deplore military personnel. Indeed psychology as a discipline, first gained popularity in the use of psychological tests to select personnel, for military training during the World War II and has since played important roles in army recruitment, training and other military operations.

(xi) **Community Psychologist:** A relatively new area, dealing with use of psychological principles, ideas and procedures to solve community based problems vis-à-vis helping people to adapt to their work and living groups. It is a bit difficult to describe one individual psychologist as a community psychologist; this is because psychologists in different sub-fields may function to solve community-based problems.

Indeed, there are as many as 49 sub-fields of Psychology as classified by the *AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION*. These are:

Table1.1: Fields of Psychology

General Psychology	Psychopharmacology and Substance Abuse
The society for the teaching of psychology	Psychotherapy
Experimental psychology	Psychological Hypnosis
Evaluation, Measurement, and Statistics	State Psychological Association Affairs
Behavioural Neuroscience and Comparative Psychology	Humanistic Psychology
Developmental Psychology	Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities
Society for Personality and Social Psychology	Population and Environmental Psychology
Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues	Psychology of Women
Psychology and the Arts	Psychology of Religion
Clinical Psychology	Child, Youth and Family Services
Consulting Psychology	Health Psychology
Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology	Psychoanalysis
Educational Psychology	Clinical Neurophysiology
School Psychology	American Psychology – Law Society
Counselling Psychology	Psychologists in Independent Practice
Psychologists in Public Service	Family Psychology
Military Psychology	Society for the Psychological Study of Lesbian and Gay Issues
Adult Development and Aging	Society for the Psychological study of Ethnic Minority Issues
Applied Experimental and Engineering Psychologists	Media Psychology
Rehabilitation Psychology	Exercise and Sports Psychotherapy
Society for Consumer Psychology	Group Psychology and Group Psychotherapy
Theoretical and Philosophical Psychology	Addictions
Experimental Analysis of Behaviour	Society for the Psychological study of Men and Masculinity
History of Psychology	International Psychology
Society for Community Research and Action: Community Psychology	

4.0 CONCLUSION

Industrial/Organisational Psychology offers valuable contribution and a repertoire of knowledge of man in work situations. The ranges of issues covered are broad and germane to the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour at and off work.

5.0 SUMMARY

The importance of man as individuals and group at work is the focus of I/O Psychology. It is one of the several sub-fields of psychology and its goals are basic as in general psychology, which are to explain, describe, predict and control human behaviour at work for the overall benefit of man, entrepreneur and society in general.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. You are to go online, download or search in libraries for first hand reading and appreciation of the following classical contributions to the field of I/O Psychology. The writings of:
 - i. Elton Mayo's Hawthorne experiment on the influence of physical conditions on productivity
 - ii. Fredrick Taylors Principle of Scientific Management
 - iii. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, and
 - iv. Musterberg's Psychology of Industrial Efficiency, and
 - v. Gilbreth et al's Applied Motion Study.
2. Summarise the thrusts of the writings in i – iii and criticise in the light of current common practices in Nigerian Industries and Organisations bringing your own unique experiences into bear.

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UNIT 2. RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND PLACEMENT

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Recruitment, Selection and Placement
 - 3.2 Recruitment
 - 3.3 Decruitment
 - 3.4 Sources of skills, knowledge and aptitudes
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The staffing function is one of the main activities of Personnel Psychologists in particular and I/O Psychologists and other trained human resource management experts. The gateway to the organisation is via the staffing activities of the human resource department. It is an important job role that incorporates three distinctive activities.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- * Understand the meaning of recruitment
- * Understand the meaning of selection
- * Understand the meaning of placement

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND PLACEMENT

The staffing function apart from being the very first point of contact of all employees with the organisation is one of the oldest human resource functions and it covers three distinct but interrelated issues of **recruitment**, **selection** and **placement**. In fact, staffing as a process went beyond the actual attraction of people, picking among them and placing them on the job. It includes manpower planning and job analysis. The following analogy will explain the connection among the staffing processes. The fisherman cannot determine the precise kind of fish other than the fact that he may have behind his mind *what* type, size or quality of fish he will desire to have. Just the same, he will cast the net into the sea and will likely come up with wide variety of fishes (tilapia or shark; harvestable and fingerlings), crabs, prawns and snakes perhaps. At the bank the fisherman will settle down to pick out of the lot the fishes that meet his set mode. Recruitment starts at identifying the right spot of the river to cast the net, casting and bringing the net to the bank. Selection is about what is done to disallow the shark and or snake of a worker from sneaking into the organisation as well as weeding out obviously unwanted crabs and prawns which will only be useful in another context.

Recruitment. This is not exactly the same as selection. In fact, recruitment simply means the process of seeking and attracting a large pool of likely knowledge, skills, talents and experiences for consideration for appointment; that is, like casting and bringing the content of the net to embankment. This is done through advertisement in various media, using news paper pages, professional, referrals, word of mouth, journals, magazines, employment centres, scouting, internet platforms and unsolicited application. Thus recruitment is only one of the steps involved in staffing

Selection. Selection on the other hand means determining among the so-recruited, the best possible hand for the position advertised. Selection is a rigorous exercise involving a number of steps such as aptitude test, interview, reference check and medical test. It involves rigorous step which must be taken to screen out the desirable from undesirable (who are bound to apply) job candidates. A single shark of an employee when undetected may draw unremitted pound of flesh and blood from the organisation. Some organisation doesn't survive the corruptive and ruining influences of sharks!

Placement. This only involve putting the right worker on the right job; that is, putting the round peg in a round hole. Worker must be placed in the job on which they can best perform. This can be achieved;

- i. by giving interest/personality inventories to determine area of interest, aptitude and best fit
- ii. by placing the new recruit on all possible job position, and using his relative performance rating to place him in his area of highest rating.
- iii. An all rounded orientation programme.

3.2 RECRUITMENT

Every organisation has what could be described as optimum skill requirements. This in reality differs from the available incumbent skills by either plus or minus. Human resource planning is to balance this mix.

Why do organisations always need people? There is no foreclosing the fact that an organisation as an organism, that is a living, dynamic and growing entity will always need people to renew, replace, reinvent and refurbish the organisational processes for optimum performance. In practical and specific terms, organisations need people periodically for the following listed reasons:

- i. Because death of employees is sadly inevitable
- ii. Dearth of some skills
- iii. Poor funding of the training function
- iv. Retirement
- v. Sack
- vi. Turnover
- vii. Expansion in business
- viii. New technology
- ix. Mergers and acquisition
- x. Diversity/quota system
- xi. New ownership structure

Recruitment is a deliberate effort involving serious and concerted planning and budgeting to anticipate costs at every stage of the recruitment and selection. Planning the recruitment programme involves the following basic components:

1. Job analysis to determine the core activities engaged in by workers; that is the duties, tasks, responsibilities, working conditions and hazards and assessment of human requirements of all jobs including the knowledge, skills, aptitudes, attitudinal dispositions, experiences and other human attributes required to succeed on the job positions delineated in each of the departments and units of the organisation.
2. Manpower planning involving a number of essential and basic processes of organisational analysis to determine whether there are deficiencies of skills, reconciliation of present and future needs through scientific forecasting of the labour market supply and demand matrix, planning human resource actions
3. Recruitment via announcement of vacancies and finding means of attracting from the labour market those who are qualified and willing to fill the vacancies.
4. Selecting from among the applicants those who have the best probability of succeeding on the jobs
5. Putting selected candidates on the job roles

3.3 DECRUITMENT

The other approach to controlling labour supply is decruitment, which is not exactly a pleasant experience for the officer in charge of such brief. It means working out how to overshoot the optimum manpower requirement of an organisation, which comes by way of overmanning.

The options available to the manager according to Robbins & Coutler (2007) are:

1. Firing. Permanent involuntary termination of an employee's appointment
2. Layoffs. Temporary involuntary termination of employment which may last for a few days, weeks, months or years.
3. Attrition. Not filling openings created by voluntary resignations or normal retirements.
4. Transfers. Moving employees either laterally or downward to reduce intra-organisational supply-demand imbalances and not necessarily costs.
5. Reduced workweeks. Employees work for fewer hours per week, share jobs, performs their jobs on part-time basis, or work from home.

6. Early retirements. Providing incentives to older and more senior employees for retiring before their normal retirement date.
7. Job sharing. Having employees share one full-time position

3.4 SOURCES OF SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE AND APTITUDES

When organisations target recruitment, they are not just aiming at absorbing people. The goal is to infuse knowledge, skills and job specific aptitudes, attitudes and other unique human attributes that are not readily substitutable by machines and equipment.

In Nigeria there are some veritable sources of these and they include new graduates from primary, secondary and tertiary institutions, useful skills and experiences from informal labour market sector, employees looking out for new opportunities, NYSC, internees/students on industrial attachment, retirees, returnees from diasporas and other sources.

3.5 SOURCES OF RECRUITMENT

These are broadly divided into two; knowledge, skills and aptitudes existing within the organisation (the internal labour market) and those in the external labour market.

Internal labour market. Internal labour market sources include transfer, promotion, job rotation, recommendation of labour union, training and skill upgrading, job redesigning by either enlargement or slimming, or job reclassification.

External labour market. External labour market sources include unsolicited applications, recommendations of present employees, walk-ins, referrals, employment agents/agencies, redundant workers, labour union centres, poaching, job fairs, scouting, nepotism and leasing.

3.6 METHODS OF RECRUITMENT

Recruitment simply means the process of seeking and attracting a large pool of likely skill for consideration for appointment. The moment it is decided that new hands are required to man vacant job positions in the organisation, various approaches and methodologies can be used to notify and attract the public about available job openings. This is done through advertisement in various media (print and electronic), using employment centres, internet and unsolicited applications.

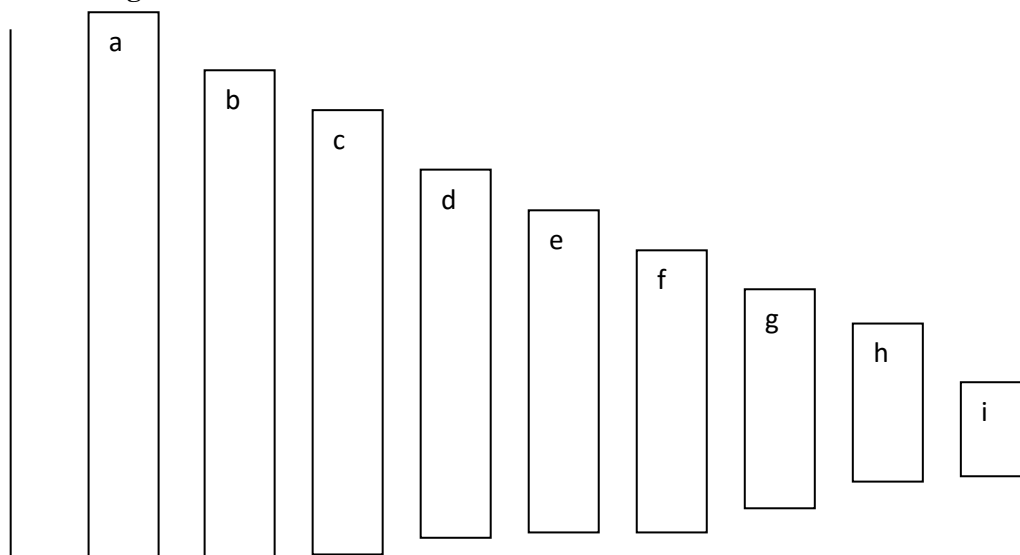
3.7 SELECTION

Selection on the other hand means determining among the so-recruited, the best possible hand for the position advertised. Selection is a rigorous exercise involving a number of steps. In fact, selection as a process went beyond the actual attraction of people, picking among them and placing them on the job. It includes job analysis, recruitment, and all the steps discussed below. Thus recruitment is only concerned with bringing in applications of prospective job candidates, and the rest of the steps discussed below relates to another stage in the hiring process.

3.8 STAGES IN SELECTION

There are at least, depending on the size and nature of the organization, budget and the number of applicant showing interest in the available job position, nine stages in the selection process. They are not necessarily sequential stages but may occur in the order preferred by the organisation.

Fig2.1: Selection stages



a. **Preliminary interview.** Usually exploratory, it is suitably used where number of applicant is manageable. Preliminary interview further serves as part of screening of those who are qualified enough to participate in the rest of the selection process/stages.

b. **Application blank.** Thoughtfully designed with attributes required on the job in mind relevant biographical data are also obtained through the blank. It's useful in subsequence interview.

c. **Second interview.** It is often done to clarify issues arising in the application blank.

d. **Psychological testing.** Psychological tests are designed on different human attributes and the choice of test(s) depends on attributes that are necessary for the job in question. They give greater insight than results are generally more valid and reliable than most measure.

e. **Work history.** This has to do with examining the relevance of earlier job experiences of applicants. This is important in a job in which experience is needed and advertised.

f. **Reference check.** Opinions of former employer(s) and or people of eminent status are obtained. This, though not so reliable a measure, because no one will name a referee that will give negative comments, may provide useful insight in helping to reach decision to employ or not. In our current world of free-flow of information enabled by ITC, what you say online can come back to haunt you. Organisations now use Google, MySpace, LinkedIn and Facebook, WhatsApp to check out applicants and current employees. Information such as age, marital status, fraternity pranks, stuff you wrote, political affiliations and so forth. The legal, social and ethical implications, the positive and negative consequences and the guidelines for using such information for making employment decision should be the focus of HR research in Nigeria.

g. **Medical examination.** This is done to examine the physiological state and fitness of candidates. To check for absence or otherwise illnesses that may impact on efficiency on the job if employed. It should normally be carried out before of employment is given to the prospective applicant. This is to forestall accusation by employee of being discriminated against on the basis of physical infirmity.

h. **Recommendation.** At this point few of the applicants drawn during recruitment are left relative to available positions. This is because at every stage of the selection process some applicants are rejected as indicated by reducing size of bars in fig 2. Those recommended are those that meet most of the criteria for the job positions. They may be in two categories, those that will be given the offer and some kept for precautionary purpose. That is, in case those actually given the offer may not honour it, this group may easily be used as replacement

i. **Offer.** At this point a decision to employ is communicated to successful candidate. Also both parties sign the contract. Also both parties sign the contract of employment usually drawn by employer and other formalities are concluded for the candidate to resume work.

3.9 PLACEMENT

Successful recruitment and selection culminates in placement on workers on the job they are best fit to do and not necessarily the jobs they had applied for. Efforts during placement are devoted to making the new employee suitably absorbed into not just a job position, but both career and lifetime opportunities for use of knowledge, skills, and importantly aptitudes that are latent and may be discovered along the line. Workers must be placed in the job on which they can best perform. This can be achieved;

a. by giving interest inventories to determine area of interest

b. by placing the new recruit on all possible job positions, and using his relative performance rating to place him in his area of highest rating.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Staffing involves sequence of activities of which recruitment, selection and placement are major outposts. The overall goal is to create and implement entry portals for organisation using veritable and scientific modes to comb the labour market for the best possible candidates for the job.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit had explored the meaning of related and often misused terms like recruitment, selection and placement. It is common to find these terms used as synonyms in several writings. Recruitment is limited to bringing job applicants to show interest in the jobs, while selection is determining those who are best suitable for the jobs. The last rung is putting the so selected candidates on jobs they are best suited to doing.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. You are to buy two Tuesday's editions of The Guardian newspaper and study five job advertisements to bring out the salient issues reported in each of the advertisements.
2. You are interested in a job advertised online by a reputable organisation in the Lagos environment, what are the steps you will take to ensure that you are employed by this organisation?
3. What are the legal, social and ethical implications, implications of using information from social media for making employment decision?
4. Why should HRM scholars research these issues in Nigeria?

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UNIT 3: LEARNING AND TRAINING

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of learning
 - 3.2 Meaning of training
 - 3.3 Factors affecting learning
 - 3.4 Training needs determination
 - 3.5 Training methods
 - 3.6 Evaluation of training
- 4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Learning is a key and most used tool for individual growth and organisational development. Learning strategies are encapsulated in all training efforts of organisations. Training is a bonafide activities of the human resource department conducted by industrial/organisational or personnel psychologists with the aim of improving employees' competences for improved productivity and organisational development.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you are expected to be able to:

- * Make a distinction between the terms 'learning' and 'training' as two distinct but complementary terms
- * Appreciate the importance or rationale for training workers in organisations
- * Understand the factors that are crucial to effective learning experience
- * Have an appreciation of available training methods and how to evaluate their efficacies

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF TRAINING

Learning is a key process in human behaviour. It plays crucial role in language, custom, belief, attitude, personality and perceptions of people. Learning can be defined as any relative change in behaviour occurring as a result of practice or experience. Thus, the basic elements of learning are (i) change of behaviour (ii) change occurring through practice or experience, and (iii) the behaviour change must be relatively permanent. Learning occurs in three ways; informally, that is spontaneously and incidentally and formally through structured processes.

There is a distinction between the terms 'learning' and 'training', even as they are distinct but complementary terms which involves the process and means of injecting new knowledge, skills and attitudes into workers for efficient discharge of their job roles.

Training according to Naylor and Blum (2001) is a process that develops and improves skills related to performance. Effective training programme they said results in increased production, reduced error and labour turnover and greater employee satisfactions. Also, Cascio (2006) views training as consisting of planned programmes designed to improve performance at the individual, group and/or organisational levels. Also Harrison (1988) views training as 'to instruct and discipline in or for some particular art, profession, occupation or practice; to make proficient by such instruction and practice'. In reality, improved performance implies observable, sometimes measurable changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, and or other organizationally/socially acceptable behaviour. Training can equally be described as a human resource and personnel activities designed to facilitate the learning and development of new and existing skills and to improve the performance of specific tasks or roles. Training can be said to incorporate the following:

1. It is a process
2. Can be used to improve/develop skills
3. Can, in all probability, increase production and reduce errors
4. Relates to performance in some ways
5. It is a planned/programmed activity of the human resource department.
6. Can facilitate learning in the area of skill, knowledge and attitude

3.2 FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNING

In brief the factors affecting learning are so numerous and has to do with the environment, the learner and the tutor as reflected in the figure below, they can however be classified as internal and external factors:

Fig 3.1: Factors influencing the learning process

External factors

Rewards and punishments, relationships
Environment: Learning context, distractions,
workplace, facilities, tutors, methods,
inhibitions, etc

Internal and external factors often constantly affect each other

Internal factors

IQ, perception, memory, motivation, attitudes, emotions, personality, forgetting, etc

Inhibitions. There are two types of inhibitions (i) retroactive inhibitions; that is, previously learnt experience or material interacting to mask or disrupt the recall of newly learnt material (ii) proactive inhibition; that is materials exposed to after learning may affect the recall of previously learnt material.

Forgetting. This means either temporary or total loss of material previously learnt.

IQ. Higher IQs are able to learn and recall better than low IQs

Distraction. It is believed that distraction arising from the environment of learning e.g. background noise, heat etc have negative effect on learning.

Individual differences. There are factors in learning that are inherent in the learner. For instance, while some learns quickly, others may take longer time in learning similar material. Also, motivations to learn and interest are personality variables that will ultimately affect learning.

3.3 LEARNING THEORIES

Psychologists have been interested in the intriguing processes involved in human learning. As a result of such efforts; a body of knowledge has built up which describes the principles and processes involved in learning. Important learning theories are **behavioural**, **social-cognitive** and **information processing theories**. Theories provide explanatory frameworks for understanding crucial variables in an experience or phenomena.

Behavioural theories. Two notable approaches are presented which are *classical* and *operant* conditioning principles.

a. Classical Conditioning. The classical conditioning approach was promoted by the work of Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) who earned the Nobel Prize experiments on the activities of the dog's salivary gland relative to different types of food accidentally discovered that dogs began to salivate - at the presence (sight) of food, food dish, smell or even the person delivering the food -long before food was placed in their mouths. The initial puzzle was; why do salivation, though a reflex response which is largely involuntary and automatic response to an external stimulus, occur at mere sight or smell of food? He interpreted the salivation as neither inborn nor biological but *acquired* through experience and a form of *learning*. A major revolutionary discovery about the principle of human learning has been made. This type of learning was described by Pavlov as *classical conditioning*. Classical conditioning is learning that occurs when a neutral stimulus (NS) becomes paired (associated) with an unconditioned stimulus (UCS) to elicit a conditioned response (CR). The learning scheme can be presented in three stages:

1 st Stage:	UCS	→	UCR
	(Meat)		(Salivation)
2 nd Stage:	UCS + NS	→	UCR
	(Meat) (Bell)		(Salivation)
3 rd Stage:	CS	→	CR
	(Bell)		(Salivation)

In the first stage meat is seen bringing about salivation which is the natural, inborn and biological response. In the second stage, pairing of meat and bell which is a neutral stimulus (because it is not capable of igniting salivation on its own) brings about salivation. In stage three, mere sounding of bell (now a conditioned stimulus because of association with meat), leads to salivation, meaning that the dog had learned to expect food at the ringing of the bell. A student whose performance

improves as a result of being given gifts who continue to show good performance without gifts typifies this kind of situation.

You may wonder how dogs salivating at the sound of a bell apply to you? Classical conditioning turns out to be the basic and fundamental way that all animals, including humans –you and I - learn most new responses, emotions and attitudes. Your love for your parent (or other significant others), hatred and prejudice or drooling at the sight of sweet smelling jolof rice are largely a result of classical conditioning with its pairing between neutral responses and positive or negative stimulus (PNS or NNS) to bring about attraction or withdrawal from the stimulus experience.

Classical conditioning was later further developed by J. B. Watson by emphasizing that behaviour can be studied by only focusing on what is observable. According to him emphasis on unobservable mental processes can only lead to subjective conclusions. His new approach was christened *behaviourism* which summed up behaviour as result of observable stimuli (in the environment) and observable response (behavioural actions).

b. **Operant Conditioning.** Classical conditioning has the power to affect emotions, attitudes, physiology and health, but could neither explain how a behaviour is learnt nor elicited. It only works on behaviours that are automatically triggered. In classical conditioning, the consequences of behavioural responses are not the focus. This is the major point of departure. Operant conditioning was pioneered by Edward L. Thorndike, an American who was studying how animals learn to solve puzzles. He constructed puzzle boxes in which cats learn to either press a lever or pull a string in order to get to a food (reward) in another compartment. The cat pushes, tried to climb or dig the floor and over time learned to press the lever that gives access to the food. Because performance, which was by trial-and-error, improved slowly over time, by gradually eliminating responses that failed to open the door, Thorndike concluded that animals did not learn by ‘insight’ but through a process called instrumental learning.

This means that the cat acts in such a way as to attain an outcome – reach the food. He proposed the **law of effect** which states that ‘in a given situation, a response followed by a ‘satisfying’ consequence will become more likely to occur, and a response followed by an unsatisfying outcome will become less likely to occur’. This simply means that the probability of occurrence of behaviour is strengthened if it is followed by pleasant or satisfying consequences. B. F. Skinner also an American, further popularized behaviourism and coined the term *operant behaviour*, meaning that organisms *operates* on their environment in some ways to elicit responses that produce certain consequences. Operant conditioning according to him is the means by which organisms achieve *personal adaption* to the environment.

Operant conditioning works on the principles of *strengthening* or *weakening* of responses by use of reinforcement which can be either positive or negative. If you tickle a baby and he/she smiles, the probability that you will further tickle the child increases. That is his/her smiles increases (strengthens) the likelihood that you will tickle the child. The smile is the *positive reinforcer*. On the other hand, if a little boy is upset and crying and you hug him and he stops crying. The removal of crying is a *negative reinforcer* and the process is called negative reinforcement because taking away of crying by hugging increases also the likelihood that you will hug him if he cries in future.

In this vein, negative reinforcement is not necessarily punishment. Whereas reinforcement (positive or negative) *strengthens behaviour*, punishment *weakens behaviour*. Reinforcement is important as a way of increasing (desired behaviour) or decreasing or stopping (undesired behaviour). Various schedules of reinforcement are available and of varied efficacy.

Schedules of reinforcement

a. **Continuous schedule.** This means the behaviour is rewarded each time it occurs. It is only useful to establish behaviour in a conditioned operant conditioning process, after which it may produce negative outcome. The individual exposed to continuous reinforcement may become sufficed and reduce or stop responding favourably. The incentive is either insufficient or altogether ignored with regards to the expected behaviour. Just as one can get tired of one’s favourite meal if repeatedly served, continuous reinforcement can produce satiation and reduced responses.

b. *Interval schedule*: Reward is given at specified interval. A parent who sucks her young one, at every four hours is using an interval schedule. The interval could be fixed or variable.

i. Fixed-interval: Regular interval is maintained between successive reinforcements.

ii. Variable-interval. Reward is given at varied intervals. For instance, a variable schedule is being implemented if the mother sucks at an interval such as four hours followed by five hours, by three hours and so forth. That is, each successive interval varies from the next.

c. *Ratio schedules*. In this schedule, desired behaviour is reinforced after specified number of responses. The ratio schedule can be fixed-ratios or variable ratios:

i. Fixed-ratio. If a boy is being trained for correct use of potty he may be rewarded every order time he correctly uses the potty.

ii. Variable-ratio. The same boy may be given reinforcement at the 1st, 3rd, 7th and 8th correct usage of potty. The variable ratio is said to be the most effective schedule in situation requiring higher persistence response rates. All gambling situation involves variables ratio schedule of reinforcement. No wonder gambling behaviour is difficult to break! This is also true of addictive behaviours such as cigarette smoking and drug use. Continuous reinforcement on the other hand, produces more rapid acquisition of a response but with *scalloping* - a situation in which response is higher just before reinforcement. The fixed interval approach produces low frequency of response, especially immediately after reinforcement.

Five important principles of both operant and classical conditioning are: *stimulus generalization*, *stimulus discrimination*, *extinction*, *spontaneous recovery* and *higher-order conditioning*.

i. *Stimulus generalization*. Though the conditioning may be originally with specific conditioned stimulus (such as low-pitched sound), dogs will equally salivate, that is extend response to other sound pitches, high, medium etc. This is called stimulus generalization. The more the stimulus closely resembles the initial conditioned stimulus, e.g. one dog barking in a neighbourhood, the stronger the conditioned response. Fear of police car may extend to all cars with flashlights on their roofs. After learning the word *Daddy* (through operant conditioning), the child tend to refer to all adult men as Daddy.

ii. *Stimulus discrimination*. Organisms will soon learn to distinguish (discriminate) between original CS and similar stimuli if they have enough exposure to both, just little children learn to distinguish the voice of the mother, father and siblings from other people and as you learn to distinguish between your cell phone ring tone and others.

iii. *Extinction*. Learning in general brings about only relatively permanent change in behaviour. Behaviours learnt through classical conditioning can become weakened or suppressed through extinction. This occurs when the UCS is repeatedly withheld whenever the CS is presented. The association is weakened and responses (behaviour) stops.

iv. *Spontaneous recovery*. This means reappearance of a previously extinguished conditioned response. This means that previously learnt experiences, that is, association between UCS and NS, are not completely erased. When the stimulus condition is reintroduced, learning becomes faster. This fact perhaps explain why you suddenly feel excited coming in contact with your old school sweetheart after a long period of separation. Also separated couples often experience sudden 'flareup' of feelings and may be tempted to return to a doomed relationship.

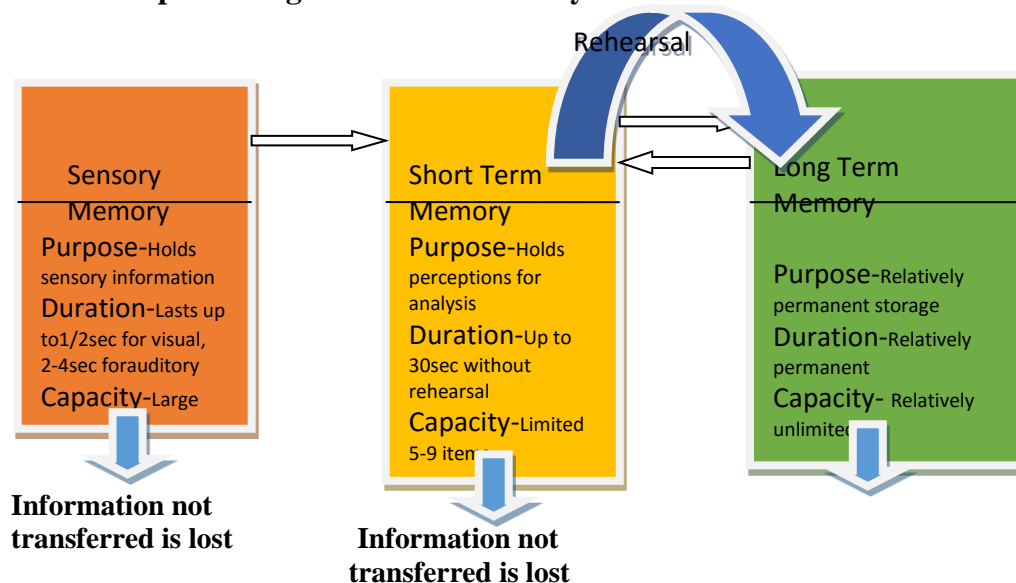
v. *Higher-order conditioning*. Higher-order conditioning explains what occurs when a neutral stimulus (NS) becomes a conditioned stimulus (CS) through repeated pairings with previously conditioned stimulus. For example, on first time encounter of a Yoruba child with an Ibo man (NS), there was no negative reaction. But after repeated pejorative comments by say his father about Ibo people, the Yoruba child will likely begin to respond negatively toward Ibo men.

Social-cognitive Theory. Also called cognitive-social learning or cognitive-behavioural theory, these set of behavioural psychologists belief that behaviour is more than simple S-R (stimulus and response) paradigm, rather thinking and interpretation of stimuli – S-O-R (stimulus-Organism-Response) are bonafide part of the learning process. According to this view, human learning is influenced by multiplicity of factors such as beliefs, attitudes, motivations, expectations and emotions. This is because animals, like man, are social creatures learning new behaviour through observation, imitation and insight.

Information processing theories. The human memory is highly functional and biologically adapted for everyday life by receiving and automatically filtering a barrage of information and selecting, retaining and recovering essential information for our survival. Basically, this is what learning is about in the consideration of information processing theorists. This theory uses the computer metaphor to explain the basic functions of the human memory system by conceiving human learning as composing of two fundamentally important mechanisms; *information storage* and *processing*.

a. *Information storage* involves three main stages which are; *sensory inputs*, *storage* and *retrieval* of information. Learning is viewed as a system involving the input of information, processing (storage, association with old materials in the brain and comprehension/interpretation), and retrieval for several uses like creativity, problem solving and other functional adaptation of the human species. Figure two exemplifies this approach to learning:

Fig 3.2: Information processing and human memory



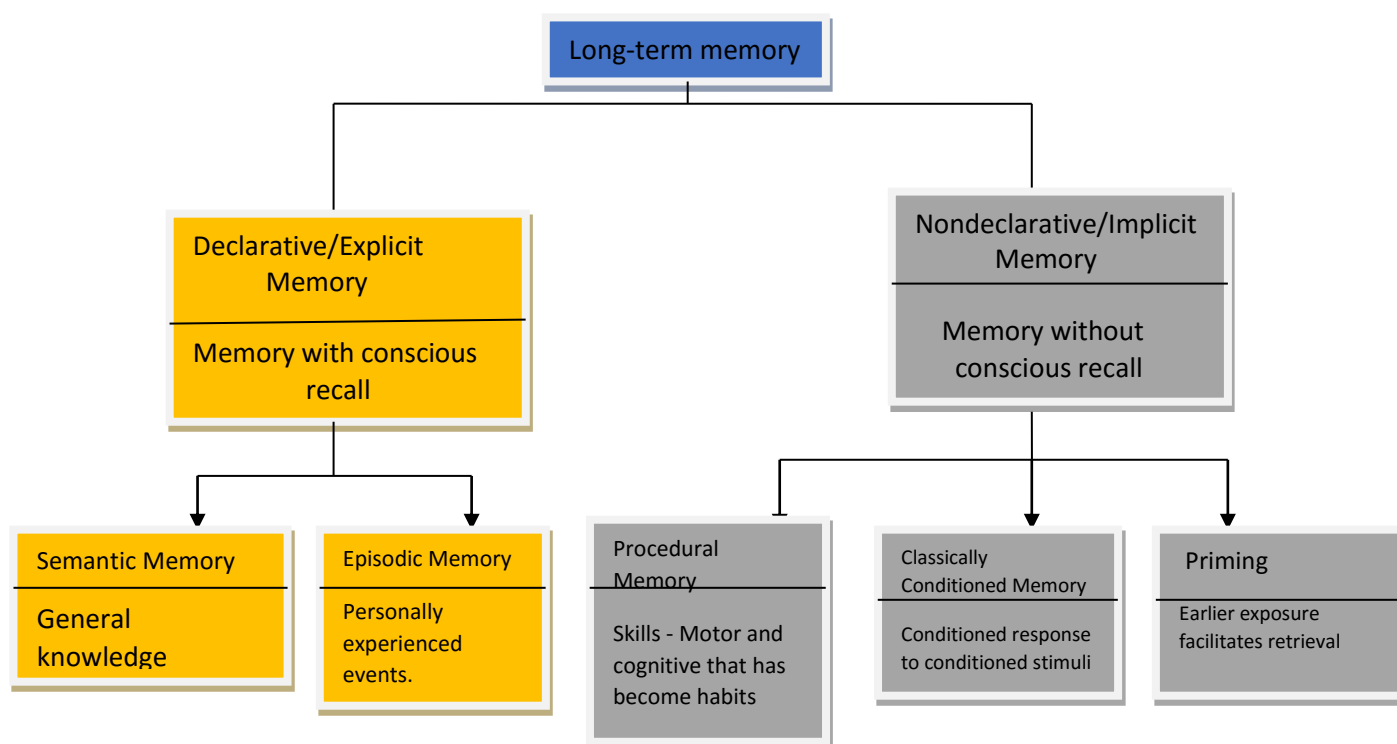
As depicted in figure 3.2, and in the traditional three-stage memory model, each box represents separate memory systems which differ in purpose, duration of information and capacity to store information. The sensory memory (SM) only holds information momentarily before the item of focus and attention is transmitted, so to say, to the short term memory (STM) is active and has been described as working memory because it can receive, hold and process spatial, visual and auditory information and has capacity to for 5-9 items meaningfully received, analysed and made ready for storage in the long term memory (LTM). The capacity of the LTM is infinite and items in this store are deemed to be permanently stored, all things been equal. Information that make it to the LTM are tagged (labelled) and filed in appropriate section of the brain.

b. *Information processing* on the other hand, focused on how information transmutes from the point of reception by sensory organs to usage by *encoding* (translating information into understandable neural codes like languages), *storage* (retaining neutrally coded information over time) and *retrieval* (recovering information from memory storage). For information to last long in the human memory, it must get into the long term memory. This is through rehearsal or practice.

3.4 HUMAN MEMORY

Memory is an internal record or representation of some prior event or experience. Without memory, learning is lost and we have no past but only the present. Memory is one of the most important and valuable mental process. The long term memory interlinked with the short term memory; whenever a thing is recalled, it is brought to the conscious mind (STM) and later returned to the memory store for keeps (LTM). There are at least two basic types or systems of memory; the declarative (explicit) and the nondeclarative (implicit or procedural) memory.

Fig 3.3: Major systems in long term memory



Declarative memory. Declarative memory are of two types; the **semantic memory** hosting factual and general information; rules, events, objective facts, and specific information and **episodic memory** which are mental diary of events and episodes of life that were personally experienced, like high school graduation, wedding ceremonies and the birth of first born. Some of the episodes memories, like what you eat for breakfast or names of casual acquaintances in a ball, are short lived in the memory while others, such as ones first kiss can last a lifetime.

Nondeclarative Memory. Also called memories without awareness, this refers to unintentional learning and is classified into:

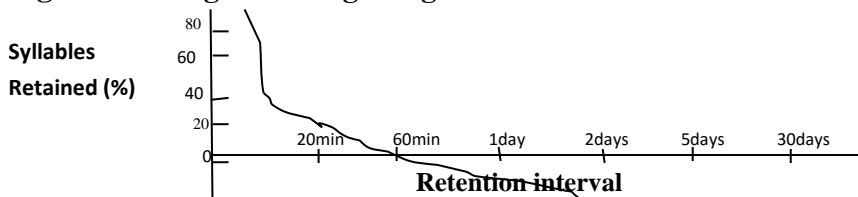
- i. Procedural learning (motor skills) or unconscious knowledge that has become habitual likes tying your shoes, brushing your teeth and driving a car.
- ii. Classically conditioned responses such as fears or taste aversions. For instance if you open a can of drink, pour it into a cup and found crawling maggots inside, your next encounter will automatically remind you of the first experience.
- iii. Priming. This is a situation where first exposure to a stimulus (or prime) facilitates or inhibits the processing of new information. Examples are when romantic feelings are heightened after watching or reading a romantic movie or novel. In a way, dating is a priming experience for courtship as courtship is a priming experience for marriage!

3.5 REMEMBERING VERSUS FORGETTING

Because of the frailties of human memory, many people are plagued by the problem of inability to retain and recall what has been learnt. Information stored in the long term memory can be recalled/retrieved on demand. When such information is easily recalled, it is said that we remembered. Recall, as a term is not the same as remembering. It means being able to retain what is learned, and brings it back from memory. A German psychologist, Hermann Ebbinghaus (1885-1964) pioneered memory research way back 1885. He used himself as a subject studying what he described as nonsense (meaningless) syllables (e.g. SIB, RAL) and came up with a memory curve showing how materials are rapidly lost after they have been perfectly (recalling 100%) learnt. According to him 44% is recalled after 1

hour, 35% a day after and only 21% a week after. With this outcome he arrived at what he called forgetting curve (see fig 3.4).

Fig 3.4: Ebbinghaus' forgetting curve.



Retention and ultimately learning and recall are facilitated by a number of factors. Some of these are:

1. Nature of material learnt. Some materials are simple while others range in level of complexity. In general, simple materials are better recalled.
2. Attention. Attention is determined by the span of time given into sorting and selection of information to be learned. The depth and span of attention vary directly with ability to retain and recall.
3. Practice. It is a fact that practice makes for perfection; practice also called rehearsal is achieved by repeatedly learning a material, or repeatedly exposed to an experience till recall is automatic.
4. Memory. It is believed that individual differences affect the ability to store and retrieve information from memory. People with high intelligence, for instance, have retentive memory and better ability to recall learned material.
5. Interest. Lack of interest in learned material will negatively affect its retention and recall.
6. Organization of learned material. It is believed that learning is not a haphazard task. The brain has its perceptual processes, which are based on certain rules of organization of information in the memory bank.

Exercise. Research and form a brief note on at least four theories of forgetting.

3.6 RATIONALE FOR TRAINING

Organizations provide training for their employees for these and many other reasons:

- To remove performance deficiencies.
- To increase employees competencies.
- To improve quality and quantity of work.
- To prevent skill obsolesces.
- To increase productivity and efficiency.
- To match employees' abilities with the job requirement and organizational needs.
- To bring about team spirit and high morale.
- To induce certain behavioural changes in employees.
- To cope with new technological advancement.
- To prevent accident or improve health and safety.

3.7 TRAINING NEEDS DETERMINATION

Training need determination is addressed to three key issues; initiation of new or improvement on existing *knowledge*, injection of new *skills* and change of *attitude*. Whereas it takes knowledge and skill to excel on a job; attitude is what keeps one on the job to achieve job satisfaction and other appurtenances of quality work life. The determination of training needs is highly essential because it enables the organization to draw up a good plan for training programmes, choose the appropriate training methods as well as the course content. The five components of the needs assessment process are:

- i. Organizational analysis
- ii. Task/Job analysis
- iii. Persons analysis
- iv. Demographic Analysis
- iv. Operational Analysis

i. Organisational analysis.

It focuses on identifying where training is needed within the organisation. This begins with the assessment of the organization's short and long term objectives, goals, resources and environment of the organisation. It focuses on the analysis of human resources needs, organizational strengths and weakness, organization efficiency index, the

rate of absenteeism, labour turnover, grievances, accident, e.t.c. An organizational needs analysis may also include an assessment of the organisation's current climate for training. s objectives.

ii. Task/Job analysis

While organisational analysis is a macro perspective, task analysis is a micro perspective involving a review of job description in which the task, duties, responsibilities and condition under which the job is done is highlighted. This identifies the specific skills, knowledge and behaviour needed to perform the tasks required by present and future jobs. It also reveals the technical nature of the job, the minimum acceptable standards of performance.

iii. Person analysis

This focuses on the job holder. It is aimed at identifying the 'training gaps' or skill deficiencies in the job incumbent. After information about the job has been collected, the analysis shifts to the person. Person needs analysis identifies gaps between a person's current competencies and those identified as necessary or desirable. Person analysis also reflects currency or obsolescence of skills and a need to match skills of employees with evolving technologies and new structures and process of work.

iv. Demographic analysis

The objective of this is to determine the training needs of specific populations of workers. It is to assess whether all employees are given equal access to growth experiences and developmental changes, which are known to be useful on-the-job methods for promoting skill development. For instance, in comparing the development career experiences of men and women, men are likely to be assigned to jobs that present difficult task-related challenges while women are more likely to be assigned to jobs that present challenges caused by obstacles to performance (e.g. difficult boss or lack of support from management).

v. Operational Analysis

This attempts to identify the content of training i.e. what an employee must do in order to perform competently. Operational analysis is an attempt at evolving criteria for training that reflects daily and recurrent issues in different areas of operation. Critical incidences may be catalogued across operational units and synthesize into knowledge, skill and attitude components. These form the content of the training programme envisaged.

3.8 TRAINING METHODS

Training methods can be classified under the following headings:

On-the-job methods. This approach involves introduction of the worker to new set of information and work related skills that are immediately transferable to the work situation. It is often done right on the job and though it may cause some disruption of normal flow of work and take a bit of chunk time from the trainer who is likely to be the boss or supervisor, the advantage is in the instantaneous transfer of learning.

Off-the-job methods. Off the job training makes up for the disruption of flow of work hinted at using on-the-job methods. It is done in preselected venues away from the actual work. Several methods as listed are used. The major advantage is that it comes as an interlude to actual work, but with much interval between learning and practice, spontaneity is lost resulting in reduced transfer of learning. Also the methods may cost the organisation more in terms of logistics, payment to consultants and resource persons and so forth.

Simulation methods. Simulation methods hope to find a bridge between the disadvantages of off and on-the job methods. Simulation methods provide realistic, though contrived, training situations and is useful mainly in training and development programme for managers. The use of case studies, role playing, sensitivity training and so forth are included in simulation.

These three methods of training are generally being used by organizations. Organizations often use a combination of the three methods because no one of them is perfectly sufficient for all the training needs. The choice of training method may be constrained by the type of learning that is to occur (cognitive, skill based or affective) as well as by cost and time considerations. Therefore, the type of training method chosen reflects;

The objectives of training to be accomplished,

The resources available to the organization,

The peculiar nature and characteristics of the individuals to be trained and

The available time.

Table3.1: Training Methods

ON-THE-JOB METHOD	OFF-THE-JOB METHOD	SIMULATION METHOD
Apprenticeship	Vestibule training	In basket
Internships	Conference	Role playing
Assistantships	Lecture or classroom	Sensitivity training
Job Rotation	Programmed instruction	Critical incidents

Mentoring	Extension courses	Business/management games
Coaching	Wilderness trips	Case studies
Understudying	Tutorials	Behaviour modelling
Demonstration	Film/video show	Leaderless group discussion
Work sample	e-learning	Virtuality training
Training manuals		
Shadow executive		
Lateral transfer		
Project/committee assignment		
Staff meetings		

Exercise: Students are to provide detail and updated note on the training methods listed under the headings; off-the-job, on-the-job and simulation.

3.9 EVALUATION OF TRAINING

Training serves certain basic objectives, which are to improve the knowledge, skill (know-how), attitude of workers and bring about change in relevant job behaviours. The ends in sight are improved productivity, efficiency, and effectiveness at work. Training activities is therefore evaluated on the basis of how well these objectives are attained.

In reality training can be evaluated in terms of:

- 1. Process.** This address;
 - a. Effectiveness of trainer
 - b. Trainees newly acquired skills as translated to relevant job behaviour. Also, attendance, effort and involvement of trainee.
 - c. Course or training materials with respect of coverage, depth, language, timeliness and mode of presenting these materials.
 - d. Method, whether fitful to the trainee needs of trainee.
- 2. Outcome.** That is, how performance of trainees compare to pre-training level. Outcome reflects changes in performance level, relevant behaviour and work attitude depending on focus of training.]
- 3. Cost-effect benefit.** Are process and outcome justified in terms of cost to the organisation vis-à-vis adequacy or otherwise of budgetary provision, current and future benefits to individual trainees and the organisation? Training is only successful when benefits out weights the costs.
- 4. Performance on the job.** This is an example of distal criteria measure that is commonly used in organisations to determine workers input within the context of job criteria like productivity, efficiency, quality of work, and so forth.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Learning principles and theories are crucial and form the basic principles upon which training and development activities are built. Learning brings about relatively permanent change in behaviour as a result of acquisition of new set of knowledge, skills and attitudes. For training to be successful training needs has to be diagnosed and a system put in place to implement the training agenda using appropriate methodologies. The effectiveness of training can only be ascertained using systematized measure of the process, costs and outcome.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has provided information that are useful for the understanding of:

- * The concepts of learning and training
- * Factors that are important in learning
- * Training methods and rationale and how to evaluate effectiveness of training programmes.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Training programmes are basically focused on three core activities; providing job specific information, injection of new skills and change of attitude. Discuss with copious examples from real life experiences that you have had.
2. As clearly and as concisely as possible, explain the system's approach to training.
4. Looking at figure 3.1, explain in detail how external and internal factors interact to influence learning.

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UNIT 4. PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
- 3.1 Meaning of performance appraisal
- 3.2 Reasons for performance appraisal
- 3.3 Mode of Appraisal
- 3.4 Performance appraisal methods
- 3.5 Appraisal pitfalls and how to avoid them
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References

1,0 INTRODUCTION

Since organisations are run by people, the performance of organisations therefore is dependent on the sum total of performance of individual members. According to Peter Drucker, 'an organisation is like a tune; it is not constituted by individual sounds but by their syntheses. The success of organisations therefore depends on ability to measure accurately the performance of individuals and use such information to optimize the use of man as vital resource.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you are expected to:

- * Know the meaning of performance appraisal
- * Understand the reasons for carrying out appraisals
- * Know the available appraisal techniques and hoe to use them
- * Determine the common appraisal pitfalls and how to avoid them

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Performance appraisal or performance evaluation is the systematic evaluation of individual employee with respect to job performance. It is targeted at evaluation of performance, personality, and potential of group members. Since performance is about extent of attainment of specific job targets, appraisal assists in evaluating and communicating factors on the job that enhances or hinders goals attainment. It could be carried out.

1. Informally. Supervisors assess subordinates performance continually, in the normal course of work giving feedback on performance and advice on how to improve.
2. Formally. Systematic, orderly, planned and time-indexed activity aimed at record, feedback, advice, reward, promotion and training need identification.

3.2 REASONS FOR PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Performance appraisal serves the following ten objectives:

1. **Employee performance.** It provides opportunity for both superior and subordinate to review the latter's work in term of what is done according to set standard or what falls short of expectation.
2. **Employee Development.** During evaluation training needs are identified. Also potential or capacity to assume greater responsibility may be discovered.

3. **Supervisory understanding.** In formal appraisal, supervisor's review of subordinates work gives him further understanding of tasks, duties and responsibilities as they relate to him and the workers under his span of control. Mutual understanding is therefore enhanced and areas of friction could be worked upon.

4. **Guide to changes.** Appraisal reviews the mode of work, work content and may throw up issues like job reconstruction (i.e. design or redesign) job enlargement and need for new technology or global organisational restructuring. It can also suggest the need to promote, demote, transfer and rotate job.

5. **Wage and Salary Adjustment.** One of the uses of appraisal is to assist in reward of performance of beyond standard. Performance evaluation results have been found useful in the periodic salary review in organisations. For organizations emphasizing performance incentives scheme appraisal assists in directly trying pay to performance.

6. **Validate Personnel Decisions.** The degree to which selection and placement decision are valid can be cross - checked using the outcome of performance appraisal exercise. Scores predicting success on the job, on the basis of which employees were selected, can be easily correlated to appraisal scores. The coefficient of correlation is an index of predictive validity of selected process.

7. **Research Tool.** Outcome of periodic appraisal when properly recorded and analyzed can score as a veritable research tool for organisational change of work mode, selection process training programmes, and indeed the appraisal instrument itself. It also adds to job analysis data

8. **A useful tool in employee participation.** In the past appraisal is a unilateral judgment of subordinate's level of compliment on the job. Modern system duly incorporates feedback, discussion and job counselling. Employees' view, feelings suggestions and sought as a step in decision making and improving morale.

9. **Removing work alienation.** Performance appraisal helps employees to internalize the values and norms of jobs and is useful in counselling on issues, misconceptions and challenges on the job.

10. **Exercising control.** Performance appraisal is a useful tool of managerial control of the process of work by setting clear criteria for reward and sanction.

11. **Achieving equity and justice.** Objective performance appraisal ensures that decisions about work objective, evaluation and reward are based on objective criteria that can be attested to and justified by management.

Exercise. Performance appraisal can be either objective or subjective. Adduce reasons for subjective appraisals in Nigeria drawing from self or others experience that you are aware of.

3.3 MODE OF APPRAISAL

Appraisal involves report on job incumbents in an open or closed reporting system. An open system give appraisal opportunity to agree or reject evaluation while in the close system such opportunity is non- existent. In most system two or more parties are involved.

1. **The appraiser(s) or rater(s).** The boss and a number of relevant others may be involved in assessing the job incumbent.

2. **Appraise.** The job incumbent whose performance is been evaluated

Who does appraisal? This range from job incumbent to the boss and other stakeholders identified below;

1. **Supervisor.** Appraisal is conducted by the boss who work closely with appraisal and who is assumed to have adequate understanding of the job in question.

2. **Peer or Colleagues.** Rating is done by those of equal rank or who are member of the same rating by superior.

3. **Subordinate.** Rating of work related attributes is done by persons of lower job status as subordinate rates his supervisor. An example exists in University system where student rate their lecturers, as an input to the latter's overall assessment.

4. **Self.** Job incumbent rate himself/herself against prescribed job standard. This is suitable in an environment where employee participates in setting or wholly set own job goals.

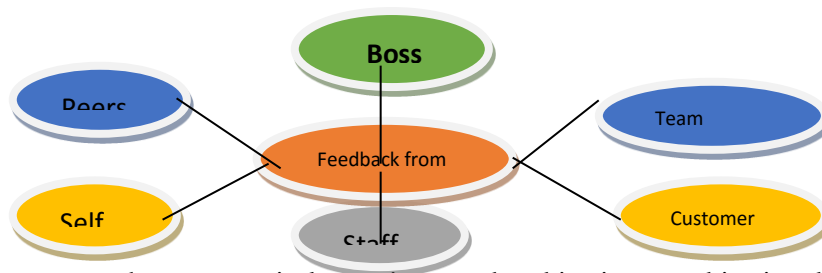
5. **Customer.** Users of services may be involved in the appraisal especially where relevant work behaviours such as promptness, politeness, speed of rendering service and such like is being assessed.

6. **Consultant.** Expert nations may be brought into inject greater objectivity into the appraisal scheme. The expert must however have relevant job knowledge.

7. **Combination of many raters.** The boss has been blame for several forms of appraisal bias. In most cases rating may be based on factor bothering on supervisor- subordinate's interpersonal relationship rather than factor on the job. Adding rating of other s, which may include some of those earlier mentioned makes up for such bias. An appraisal system described as 360 degree appraisal uses input of all relevant stake-holders

who are affected by one's performance and deal with you closely enough to be able to answer specific questions about the way one had interacted with them; self, boss, peers, customers, subordinates and team members to assess job incumbents

Fig 4.1: 360° appraisal showing stakeholders



It is important to note that an appraisal exercise may be objective or subjective depending on the extent to which noted steps and systematic rules and procedures of performance appraisal are adhered to. To do this, appraisal instruments are increasingly focussing on improving employee capacity rather than mere evaluation

3.4 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL METHODS

There are several choices of methods ranging from the simple to the complex, or from qualitative rating to quantitative. These are briefly discussed.

1. **Essay report.** Raters in their own word assess employees with respect to some performance yardsticks. The approach provides ample opportunity for supervisor to state without much restraint all job incidents that he deem relevant to the appraisal. This approach is limited by extent of supervisors' ability to correctly report observations, his memory and language skill is also a limitation. Also inter-rater discrepancies are rampant; making the process not so reliable or valid. It can be improved if report is guided by reference to clear and specific job behaviour.

2. **Ranking.** Assessor uses one particular yardstick to compare a group of workers and rank them from highest to lowest performance. It is most useful where the numbers of workers are few and personally supervised by rater. However it is difficult to assess or analyse people performance along with their potentials and equally compare several people simultaneously.

3. **Forced-choice.** This method asks raters to assess job incumbents in terms of selected objectives describing job behaviours. The objectives are rated along dimensions like outstanding, good, satisfactory and unsatisfactory. The process is easy to understand and appear to overcome some of the problems of the essay type. Several criteria can be assessed and applied to several employees. The major disadvantage is that the rater is forced to rate appraisee favourably or otherwise, which may lead to halo effect or such errors as leniency or central tendency.

4. **Critical incident.** Assessor observes and record relevant incident on the job. These are incidents of outstanding or poor performance, accident and such like. The record is kept over the appraisal period and increases readiness with which appraisee agree with appraiser during feedback and discussion. Feedback is however delayed till appraisal time and behaviours continue that could have been corrected if earlier feedback is given. Also, not many employee want record of poor – performance in black and white however factual or true this may be. Little balance has been found between record of positive and negative incidents. Raters tend to concentrate on either, neglecting the other. This is a major bias and point against the method.

5. **Log book keeping.** The rater, usually the incumbent or the boss is encouraged to keep daily or weekly or monthly diary recording activities and events on the job. The record is made useful in the appraisal period if it is faithfully kept and tap into relevant and salient job related behaviour and activities. It is capable of making up for lapses in memory that may occur in essay or critical incident approaches.

6. **Adjective checklist.** A checklist of all salient behaviour is presented to the rater who is to tick those activities he/she had observed in the course of the appraisal period. The checklist, of course, serves as a memory trigger and can be weighted to achieve quantitative measure of performance.

7. **Graphic Rating.** It is an old method and widely used. Traits or behaviours are rated by attaching certain numerical values. It is devised to eliminate the biases noticed in previous methods. For an example

Ratings can be in the form below:

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------------------|-------|----------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------|
| 1. | Quality of work, | Poor, | Below average, | Average, | Good, | Very Good | and Outstanding |
| 2. | Initiative | „ | „ | „ | „ | „ | „ |
| 3. | Leadership quality | „ | „ | „ | „ | „ | „ |

This approach leads to quantitative measures and an opportunity to rank job incumbents differentially to serve as basis for reward of high performers. The process can be improved by training raters on agreed meaning of terms used to describe job behaviours.

8. **Behavioural Anchored Ratings (BAR).** Emphasis is not on who does the rating but on behaviours that are crucial to performance.

9. **Management By Objective (MBO).** Performance is principally measured against results as derived from well defined work objectives.

10. **Assessment Centres.** Assessment is based on responses to a battery of tests administered by consultants from an assessment centre.

3.5 APPRAISAL PITFALLS AND HOW TO AVOID THEM

The problems are many and varied. Some of which are; according to Ojo (1998)

1. **Problem of reliability.** Is appraisal consistently assessing the same traits over time?

2. **Problem of validity.** Is appraisal assessing the appropriate traits? Are traits or behaviours relevant to job success being assessed?

3. **Selecting relevant traits.** Some traits are difficult to define. Apart from this, it should be clear that selected traits are critical to job success.

4. **Leniency or strictness.** Some raters consistently rate higher (leniency) while others rate low (strictness). This can lead to unfavourable rating where different raters assess different workers or departments. It is important to train raters to avoid this bias

5. **Halo Effect.** This involves rating employee positive or negative on the basis on one quality. That is, one positive or negative quality interacts with ratings on other qualities. Rating all employees on a quality before moving to the next can minimize it.

6. **Central tendency.** This error occurs as a result of pitting rating around the average; neither strict nor generous. Such rater often fails to discriminate between superior and inferior workers. The rater may lack job knowledge, is indifferent, in haste or simple careless.

7. **Recency effect.** Rater put excessive weight on recent behaviour(s) while earlier ones are not brought into appraisal. This happen if appraisal occurs to the end of evaluation period in such a way the behaviours earlier in the years had faded out of memory. Keeping record on an on-going basis can assist in incident (positive or negative) at the beginning of appraisal year constitute the basis for the year –long appraisal?

These biases can be reduced to the barest minimum by the following means;

1. Raters education
2. Choice of appraisal method
3. Using more than one rater
4. Conducting appraisal interview to address appraisee's misgivings

4.0 CONCLUSION

Performance appraisal is a means by which performance of objectives can be assessed using key performance indicators that reflect work objectives and by choice of appropriate method from the range of available options. Appraisal is better done by core stakeholders who understand the job and understand how to avoid common appraisal pitfalls.

5.0 SUMMARY

At this point, it is expected that you would have learnt the following:

- * The meaning of appraisal
- * The rationale for appraisal and the type of individuals used as raters
- * The available methods and how to avoid common appraisal pitfalls.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Mention the available methods of performance appraisal to include some that are not mentioned in this material. Discuss with relevant examples four of these methods.
2. Make an exhaustive list of the many factors that can lead to subjective appraisal. How can we curb these factors from diminishing efforts at objective appraisal?

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UNIT 5. ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
- 3.1 Meaning of organisational change and development
- 3.2 Relationship between organisational change and development
- 3.3 Types of Change
- 3.4 Theories of organisational change
- 3.5 Sources of change
- 3.6 Techniques of change
- 3.7 Resistance to change
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

According to Pattanayak (2012) change is inevitable for every organisation to be healthy and productive while organisational development as a generic term embraces a wide range of intervention strategies into both structural and social processes of an organisation. Organisational development programmes are packaged to drive organisational change agenda. The changes however are aimed at individual, group and total organisational development driven at improving overall performance and effectiveness. Organisational development (OD) is a strategic long-term effort, led and supported by top management to specifically improve on organisation's visioning, empowerment, learning and problem-solving processes through an ongoing collaborative management or organisational culture.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- * Understand the meaning of organisational change and development
- * Become familiar with some theories of organisational change
- * Understand the sources and techniques of organisational change, and
- * Appreciate the use of certain organisational development strategies for achieving specific goals and objectives.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

Organisational change is a radical transformation in the functioning of the organisational processes. It involves reshaping the organisation's structure, culture, processes and other design elements, and can be characterized as both systemic and sometimes revolutionary because the entire nature of the organisation is altered significantly and fundamentally. In Nigeria, we have witnessed such radical transformations first in 1970s when the indigenization decree of 1976 was being implemented by the administration of Murtala Mohammed Olusegun Obasanjo, by which time erstwhile foreign companies are being transformed into indigenous organisations and later years when processes of privatization and commercialization of governmental organisations were taking place. Such semantics as reorganisation, restructuring,

reengineering, downsizing, rationalization, rightsizing, outsources are associated with organisational change in one way or the other.

3.2 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between OC and OD is to the extent that organisations that will manage change effectively, change becomes the driving force that perpetuates future success and growth. This is because change becomes an opportunity for increasing efficiency. OD is systematic OC.

3.3 TYPES OF CHANGE

What can a manager change, aside him/herself? He/she can change three things; the structure, the technology and the people.

- i. *Changing the Structure.* This means reworking or redesigning the work specialization, departmentalization, chain of command, span of control, centralization, formalization, job redesign or actual structural design.
- ii. *Changing Technology.* The work processes, methods and equipment are focus of change.
- iii. *Changing People.* The culture, attitudes, expectations, perceptions and behaviour of individuals and groups are the focus of change.

3.4 THEORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Theories or models provide explanatory framework for the relationship between variables. The theories discussed below give direction for implementation of change programmes by organisations. The change theories are those of Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippit, Jeanne Watson and Bruce Wesley, Burk-Litwin and Fagen and the Systems Theory.

Kurt Lewin's Model. He in the 1940s introduced a model for proper management of an effective change process. Successful change can be planned and the change process was viewed as composing three steps; *unfreezing old behaviour*; that is, the status quo, *change to a new state*; that is, the new behaviour and *refreezing* to make the new behaviour permanent.

- i. *Unfreezing stage.* During this stage preparation, motivation and readiness is created among people to change old behaviour through creation of discomfort or lack of conformation which may cause guilt or anxiety. The change agent has to make provision for psychological safety net while adjusting to the new behaviour. On the, whole unfreezing is to move out of the equilibrium state by increasing the driving forces and decreasing the restraining forces.
- ii. *Moving stage.* The client is assisted to see things, judge them, feel them, and react to them differently based on a new point of view using new role models, mentors and by creating environmental scanning or new and relevant information.
- iii. *Refreezing stage.* The new behaviour is institutionalized in the people's personality, attitudes by use of a reward system that is focused on the new behaviour.

Ronald Lippit, Jeanne Watson and Bruce Wesley's Change Model

Expanding Lewin's model, they expanded the three stages into seven stage model representing the consulting process as follows:

- i. Phase 1: Developing a need for change
- ii. Phase 2: Developing a change relationship
- iii. Phase 3: Clarifying the client's systems problem
- iv. Phase 4: Examining alternative routes and goals
- v. Phase 5: Transforming intentions into actual change efforts
- vi. Phase 6: Generalizing and stabilizing change
- vii. Phase 7: Achieving a terminal relationship with client.

These steps are logical laid out in achieving OD in organisations by consultants.

Burk-Litwin's Model of Organisational Change

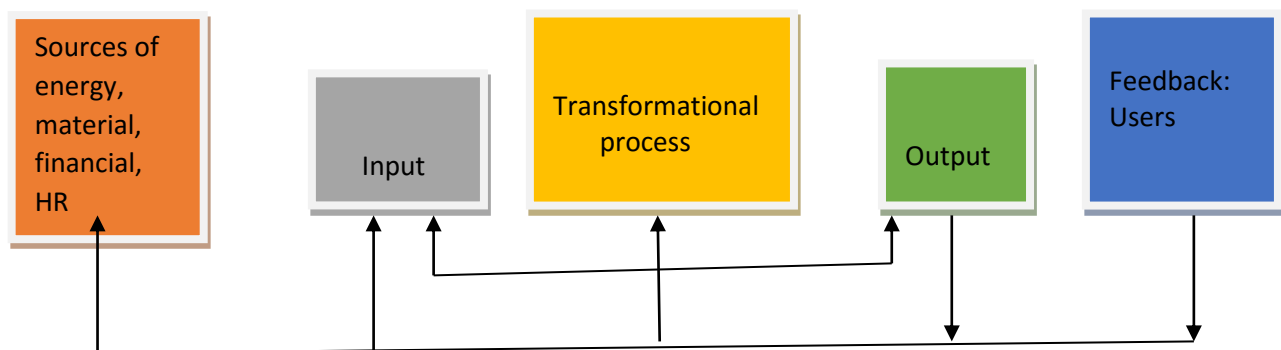
The model is about how to create first and second order change. The first order change occurs with some fundamental characters remaining the same, whereas in the second order change the nature of the organisation is fundamentally and substantially altered leading to crucial organisational transformation. This

model identifies two key aspects of the organisation as the culture and the climate. *Organisational climate* is viewed as people's perceptions and attitudes about the organisation that are easy to change, while *organisational culture* is deep-seated assumptions, values and beliefs that are enduring, unconscious and difficult to change. Using this model OD interventions are directed towards structure, management practices and systems in the first order change and in the second order change interventions are targeted at organisations vision, mission, strategy, leadership and culture leading to enduring and fundamental change. Another aspect of this model is the distinction it makes between transactional and transformational leadership styles. Whereas transformational leaders inspire followers to transcend their self-interest for the good of the organisation, transactional leaders guide and motivate followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying their roles and task requirements.

Fagen's Systems Theory

According to Fagen, a system is a set of objects, together with the relationships between the objects and between their attributes. Systems denote interdependencies and interconnectedness and interrelatedness among elements in the set that constitutes an identifiable whole or gestalt. This idea is depicted in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: A system in interaction with its environment.



Source: French & Bell (1999), adapted

A system operates within the context of an environment. Every system has a distinct boundary. An open system interacts, has goals and purpose and interacts with (influence and is influenced) by the enveloping environment. The need for change can therefore be driven by internal or external processes; that is when there is to realign the input, transformational and output processes. Since outputs are often in terms of goods and services, the customers provide useful feedback that can recommend change internal processes. Equally, evaluation of the connectivity among inputs, transformation and outputs can lead to initiation of change as will be seen in figure 4.2.

3.5 SOURCES OF CHANGE

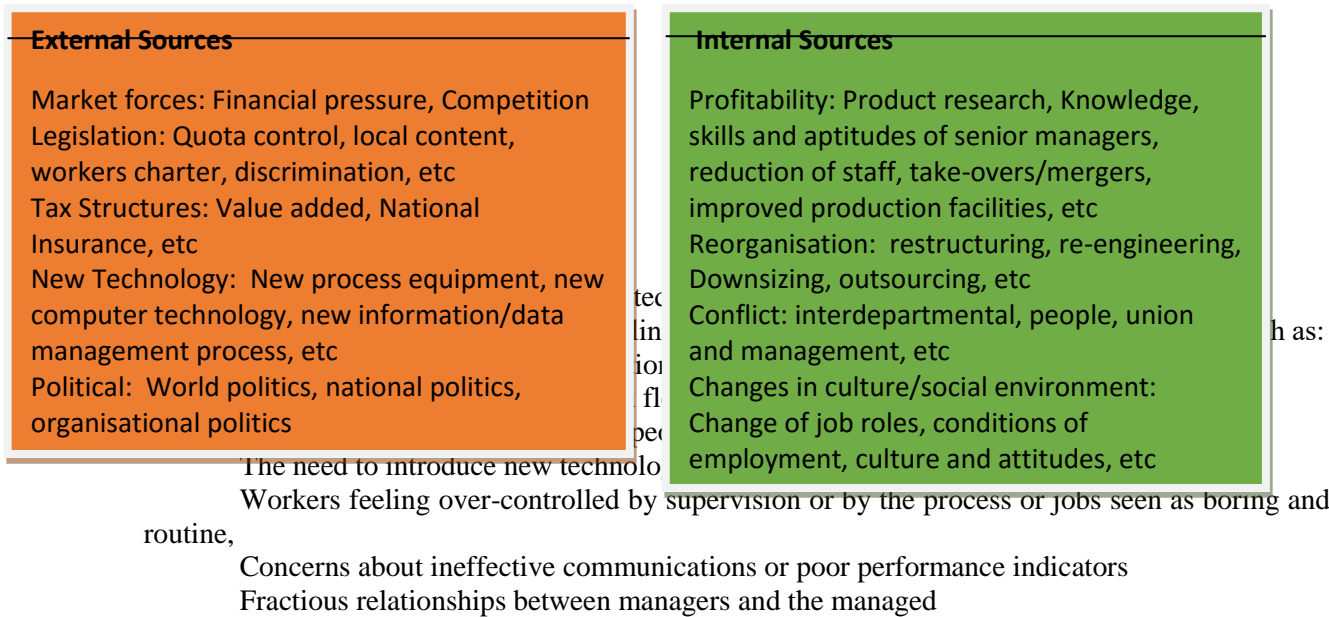
Organisational change is triggered by need to respond to new challenges or opportunities presented by the external and internal environment, or in anticipation of the need to cope with potential future problems. The need for reorganisation arising as a result of *growth* or *decline* may be a major impetus for change. The basic underlining objectives in general terms are:

- Modifying the behavioural patterns of members of the organisation

- Improving the ability of the organisation to cope with changes in its environment.

Organisational Change can be traced to factors external or internal to the organisation. This is captured in Figure 4.2

Fig 4.2: Sources of Change



3.6 TECHNIQUES OF CHANGE

There are several approaches to implementing change. The path and strategy adopted may vary according to the goal of change; that is whether whole or a segment of the organisation has to change. Robbins & Coulter (2007) has an approach suggested in the figure below:

Fig 4.3: Organisational Development Techniques



Source: Robbins & Coulter (2007)

The goal of OD is to stabilise the new system to achieve a more effective interpersonal work relationships and the techniques used is important to achieving this goal (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). The techniques are:

- Team Building.** Create the type of activities that help team members learn how each member think and works.
- Intergroup Development.** Intergroup development involves changing the attitudes, stereotypes, and perceptions that work groups have about each other.
- Process Consultation.** Outside consultant helps managers to understand how interpersonal processes are affecting the way work is being done.
- Survey Feedback.** This means putting in place a technique for assessing attitudes and perceptions, identifying discrepancies in these, and resolving the differences by using survey information in feedback groups.

v. Sensitivity Training. Have in place a method of changing behaviour through unstructured group interaction.

3.7 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Resistance to change – or the thought of the implication of the change – appears common because it brings with it what may be described as ‘psychological shock’, which makes people to be naturally wary of change. It may also be said that a grossly inadequate and despondent situation, such as threat to the very survival of organisation, inability of organisation to meet contractual obligations like payment of wages, overhead and customers and threats to jobs can bring about a clamour for change. In 2014, the recurrent terrorist attacks by Boko Haram in North Eastern Nigeria, kidnapping and general state of insecurity and perceived helplessness of government to live up to its responsibilities of protection of lives and properties brought at political level a rousing clamour for change. Change can bring about positive or negative outcomes. Despite potential positive outcomes, change is often resisted for a number of individual and organisational related reasons:

1. **Individual resistance.** Individual resistance of change may be as a result of the following:

- i. Selective perception. Peoples’ interpretation of stimuli presents a unique picture and image of their real world. But perception is selective and can lead to biased view of the change being introduced; especially the intention and purpose of the proposed change. Trade unions are often sceptical of changes originating from management especially where the view exist that managers cannot be trusted.
- ii. Habit. People tend to respond to novel albeit innovative situation in an established or accustomed manner. Habits serve as a sort of comfort and security, rendering decision making easy. Flexible or reduction in work hour may be resisted except there is a guarantee that there will be no loss of pay.
- iii. Inconvenience or loss of freedom. If proposed change is viewed as likely to prove inconvenient, make life difficult, reduce freedom of action or result in increased control, it may be resisted.
- iv. Economic implication. People are likely to resist change that will bring about, directly or otherwise, a drop in livelihood. Increase in work at the same pay level, threat to job security and other vested interests are easily resisted.
- v. Security in the past. Some find a sense of security in the carefully laid out past. They do not like the present and the future to toss them out in the cold or increase the likelihood of needing new knowledge and skills to cope with challenges posed by change.
- vi. The need to cover up. People who had history of clandestine activities, who may be displaced by the new epoch brought by the change being introduced will work against the current of change for purpose of self-preservation. This has been the commonest obstacle to the change agenda of Buhari’s fight against corruption and has been described in the expression ‘if you fight corruption, corruption will fight back’.
- vii. Fear of unknown. Changes which confront people elements of the unknown, in which the future is not clearly demarcated, can generate anxiety or fear. Since OC always come with some degree of uncertainty, there is bound to be resistance.

2. **Organisational resistance.** Although organisation has to adapt to changing internal and external conditions, there goes with the changes certain measure of apprehension about operation of the new structure, processes, policies and procedures, and people’s response to the changes. Some of the reasons for organisational resistance to change are:

- i. Organisation culture. Culture develops over time, and once settled and done, it is difficult to dislodge existing and pervasive ways of life. ‘This is how things are done around here’ is not easily dispensed with. Also when the new culture being engendered is perceived as inflexible, ineffective and ‘inferior’ to the old practice, it will breed the seeds of resistance.
- ii. Maintaining stability. Large scale organisations pay attention to maintaining stability and predictability. This is actually the need for formal structure, division of labour, established rules, methods of work and all other regimented and sedimented aspects of work. The more bureaucratic/mechanistic an organisation is, the greater the resistance to change; in other words, organic structures are easily adaptable to changes.
- iii. Investment in resources. Change comes with costs; often time large amount of resources need to be committed. Assets such as buildings, machines and equipment and people cannot be easily altered.
- iv. Past contracts or agreements. Organisations enter into contracts and agreements which cannot be dispensed with without consequent legal challenges, until their tenure expires. Contracts and agreements can limit the extent of changes that can be embarked upon by an organisation.
- v. Threats to power and influence. Fear of loss of influence or erosion of authority arises if proposed change meant that hierarchies may be delayed leading to loss of position and authority or span of control,

managers who will be affected will work to resist such changes. The fear of losing both political and expert power is real among managers.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Organisational development is giving birth to in the course of organisational change. Change is a constant dimension of organisational life and can be disruptive of the normal ways of doing things. For many reasons, change is resisted chiefly because of inability to effectively communicate to allay the fears, deal with misconceptions and overcome resistance using appropriate developmental strategies. This is the main challenge of modern managers; how to implement OC and OD processes at minimum costs, resistance for greater organisational outcomes.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you would have learnt about:

- * The issues of change management and organisation development.
- * The external and internal sources of change
- * Individual and organisational resistance of change, and
- * Strategies to use to achieve the best of OC and OD programmes in organisations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Reflect the meanings and appropriate usage of the following terms with regards to organisational change in Nigeria.
 - i. Indigenization
 - ii. Privatization
 - iii. Commercialization
 - iv. Reorganisation,
 - v. Restructuring,
 - vi. Reengineering,
 - vii. Downsizing,
 - viii. Rationalization,
 - ix. Mergers and acquisition
 - x. Rightsizing,
 - xi. Outsourcing
2. How can Nigerian organisations ensure that, in both long and short term, restructuring achieves the goals and objectives of performance, efficiency and profitability at minimum costs to labour?
3. What change strategy can be adopted for greater efficiency in the Nigerian national Petroleum Corporation (NNPC)? What are the likely obstacles and outcomes of OD and OC processes in NNPC?

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MODULE 2: ORGANISATION STUCTURE AND DESIGN ATTITUDES AND ERGONOMICS

UNIT 1. ATTITUDE AND WORK

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of attitude and work
 - 3.2 Reasons for work
 - 3.3 Components of attitude
 - 3.4 Attitude change
 - 3.5 Attitude change and work
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Since work is important component of life and living, people tend to develop different attitudes towards different work aspects. Most mornings we leave our homes set off to work in formal organisations such as banks, schools hospitals, retail shops and informal settings like market places, farms and barbing salons. In the workplace people engage in myriad of activities, they interact, communicate and learn from one another things they would otherwise not been exposed to. The work place is essentially about four key components; equipment and machines (or tools of work or technology), the structure, processes and the people; meaning that work has physical, social and emotional content, people are bound to respond to work the ‘good’ and ‘bad’ aspects of work in one form or the other.

For some the workplace may offer exceptional opportunities for career growth, excellent pay, and warm relationship with supervisors and peers while for others, the experience may be less salutary; such as low pay, harsh disciplinary environment and little opportunity for creativity, growth and development. Work experience can therefore range from satisfying to not satisfying.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you would have had sufficient understanding of the following issues:

- Meaning of work and attitude

- Reasons why people work

- Components of attitude

- Attitudinal change and the effect of positive attitude on performance and job satisfaction.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF WORK AND ATTITUDE

Work, according to Eze (2004) is central and essential part of life. It is necessary for humans to provide basic needs like food, shelter, clothing, love, esteem and other lofty life goals. By working they earn money which afford them meaningful life. Many engage in hours of productive activities, for which they train and accumulate experiences. Work involves the use of hands, equipments, machines, technology to transform raw materials to products that meets human needs. Work however offers more than economic means; it is a place of social interaction, problem solving, conflict management, attitude formation and change.

The world of work is an intricate mix of people, structure and processes. The people in modern Nigerian organisations are diverse in several dimensions of age, ethnicity, education background, gender, socio-economic status, religion and political affiliations. These mix of people are weaved around the processes, rules (both procedural and substantive), routines, into the layers of the organisational structure which varies from tall, formalized and complex bureaucracies of the public sector and multinationals to more flexible and flat structures of the private sector classifiable into various industrial segments. The robust dimensions of organisational and group dynamics often produces interactional, procedural and distributive injustices resulting in latent and expressed grievances and open conflicts.

Attitude. Attitude can be defined as an enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the environment. It is a positive or negative evaluative reaction towards a stimulus, such as persons, objects (equipment, technology, office environment), action of superiors/peers/subordinates, or concept/ideas (organisation’s policies, rules and processes). Attitude as shown below has three components; cognitive, emotional and behavioural and serve several functions. It is the way we think, feel, and act towards products and it is an evaluation process leading to negative neutral or positive attitudes. Many of our belief or feelings about brands are evaluative in nature. The more positive belief or feelings that are associated with a brand the more favourable our behaviour towards it. Attitude though enduring, can *change* over time as a result of learning or exposure to people, events and situations that persuade us towards new mode of perception and consequent new attitude and behaviour.

Two questions at this point. (1) does our attitudes influence behaviour) and (2) does our behaviour influence our attitudes? One may likely respond that our attitudes influence our behaviour, just as our behaviour influence attitude. This view looks commonsensical but only true to a modest degree than usually assumed

(Kraus, 1995). In a way attitude-behaviour consistency is not a one-way street. What appears to be the reality with regards to the first question is that:

- i. Attitudes influence behaviour more strongly when counteracting situational factors are weak,
- ii. Attitudes have a greater influence on behaviour when we are aware of them and when they are strongly held, and
- iii. General attitudes do best at predicting general classes of behaviour, and specific attitudes do best at predicting specific behaviours.

With regards to the second question, the moment an individual or group began to behave in a particular way, that is implement their roles as prescribed by office rules, societal norms or values, indoctrination and so forth, they often form attitudes that are consistent with how they had behaved. The reasons for this are:

Self-justification. This according to Festinger (1959) is because individuals, who feel incongruence among two or more cognitions, will likely experience uncomfortable state of tension called *cognitive dissonance* and are motivated to reduce tension through adjustment of previous perception; that is changing one or more of their cognition. In some instances they simply rationalise their behaviour by seeking external justification for action.

Persuasion. Through discussions, advertisement, negotiation and persuasion ones attitude can change in line with behaviour.

Self-perception. We make inferences about our own attitude and that of others by observing how we behave. How we behave is often in conformity with our attitude; a positive behaviour towards a person, object or concept indicates a positive attitude.

3.2 REASONS FOR WORK

The array of goods and services generated as a result of organised effort, called work, is awesome. Work involves the deliberate use of physical, emotional and mental energy to produce utilities. Harnessing these energies have led to production of tangible goods such as agricultural products putting food on tables, automobiles for mobility, energy as bare bone for domestic and industrial uses, telecom equipment for communication, textiles for clothing and such a wide varieties of other goods; also intangible goods such as legal, social psychological or counsel, health care, security, education and so forth. To do this certain basic inputs such as land, raw materials, energy, information, capital, equipment/technology and people. Work produces jobs which are organised or deliberately designed group of activities composing of units of tasks, duties, responsibilities within the context of peculiar conditions and rules which significant amount of influence on performance and gives coherence to attainment of set goals and objectives.

Work can bring about several outcomes than could be accounted for here but outcomes such as the following are examples:

As a means of earning a living. Traditionally, the reason many work is to be able to make ends meet by being able to afford their daily needs for food, shelter, clothing and meeting all other basic needs as stipulated by Maslow and other motivation theorists.

As an opportunity for using basic human talents. Work provides avenue for using all of human talents, physical, intellectual, emotional and so forth. Without work, man will be idle and most of the endowments like cognitive skills for creativity, problem solving and the likes will go unused.

As a platform for social intercourse. Human beings are gregarious in nature. In the course of work, one of the basic needs for socialization is further reinforced and met. Workers for instance belong to unions, forms friendship and lasting friendship that transcend work. This is why; organisational design formats are becoming more organic rather than mechanistic. Teams, groups and the need for constant social networking and stimulation are now features of jobs for deliberate purpose of meeting basic human needs for relatedness.

As a basic life goal. Work is the core of life aspiration for many. Many are motivated to live their dreams in the course of career or profession. It is by working that aspirations like building houses, marriage, having children are made feasible. Indeed work has come to define the worth of modern man.

As a form of social identity. People's identity as well as self-esteem is concretised in the course of implementing career goals. This why people appraise and describe or give themselves titles like Professor, Engineer, Doctor, Lawyer based on professional training and attainments.

Basis for satisfaction. Self-actualization and man's spiritual essence is associated with career success or otherwise. Work in this respect gives not just direction to efforts but also to life.

3.3 COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

People have attitude towards just about everyone and everything. Attitude is a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably toward some person, thing, event, place, goods and services or situation (often called attitude object). In other words, attitude describes our *thoughts, feelings, behaviour* (negative or positive) towards attitude objects.

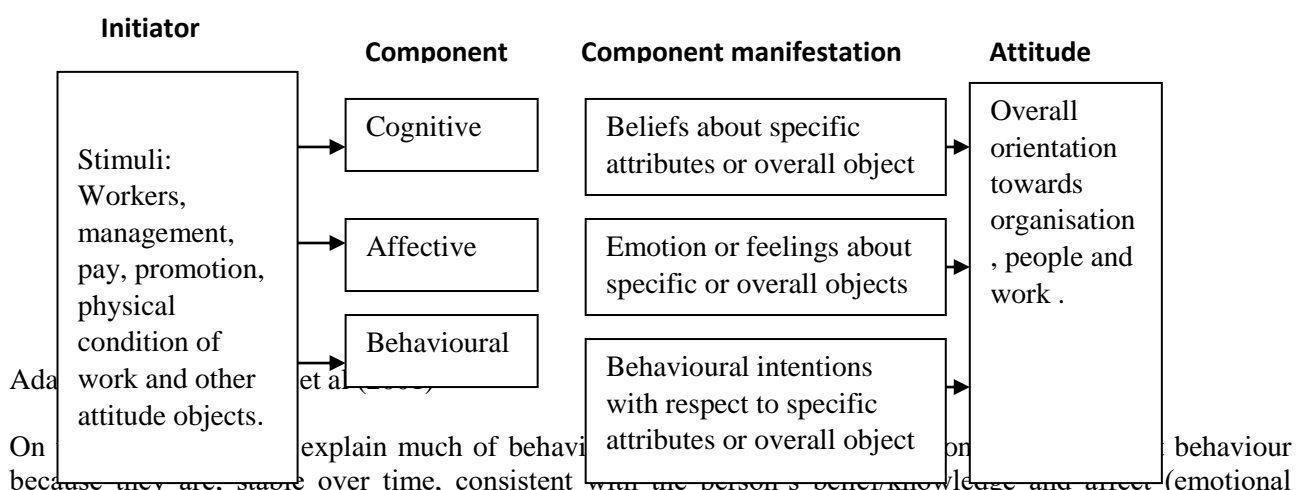
The most popular approach to attitude study is the tri-component view of attitude, which states that attitude has three components, which are;

- i. **Cognitive Component.** This refers to thoughts, belief, opinions, and knowledge or information held by the person concerning others, objects or ideas.
- ii. **Affective Component.** Emotional feelings about people, places and objects to which statements like 'I do not like' can apply and can lead to behavioural outcomes.
- iii. **Behavioural Component.** This component refers to action tendencies and intentions to behave in a certain way towards someone or something.

Sometimes, there are consistencies among the components. For instance, if someone *belief* or *know* (cognitive component) that coming late to work is wrong, he may hate coming late (emotional component) and as a result tried always to be at work in time (behavioural component). There are instances, where the three components are inconsistent. Many may want to be at work on time but faces herculean task in meeting up to that challenge for so many extraneous reasons like being late to bus terminus because of delay due to rainfall, non-availability of connecting bus services and fatigue or illness.

Hawkins and his colleagues proposed a model in which attitude; cognitive, affective and or behavioural is situated within certain stimuli contingents. The worker's attitude is shown to be influenced by environmental stimuli, such as working condition, pay, social environment, family issues and so forth. Overall orientation is indicative of a positive or negative evaluation of organisation along with the physical and social context of work.

Figure 1.1: Attitude components and manifestations



Also attitude in spite of stability can be changed through a variety of means using essentially persuasive communication and proper understanding of message, message content, media and recipients. Furthermore, attitude, as an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of our environment, serves four key functions (Katz, 1960).

- i. **Knowledge functions:** Whether they accurately reflect objective reality or not, attitudes serve to organize our beliefs about objects or activities such as brands or shopping. The amount of information presented about products in the market serves useful purpose in shaping knowledge and perception of work, people and the organisation as a whole. This eventually translates to positive, neutral or negative attitudes.
- ii. **Value expressive functions:** Attitudes are sometimes formed as a reflection of self-concept or expression of individual's central values. What turn out to be important attitude will depend on whether the attitude is terminal or instrumental in nature.

iii. *Utilitarian functions*: Based on the operant conditioning principles, we tend to be favourably disposed towards goods and services that are intrinsically rewarding and have negative attitudes towards those that are not.

iv. *Ego-defensive functions*: As McGuire classification of needs shows attitudes are formed and used in the defence of the ego and self-image. Any given attitude can serve several functions, though one may predominate (Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 2001)

3.4 ATTITUDE CHANGE

Attitude is viewed as Social Psychology's most indispensable concept by Allport (1935) because it defines our identity, guide our actions and influence how we judge people and situations.

Attitude can be formed and attitude does change. Every day, we are confronted with objects, events, people, and attitude that demand one form of response or another. Often our response can result from old attitudes, newly formed or a change of attitude.

Attitude has been shown to be;

- (i) Stable over time,
- (ii) Held with a high degree of certainty,
- (iii) Consistent with the person's affect (emotional reaction) toward a behaviour,
- (iv) Formed as a result of direct experience,
- (v) Easily remembered and
- (vi) Capable of change.

Every year advertisers spend millions of naira to change consumers' attitudes. Governments often use the media to send messages that is meant to cultivate positive attitudes towards its views and programmes. Our conversation, arguments and disputations are filled with attempts, not just to make others see our own point of view, but to get them to change (that is *persuade* them) from one form of attitude-negative or positive-and adopt another one. Persuasion is a fact of everyday life (Maio and Olson, 2000).

What factors lead people to change their attitudes? There are conditions under which people change or resist change of their attitudes. Persuasive communication is the vehicle through which attitude change is transmitted. Persuasion involves a *communicator* who delivers a *message* through a *channel* (in writing, verbally, visually) to an *audience*, within a surrounding *context* (a cultural, civic, social, religious, setting). As the definition of persuasion shows, five significant factors; communicator or source of message, the message, the channel, the context, and the audience are crucial in attitude change.

(1). *Source of message*. Certain characteristics of the communicator finds relevance in persuading others to change their opinion or attitude about a brand, some of these characteristics are:

- a. Expertise. People are better persuaded about what they read, hear or see when the person making the presentation is an expert. Many are better persuaded by advice to stop smoking or drinking when offered by their doctor rather than by friends.
- b. Attractiveness. Communicators that are physically attractive, likable or similar in terms of shared attribute, interests or goals may do better to persuade us than otherwise. Advertisers spend thousands of naira to pair models, beauty queens, boxing or football stars with their products. It is perhaps also true that 'correct' dressing, makeup and trendy design may appeal to certain segment of the audience and aid attractiveness.
- c. Credibility. When the target market views the source of the message as credible, it is easier to influence their behaviour. Some authors belief that expertise and trustworthiness are aspects of source credibility.
- d. Trustworthiness. How honest or believable is the message as well as the communicator?
- e. Fast or slow speaker? Fast speakers are generally viewed as more persuasive than slow speakers (Miller, Maruyama, Beaber and Valone, 1976).
- f. Body language. Eye contact is important in establishing credibility and honesty. Other gestures such as averting the eyes, smiling constantly, biting the lips constantly tend to lower speaker's credibility. It is also thought that the voice modulation-deep, baritone voice-are helpful in persuasion.

3.5 ATTITUDE CHANGE AND WORK

Naturally, managers are not interested in all attitudes but only job related attitudes such as job satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover intention, presenteeism, organisational silence, job involvement, job and organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Managers are interested in employees' attitude because attitude is a key determinant of behaviour (Student to visit www.prenhall.com/rolls). Satisfied and committed employees for instance are likely to have low rate of turnover, and absenteeism and of course have been predicted to rate favourably on measures of organisational and job commitment, job satisfaction and the likes.

However, since findings about satisfaction-production especially among more productive workers are qualified, managers should not just assume that a content worker will be a productive worker but instead formulate a strategy that target and reinforce factors that are conducive to high levels of job satisfaction such as mentally challenging jobs, equitable rewards, supportive working conditions and supportive organisational climate.

Workplace should equally have mechanisms, and perhaps as legitimate performance assessment tool, for determining or gauging the range of attitudes that are either antithetical to productivity (qualifying for change) and those positively promoting productivity (qualifying for reinforcement).

4.0 CONCLUSION

Attitude is important in life as well as work. It is both enduring and dynamic to the extent that it can be subject to change. The understanding of this will assist managers to shape workplace attitudes to engender positive behaviour that are tangential to organisational productivity, job satisfaction and other desired outcomes.

5.0 SUMMARY

At this point in our study of work and attitude, a number of useful lessons have been learnt such as the fact that:

- * Attitude is tri-component incorporating belief, feelings and behaviour.
- * Attitude is functional in nature.
- * Is enduring but can change.
- * Attitude held by workers have influence on their performance.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Narrate the historical antecedents and the connectivity among work, organisation and society. Attitude to work of Nigerian workers in both public and private organisations typically leaves much to be desired. Discuss this view with reference to a named Nigerian public and private organisation.
2. Find out the meaning of and form brief notes on the following job related attitudes; job satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover intention, presenteeism, organisational silence, job involvement, job and organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Which of these are marked features of Nigerian workers?

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UNIT 2. ERGONOMICS

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of ergonomics
 - 3.2 Designing work for people
 - 3.3 Types and characteristics of technology
 - 3.4 Factors in to consider
 - 3.5 Introducing and adopting new technology
 - 3.6 Technology and the new face of work
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

People and machines make up the systems that operate in large and small organisations. The goal of ergonomics is efficient and effective man-machine systems that are based on understanding of human factors as important input in machine and equipment designs. To do this, human capacities and limitations are viewed and built appropriately into the reception, coding, transmission and interpretation of information taking into consideration opportunities and limitations imposed by the environment.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this interesting unit, you would have learnt:

- * The meaning of ergonomics
- * The logic of designing work for people and not otherwise
- * The types and characteristics of technology and the factors to consider in machine designs
- * The impact of technology on work.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF ERGONOMICS

Engineering Psychology or Human Factor Engineering is another name for the sub-field of psychology called Ergonomics. It is concerned with man-machine fit at work with the consideration of core human factors in the design and use of equipment and machines at work. The main research focus are:

- Achieving man-machine fit
- Reduction of industrial accidents
- Guaranteeing industrial safety and security, and
- Optimizing performance

3.2 DESIGNING WORK FOR PEOPLE

Until the 1940s designing of industrial plants and machines were the sole responsibilities of Engineers who usually make design decisions without due consideration for the workers who operate them. Thus human beings have to adjust to the features represented in those machines with considerable strain and higher degree of errors, accidents and other machine induced stresses such as fatigue, cramps, eyes and headaches, etc. More so, machines and equipment, especially military hardware as used in the World War II, became increasingly complex and requiring increasing levels of speed and precision for their operation. These placed great demands on capabilities, not only upon muscular strength, but also higher-level abilities of sensing, perception, judgment and decision making. But another possibility was in the offing. The time-motion study of Fredrick Taylor and the Gilbereths were precursor to the understanding of the need to adapt machine to human attributes as opposed to the other way round. This is what ergonomics is all about; designing machines and equipment that fit into human physiological and cognitive abilities as well as other attributes; sociability, emotionality and so forth, bearing in mind also the environment of usage.

Today, the 21st century work place is becoming increasingly automated with technology increasingly competing for space, time and opportunities with man.

3.3 TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF TECHNOLOGY

Technology in today's context can be interpreted broadly to include according to Mullins (2007) both:

- i. The physical aspects of machines, equipment, processes and work layout (machine technology) involved in the transformation or conversion processes, and
- ii. The actual methods, systems and procedures involved (knowledge technology) in carrying out the work of the organisation and transforming and conversion of inputs into outputs.

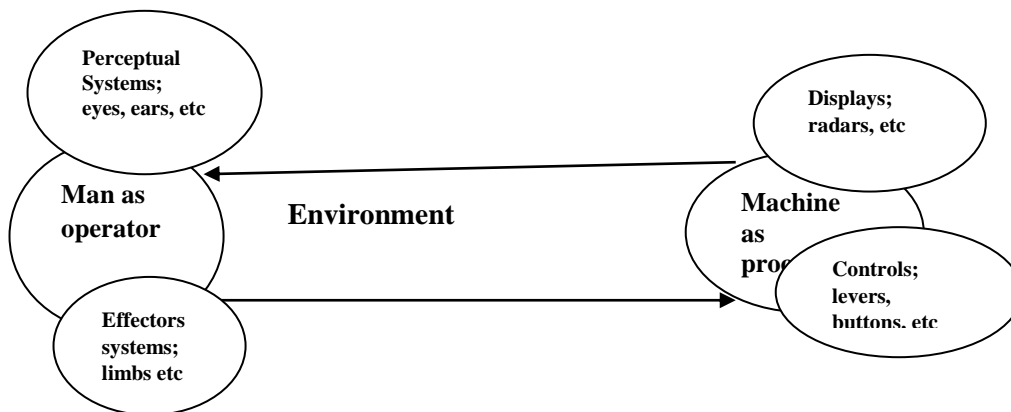
The physical side of technology refers mainly to microelectronics and microprocessors, information and communication technology (ICTs) applicable in manufacturing, information sharing and processing, service provision and as products themselves. The main forms of applications are:

- i. Manufacturing/engineering/design equipment often referred to as 'advanced manufacturing technology' (ATM) or 'computer-aid engineering' (CAE).
- ii. Technology for information capturing, storage, transmission, analysis and retrieval like the computer that may be linked with the ATM.
- iii. Technology employed in the provision of services to customers, patients, clients by use of service sector applications.
- iv. Technology is a product

3.4 FACTORS IN TO CONSIDER

According to Eze (2004) information flowing from the machine to the operator is a form of interaction involving the use of human capacities to sense, perceive, process, retrieve, control levers or manipulate one aspect of a system or the other as shown in figure 1.1.

Fig2.1. Man-Machine Information Loop



Source: Osborne, (1992), adapted.

These interfaces can be disrupted at one point or the other and there are some factors to consider in equipment design, installation and use. Advanced societies have anthropomorphic data which gives estimates of averages or ranges of limbs, torsos, heights, weights, etc. These measures are important in equipment design and use to reduce error and accidents. Some of these factors relate to both the control and the display designs;

i. Factors for consideration in control design

1. *The type of control.* The control should be operable and follow as much as possible the natural motions of the operator, especially in terms of relative applicable force and limb positioning so as not to cause muscular ache and fatigue.
2. *Presence of resistance.* Sufficient but reasonable resistance is necessary to avoid spurious inputs from operators.
3. *The interface.* The surface of a control system, depending on the type of operation, should either be smooth or striated. Hand operated systems could be smooth while leg operated levers should be striated for the necessary grip.
4. *Control size.* The shape and size of control interfaces ought to be in consonance with operators' hands and feet with consideration for grip and balance.
5. *Control position.* The operator's position should not be awkward or frequent long stretching movements to effect the control
6. *Control shape.* Designing the control interface's shape is important for firm grip and elbow room for movements
7. *One-hand and two-hand operations.* The society is populated by a mix of right handed, southpaw individuals that are ambidextrous. The unique needs of these individuals have to be borne in mind while at the same time one-hand versus two-hand control and or requirements for coordinating eye-hand-leg should receive attention in equipment design
8. *Feedback.* The control systems' feedback should be so positioned as to process inputs and relay action and output in decipherable codes and or language.

ii. Factors for consideration in display design

It is important that display systems are embedded in both the system and the environment. For instance, failure due to electricity are first discovered by either the ear when the humming sounds stopped or eyes if the lighting diminished or goes out. For instance, the dashboard is programmed to relay multiples of information ranging from fuel level, functioning of hydraulic brake system, acceleration, speed, mileage, temperature, geographical information and so forth. These put the sensory, central and peripheral nervous systems etc on the alert. The designer therefore should bear these in mind.

1. *Natural Format.* Formats that are unfamiliar to natural human attributes require time to become accustomed to. Reading and interpreting signals that are not familiar to normal habit patterns are likely to increase error rates.

2. *Precision of response.* Requiring operators to be more precise than necessary (that is normal response threshold) may add to fatigue and cause them to make judgmental errors. For instance the difference between read-out and press-button accuracy and true accuracy has to be factored in.
3. *Operator view technique.* The display technique has to be matched to the operator's bodily constraints, viewing environmental conditions like lighting, acceleration, vibration, mobility restrictions and position.
4. *Use of simple concept.* Displays that use complex signs and symbols are difficult to interpret and understand and without extensive training, may lead to increased error rates.

On the whole, display systems must be conspicuous, legible, visible and readily interpretable. This is because information processing which involves stimulus sensing, processing (categorization and discrimination), response and execution are intricate systems of choices and decisions which may have either salutary or detrimental outcomes; especially where accidents happen to occur.

3.5 TECHNOLOGY AND THE NEW FACE OF WORK

The truth is, the face, form, structure and pace of work have changed in such a dramatic fashion over the last two decades. Not only has technology (equipment, machines, ICTs and robotic engineering) have influenced work and job designs, it has influenced human behaviour at work; his job roles, areas of latitude and tenure. Organisational research shows that technology influence behaviour of people in work setting by:

1. The specific designs of work and the knowledge, skills and aptitudes needed to do them,
2. Influencing how work is organised and controlled,
3. Affecting the pace and intensity of work,
4. Reducing the number of people that has to participate in getting a product off the assembly line, and
5. Adjusting overhead and other disciplinary issues related to individual and organised body of workers.

Whereas technology has fundamentally affected how work is designed in terms of structure, processes and expected behaviour, thereby reducing managerial control and freeing management from burdensome bureaucracy to focus on germane issues of quality, improved working conditions and motivation of employees for cutting edge performance, technology has equally created certain problems and challenges such as:

- i. Free flow of information which erodes into managerial prerogatives of information management and official secrecy,
- ii. Overdependence on automated solutions that had reduced human initiative, creativity and removing intrinsic motivating components of work,
- iii. Devotion of official hours to personal use of social media (e-mail, facebook, Whatsapp etc) which can limit productivity,
- iv. The informality and speed of electronic communications are of great attraction as well as embarrassingly compromising as information meant for a colleague can get to official quarters by the seconds as the send button is hit upon,
- v. The use of ICT as a means of mounting surveillance on employees which may compromise their privacy and certain fundamental rights.

The workplace therefore has to find a balance for the advantages and disadvantages of ICT and the new mode of work such that jobs are protected along with human dignity, social ethics and within reasonable legal regimes of operation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The overall goal of equipment and machine designs is to facilitate as well as complements human efforts at work. There are several types useful technology in today's work places ranging from the simple to the sophisticated like industrial robots; so also there are factors to consider in building and installing industrial machines. Though new age technology and the world of work is changing dramatically, the basic features of machines remains; input, processing and the output and feedback systems.

5.0 SUMMARY

The meaning of ergonomics

- * The logic of designing work for people and not otherwise
- * The types and characteristics of technology and the factors to consider in machine designs

* The impact of technology on work.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. How can Nigeria achieve appropriate documentation of human physical attributes for the take off of equipment designs? Suggest appropriate steps and stages in building up anthropomorphic data.
2. Discuss the view that machines have completely erodes what use to be man's jurisdiction by taking the fun out of jobs.
3. Looking at the future of work; will machines not completely render man useless?

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UNIT 3. ORGANISATIONAL, WORK AND JOB DESIGN

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Organisation
 - 3.2. Organisational design
 - 3.3 Work Design
 - 3.4 Job design
 - 3.5 Organisational Structure
 - 3.6 Considerations in Work Design
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Organisation is built around the structure, technological inputs, the processes and the people. In a sense the structure of the organisation has influence on the designs of both work and jobs. Organisational structures essentially depicts the structure of interactions, communications as well as mode of operation and the processes put in place to achieve the purpose for which business is set up.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit you should have learnt about the following:

- The meaning rudiments of organisational structure, work and job designs.
- Factors to consider in designing work and jobs.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF ORGANISATION

Structure is about the patterns of relationship among positions and in the organisation and members of the organisation. Structure is clearly important in the sense that it makes possible the application of the process of management and creates a framework for orderly interaction and command through which the activities of the organisation can be planned, organised, directed, and coordinated for easy managerial decisions and controls. Whether small or large, every organisation needs a structure which, not cast in iron, can be constantly reviewed to keep with growth and development pace. Organisational structure according to Mullins (2007) can help achieve the following objectives:

- The economic and efficient performance of the organisation and the level of resource utilisation;
- Monitoring the activities of the organisation;
- Accountability for area of work undertaken by groups and individual members of the organisation;
- Co-ordination of different part of the organisation and different area of work;
- Flexibility in order to respond to future demands and developments, and to adapt to changing environmental influences; and
- The social satisfaction of members working in the organisation.

3.2 ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN

The architecture of work is built around structure, organisational processes, available technology and the cadres of people meant to engage in various activities. Organisational designs starts with the business idea for which the entrepreneur seeks to actualize in reality by bringing together man, materials, machines and money to achieve his/her objectives. Designs of organisations vary essentially along these dimensions considering the size, activities, context and the managerial experiences that gave birth to the design. In designing organisations, what work for A may not work for B. There are two generic models of organisation designs; the mechanistic and organic designs.

Mechanistic designs are built on Weberian bureaucratic prescriptions of rigidity and tightly controlled structure. This type of structure is characterized by high degree of specialization, rigid departmentalization, narrow spans of control, formalization of rules, authority and communication processes. The organisation is viewed as an objective entity in which precision of rules, decision, reward and sanction is highly valued. Little is left to discretion of managers and low-level employees are not involved in any form of decision making. This type of designs placed premium on efficiency, rules, regulations, standardized tasks and performance yardsticks. Human traits and characteristics like personality, diversity, judgments and ambiguities are hardly considered. The main advantage of mechanistic structures are predictability and stability while it has been criticised as slow, insensitive to human needs and less adaptive to change.

Organic designs on the other hand are a direct contrast to mechanistic designs. This type of organisation is highly adaptive and flexible and built of high consideration for human strengths and weaknesses. The core idea is meaningful jobs that promise satisfaction and quality of work life through minimal control and strict rules. The employee is empowered through training and developmental programmes to make decisions, solve problems and be creative. Since adaptive, organic organisations respond to changes, are flexible and tend to be more effective in the long run. Individual discretion may lead to unpredictability, increased costs of errors.

3.3 WORK DESIGN

The initial activities of the entrepreneur is to design the work space to accommodate equipment, technology and people giving ample room for all tasks, duties, repairs, processes to flow smoothly. Designing work primarily takes note of the following:

- Environment.** This is concern for space for juxtaposition and installation of machine and equipment, offices, corridors, stair ways that are friendly, safe and clean to use
- Machines and equipment.** Installing machines and equipment that ergonomically fit into human attributes is the concern of Engineering Psychologist, Engineers, Architects and many other experts who have an idea worked into a design, plan and supervised execution and future maintenance.
- Structure.** The structure narrates how people will relate, communicate, and coordinated to achieve organisational goals, the type of work to be done dictate the structural options; tall, flat, team based and decisions about which operations are important; production, marketing, personnel etc to incorporate as departments or units.

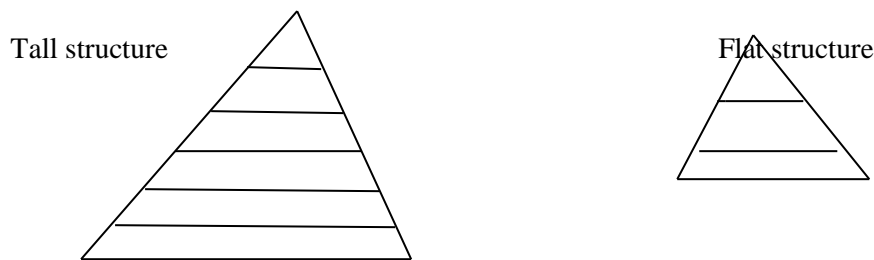
- iv. **The people.** Once the structure is put in place, the next important activities are how to fit people into the jobs. This is what is called job design.

3.4 JOB DESIGN

After the structural layout of work demarcating departments, units, teams etc, the jobs are next to be designed. Jobs consist of titles, tasks, duties, responsibilities, conditions, hazards/risks and the social context (which later comes out as organisational culture and climate). Job designs entails putting these elements together for the job incumbent to be able to meet the goals and objectives entailed on the job position.

3.5 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

Organisational structure is about what kind of work architecture/design to be put in place. It is basically about formal arranging and structuring work to accomplish organizational goals. There are several design options that will produce different structures of division of work, assignment of responsibilities, and coordination of clusters of jobs, establishment of lines of authority and bringing equipment/technology and people together to form departments, team or groups for the allocation and use of resources to produce goods and services. Organisational structure can be tall or flat in the way departments are grouped; whether functionally, in consideration of geography, product, processes or customers. Tall structures have long span of control, many layers/job cadres and communication and authority flows from top downward. Organisational structure can be formal, informal or non formal. Why formal organisation embodies the explicit and formally stated set of rules and regulations that define the activities of the members (Hall, 1977). The mechanisms of a formal structure includes the charts, rules, chains of commands, spans of control that are essentially in written form. The structure is often arranged hierarchical order of order of authority on top of which is the Board of Directors, management, middle management, lower-level management and the rank and file.



3.6 CONSIDERATIONS IN WORK DESIGN

Some of the factors to put into consideration in designing the work are:

1. Philosophy, policies and objectives of organisation.
2. Interface among structure, machines and equipment, technology and people.
3. Flow of authority, chain of command and communication
4. The need for efficiency of costs, safety and health of workers
5. Degree of centralization or decentralization (or employee empowerment) required for efficient work processes.
6. Degree of formalization and or flexibility to ensure flexibility and adaptability to change.
7. Ensuring job satisfaction, commitment and citizenship behaviour through responsive work designs.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Organisational structure is important architect for arranging and structuring work to allow for smooth control, hierarchy and order. If attention is paid to how structure and processes determines behaviour, culture and job satisfaction, crafting the organisational structure and designing work and jobs have to be done with care and concern for fulfilment of organizational goals.

5.0 SUMMARY

By the end of this unit, you would have learnt about

- * The meaning rudiments of organisational structure, work and job designs.
- * Factors to consider in designing work and jobs.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. You are encouraged to investigate the designs of two organisations in the manufacturing and educational sector indicating the design mode, structure, work and job designs.
2. You are to make diagrams depicting the following; tall and flat organisational structure, process, product and functional departmentalization.
3. Explain in detail how we can ensure job satisfaction and reduce industrial accident by use of work design?

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MODULE 3: LEADERSHIP, MOTIVATION AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

UNIT 1. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS AND WORK TEAMS - LAWAL

CONTENT

Introduction
Objectives
Main Content
Meaning of Interpersonal Skills
Theories of Interpersonal Communication
Skills of Interpersonal Communication
Conclusion
Summary
Tutor-Marked Assignment
References

UNIT 2. LEADERSHIP AND WORK MOTIVATION - Lawal

CONTENT

Introduction
Objectives
Main Content
Meaning of Leadership
Meaning of Work Motivation
Leadership Style
Leadership and Motivation
Conclusion
Summary
Tutor-Marked Assignment
References

UNIT 3.COMMUNICATIONS - Lawal

CONTENT

Introduction
Objectives
Main Content
Meaning of Communication
Communication Processes
Barriers to Communication
Overcoming Barriers
Conclusion
Summary
Tutor-Marked Assignment
References

UNIT 4. CONFLICT AND NEGOTIATION

CONTENT

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 Meaning of Conflict
3.2 Meaning and Types Of Negotiation
3.3 Sources of Conflict
3.4 Conflict Handling Mechanisms
3.5 Negotiation Strategies
3.6 Alternative Dispute Resolution
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Conflict is endemic in organisational life because of the complications of diversity, culture, ideology, individual and group differences and the diversity of interests and goals of members of the organisation. One of the main duties of managers is to find the means of navigating the narrow bridge of organisational politics of differences and the need for competition and cooperation in the bid to share resources and keep the good will for the organisation to survive and continue to retain the capacity to generate more resources for future sharing. There are both internal and external mechanisms as well as strategies for dispute resolution known to industries and organisations in Nigeria which are covered in this unit of the manual.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- Understand the meaning of conflict and negotiation
- Discuss the types of conflict and the mechanisms/strategies for negotiation and resolving conflict in industries and organisations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF CONFLICT

In the real sense, conflict exists in all areas of human behaviour and interactions. The world of work is a world of needs and interests. Because of conflictual nature of needs and interests, conflict has been viewed by Dunlop (1965) as inevitable. Individuals in workplaces are motivated to be there for various reasons; especially to meet various needs. Jayeoba, Ayantunji, & Sholesi, (2013) observed that organisations are need fulfilling agents and by their very existence, resources are generated (through various inputs as factors of production), also acquired, accessed and distributed; the processes of which often raise the questions of equity, fairness and justice. People associated with industries and organisations are there to meet needs; whether as owners, managers, employees and so forth. The needs and aspirations exist at individual and group levels. While owners of businesses invest for profit and other motives, employees get hired to produce goods and offer services as a result of which they earn incomes. In the attempts of employers to optimize returns on investment and employees' bid to earn fair and equitable income, conflict is born.

Conflict is derived in work places from the fact that goals differ among the entities that constitute stakeholders in organisations. The workplace according to Jayeoba et al (2013) is made up of at least nine entities such as workers, workers' union, management, owners, association of business owners, customers, government, retirees and the society at large. Each of these entities in one way or the other meet their needs out of the organisational outcomes like products, services, salaries, profits, dividends, taxes and social responsibility. In many instances they also partake in the gains, inconveniences and loss of conflicts. The organisation in this respect is viewed as a need fulfilling agent baking industrial pies that many seek to partake in one form or the other.

3.2 MEANING, TYPES OF NEGOTIATION AND THE NEGOTIATOR

Meaning of Negotiation. Negotiation and bargaining are terms often used synonymously and it is give-and-take, life long process between conflicting interdependent parties and agreement means concurrence of opinion between the parties. Collective bargaining is actually negotiation between parties leading to agreement. In real life situation, especially borrowing from the Nigerian experience, agreement is turning out to be a complex issue that requires elaboration in terms of documentation of what is agreed, terms conditions and time boundary for implementation and consequences of default. Agreement often involves elaborate ceremony in which parties announce truce, sign documents and make oral commitment to implementation. Almost as if the parties are saying, *now* we are committed to peace.

Types of Negotiation. Negotiation types according to Eze (2004) include the following:

- i. Win-Lose: One dominant party gets his way while the other party doesn't.
- ii. Lose-Lose: Neither of the negotiating parties achieve set goals and objectives
- iii. No deal. Both parties disagree on all issues
- iv. Compromise. Some of the objectives are met by deliberate attempts by both parties to stem down on some of the demands.
- v. Win-win. Popular with distributive bargaining during which both parties means of mutually satisfying each others' demands through effective negotiation and tradeoffs that ensure that the parties leave far better than they came.

The Negotiator. Negotiators are not born but made and require basic skills and attributes to succeed. He may be an insider or outsider (hired expert) who has requisite experience on the subject matters that constitutes the dispute issues. Some of the important attributes are:

- Positive attitude
- Ability to negotiate in good faith
- Good memory for facts, names and events
- Clear understanding of dispute issues
- Ability to solve problems creatively
- Ability to communicate clearly and convincingly
- Persuasive and well-mannered
- Have general and emotional intelligence
- Perceptive and intuitive etc

There are two basic types of collective bargaining, which are; integrative and distributive bargaining.

Integrative bargaining. This is a problem solving approach in which interested parties confront the issues and cooperate to identify the problem, generate and weigh alternatives solutions. The approach is suitable when complex issues are involved and there is a dire need to bridge misunderstanding between parties. Example of issue for integrative bargaining may involve the need to wade through depression or falling market share or low productivity. Agreement may be desired on increased productivity, redundancies, lay-offs, cut-back on overtime, pay adjustment and so forth. Such negotiation is to seek means of surviving threatening economic situation. The approach is capable of producing long lasting solution especially when conflict is not rooted in opposing value systems.

Distributive bargaining. The issues involve are divergent mostly involving wage rates, holidays, overtime, bonus and other fringe benefits. It is mostly about sharing the industrial 'pie'. Opposing values often result in a win-lose situation breeding room for conflict at a later time. This is because one party's gain is the other's loss.

Other bargaining types are used in certain situation requiring a shift of strategy and these are:

Conjunctive bargaining. Divergent issue is involved but the approach is based on use or exercise of power. Bargaining is forced as one party seeks to dominate the other. The approach, demonstrates high concern for self and low concern for others. Parties try as much as possible to get maximum benefit from the bargaining relationship and at the expense of the other. There is minimum cooperation and the process may stir up hostilities, frustration and loss of face on the part of the party that lost out in the power game. This approach cannot be expected to lead to permanent resolution of dispute but may invariably precipitate another crises in the future.

Concession bargaining. Workers/union and management are concerned with keeping the organisation going. In an economy characterised with recession, focus is on staying afloat for management while worker is concerned with keeping their jobs. Concessions or compromise may be made in terms of promotion, training allowances and retrenchment with a proviso for recall as soon as things improve.

3.3 SOURCES OF CONFLICT

Some situations produce more conflict than others. It is important to know and anticipate conflict generating situations and circumstances as a means of managing or resolving them. They may derive from internal processes or from external socio-economic and political realities.

i. **Internal sources.** Among situations producing conflict according to Filley (1975) are; incompatible personality or value systems, unclear or overlapping job boundaries, competition for limited resources and intergroup competition, ineffective communication mode, interdependence of tasks, organisational complexity, unclear policies, rules and standards, unreasonable deadlines/targets, unmet expectations (pay, promotion) and unresolved or suppressed conflicts.

ii. **External sources.** Other peculiar sources of conflict in Nigerian industries and organisations especially deriving from external sources are: government's industrial and economic policies, nature of national economic mismanagement, nature of labour legislation, unpatriotic behaviour of the political and business classes and general distribution of wealth and power in society.

As can be seen, these sources of conflict are clearly from internal processes and external sources. Most of sources highlighted above might not directly instigate industrial conflict but do influence general expectations, substantially determining the nature of work.

Other sources/antecedents of conflict as highlighted when closely examined falls into four basic classifications with diverse implications for industrial peace. These classifications are; personality, value, intergroup and cross-cultural conflicts.

1. **Personality conflict.** This means interpersonal opposition that is driven by personal dislike or disagreement between parties. An individual's personality is the package of stable traits and attributes that creates unique identity for the person. Personality is fairly stable over time as to be predictive of individual's cognitive style, emotional and behavioural disposition. Personality can give indication of proneness to conflict or cooperation. Workplace incivility often breeds the seed of personality conflict. This kind of conflict does begin with seemingly insignificant irritation. Examples of such can vary from answering 'yeah' on phone and forgetting to say thank you or please, standing uninvited and impatiently over a desk of someone engaged in another activity, dropping trash on the floor, rushing in without greeting or knocking and such other culturally unprescribed behaviours. The irritations get mild or worse depending on personality makeup, previous experiences and status of those involved.

2. **Value conflict.** A value according to Rokeach (1973) is an enduring belief that specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct. An individual's value system according to Rokeach (1973) is an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance. Lifelong behaviour patterns are therefore dictated by values shared by individuals and these are fairly well set by early teens and can only be altered by significant life-altering events such as having a child, business or academic failures, death of loved ones, unemployment or job loss. Value conflict erupts when opposition is based on interpersonal differences. According to Rokeach, there are three types of value conflicts. These are; intra/ interpersonal conflict and individual-organisational value conflict.

a. **Intrapersonal value conflict.** Highly ranked instrumental and terminal values pulling individual in opposing directions can result into inner conflict and stress. Intrapersonal value conflict involves internal priorities that bring about role conflict. A person who values happiness may find it difficult to be aggressive. If the work setting is such that engenders competition and a measure of competitiveness, interpersonal conflict will result.

b. **Interpersonal value conflict.** This type of conflict runs parallel to intrapersonal value conflict. It results in combinations of instrumental and terminal values that may inevitably spark disagreement in interpersonal relationship with others. A worker may ignore juicy posting that involves bribe taking to the chagrin of more materialistic coworkers.

c. **Individual-organisation value conflict.** For organisation seeking to embed certain values into their corporate culture, conflict may arise if such values as espoused and enacted collide with employees' values. Organisation's core value and guiding principles such as diversity, respect for elders and timeliness though good in themselves may be hard to sell in heterogeneous organisations where such values are assumed at diverse levels of assimilation.

3. **Intergroup conflict.** This is addressed to conflict among work groups, teams, departments, unions that may degenerate to infighting, politicking and industrial action. This can be a threat to competitiveness, productivity and industrial peace.

4. **Cross-cultural conflict.** The global economy embraces cross-border mergers, joint ventures, mergers, acquisitions, foreign direct investments and other forms of alliances. Doing business with people of diverse culture is not a matter of right and wrong but accommodation, acculturation and adaptation. African cultures are communal, while Western and Eastern/Asian cultures are individualistic and collectivistic respectively. Among these cultures, there are widespread differences in perceptions of time, interpersonal space, language, religion, achievement and so forth.

3.4 CONFLICT HANDLING MECHANISM

Resolving conflicts revolves around the use of *internal* and *external* mechanisms. Internal mechanisms are those put in place by the organisation based on its experiences of past disputes and attempts at dispute resolution.

Internal mechanism according to Obisi (1996) occurs when management routinely device ways and means of regulating overt conflict. Such attempts and mechanisms that result are often referred to as internal conflict regulatory machinery. In essence, the external method of

resolving conflict begins after the internal procedure has become dead locked. The internal procedures are as follow:

Table4.1: Internal disputes settlement procedures

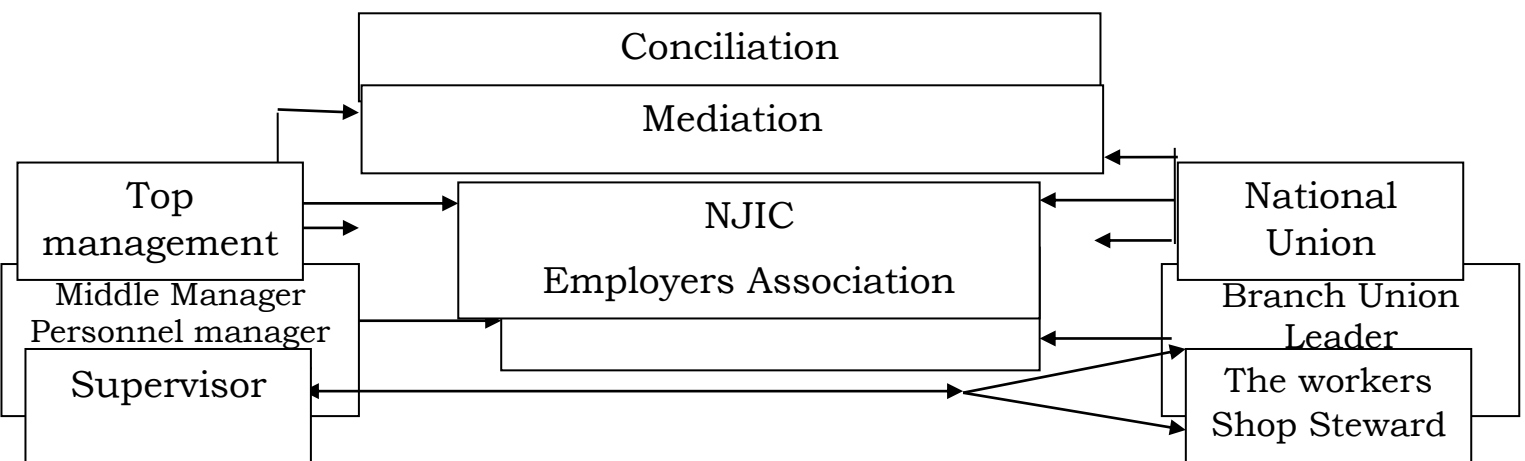
Dispute / Conflict
Worker / His Superior
Worker / Head of Section
Worker/ Human Resource Manager and Union leader
Worker/ Head of the department
Grievance Committee

Source: Animashaun and Shabi (2000), adapted.

The table shows the progression of action often taken internally the moment grievance is noted. The worker reports to his/her supervisor or the head of section whichever is more accessible. If these could not resolve the conflict, it is reported to the human resource manager and or union leader who will try to resolve the dispute. If no satisfactory resolution is obtained, the case may be taken to the head of department who may attempt resolution or eventually refer the matter to the grievance committee.

External dispute resolution mechanisms.

Figure 4.1: External procedure for resolving conflict



Source: Fashoyin(1992)

The external methods of resolving conflicts comprise of the following:

1. Mediation
2. Conciliation
3. Industrial Arbitration Panel
4. Industrial Court

Mediation. According to subsection 3 of the trade disputes decree 1976, the parties should look for the assistance of a mediator which the conflicting parties agree on. This should be done within seven days.

Conciliation. If the mediation fails, the minister of labour should within seven days send a conciliator to look into the matter and the conciliator should within 14 days *make* his report to the minister. The conciliator is out there to settle the disputes but if the parties willingly agree, he may settle the conflict.

Industrial Arbitration Panel. If the conciliation fails, the minister of labour according to section 7 of the trade dispute decree refers the case to the IAP. Not everybody is involved in

IAP. It comprises of trade union members employers of labour and respected administrators. It is like a court even cases involving essential services could be referred to directly without going through mediation, conciliation etc. The IAP can hear a case up to 42 days. However, the minister of Labour may extend the period on solid grounds. IAP's decision or awards would be sent to the minister of labour, who would send the outcome to the parties involved. If there is no objections raised by either side within 21 days from the day the award would be published, it becomes binding on the parties. However, if there is any objection it would now be referred to the final authority.

National Industrial Court. The national industrial court is the highest authority in dispute settlement machinery. It is equal to a high court and certain cases can be referred directly to it particularly the essential services. It is also known as a court of Appeal or Court of first instance. It examines and interprets the decisions of the lower machineries and interprets collective agreement. Industrial court comprises mainly of five members with a serving or retired high court judge as the chairman. The awards of the National Industrial Court are enforceable and offenders could be pulled up for contempt.

3.5 NEGOTIATION/CONFLICT HANDLING STRATEGIES

According to Bankole (2011) conflict handling behaviour as a concept refers to the behavioural orientation of an individual in conflict situation. Such an orientation essentially determines the style the individual or group will adopt in situation requiring conflict resolution. Five such styles or strategies have been identified by Mitchell (2002) which are:

1. ***Dominating strategy.*** In using this strategy, there is much reliance and use of position, power, aggression, verbal dominance and perseverance. The main goal is a win-lose outcome while the need of the other bargaining party is ignored. It is power oriented and precipitates dissent and requires greater use of assertiveness for the other party to gain in the outcome. The style may be effective where the locus of power is uneven but will most likely lead to alienation and another day of grievances, negotiation, deadlock and so forth.
2. ***Accommodating strategy.*** The strategy presents a lose-win scenario in which individual differences as well as divergence of opinion and perspectives are downplayed while areas of common interest are emphasized. Individual or group using this style shows higher concern for others than self.
3. ***Avoiding strategy.*** It is a lose-lose situation in which disputants are both physically and emotionally detached not from the problem but from the processes that will lead to resolution. Such tactics as postponement, avoidance of topical issues, jokes, noncommittal attitude and irrelevant remarks are common to individuals using this strategy. Obviously not an effective strategy as it fails often to move resolution of issues and the parties are left hurt, frustrated, annoyed, angry and resentful.
4. ***Collaborative strategy.*** The focus of individuals or group using this approach to handling dispute is collaboration, problem solving, high concern for self and others. Efforts are deliberately geared at identifying and resolving conflictual issues using flexible, novel and creative solution that leaves parties in a win-win state. The strategy when successfully applied will generate inclusiveness, satisfaction and cordial industrial relations atmosphere in both short and long run.
5. ***Compromising strategy.*** Compromise means give-and-take or sharing. It is an example of concessional bargaining style where concession is traded and satisfactory middle ground is attained. A unique approach aimed at production, remuneration and peaceful industrial atmosphere.

3.6 ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) is an example of external dispute resolution technique aimed at lessening tension and generating trust between disputants. In some countries, it is a type of dispute resolution processes and techniques that act as a means for disagreeing parties to come to an agreement short of litigation. ADR has gained widespread acceptance among both the general public and the legal profession in recent years. In fact, some courts now require some parties to resort to ADR of some type, usually mediation before permitting the parties cases to be tried. The rising popularity of ADR can be explained by the increasing case load of not settlement at mediation. The rising popularity of ADR can be explained by the increasing caseload of traditional courts, the perception that ADR imposes fewer costs

than litigation, a preference for confidentiality, and the desire of some parties to have greater control over the selection of the individual or individuals who will decide their dispute.

ADR has been both, increasingly used alongside and integrated formally, into legal systems internationally in order to capitalize on the typical advantages of ADR over litigation which include the following; suitability for multi-party disputes, flexibility of procedure - the process is determined and controlled by the parties in the dispute, little wastage of time, lower costs, less complexity, parties choice of neutral third party (and therefore expertise in area of dispute) to direct negotiations/ adjudicate.

Other important outcomes are likelihood and speed of settlements, practical solutions tailored to party's interests and needs (not rights and wants, as they may perceive them), durability of agreements, confidentiality, and the preservation of relationships and the preservation of reputations.

A growing no of organisations now have formal ADR policies using various combination of techniques such as;

Facilitation. It is a form of detriangle in which the third party, usually a manager, informally bring disputants to deal directly with each other in a positive and constructive manner.

Conciliation. It used when conflicting parties refuse to meet face to face. A neutral third party acts as a communication conduit with immediate goal to establish direct communication to explore common ground of understanding thereby resolving the dispute.

Peer review. A panel of trustworthy co-workers, selected (and rotated from time to time) for their objectivity and perhaps neutrality, hears both sides of the dispute issues in an informal and confidential manner. The decision of the panel may or may not be binding on parties depending on company's policy.

Ombudsman. A well respected and trusted employee may be engaged to hear out the parties and to attempt a resolution of the dispute.

4.0 CONCLUSION

One could see that conflict though a part of organisational life can be anticipated and managed using both internal and external mechanisms. There are equally negotiation/bargaining strategies that are available to gain either cooperation or concessions in either win-win or win-lose situations. Recently the Alternative Dispute Resolution is gaining in popularity because it is less legalistic, cheaper, less time consuming and could achieve effective resolution of disputes if parties go into it in good faith.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit captured in some details the following issues with regards to conflict in industries and organisations:

- Understanding of the meaning of conflict and negotiation
- Discussion of the sources and types of conflict
- The mechanisms/strategies for negotiation and
- Resolving conflict in industries and organisations using the ADR as a more informal means of conflict resolution.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Why is conflict rife in Nigerian industries and organisations? Discuss in a five page write up.
2. Strikes are common features of Industrial Relations in Nigeria. Explain why this is so using recent statistics from the National Bureau of Statistics to buttress your arguments.
3. List and describe ten attributes of a good negotiator.

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MODULE 4: CAREER MANAGEMENT

UNIT 1. SELF-IDENTITY AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

CONTENT

- 1.0 introduction
- 2.0 objectives
- 3.0 Main content
- 3.1 Meaning of career development
- 3.2 Meaning of self-identity
- 3.3 Career anchors
- 3.5 Career cycle
- 3.6 Career plans
- 3.7 Self-assessment and career planning
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked assignment
- 7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In agrarian societies hard work by individuals was the key to success. But in industrial societies individuals gain success through efforts within the structure of companies. Today, most people spend the great part of their life in pursuit of a career in industries and organisations. Much of that period of their lives is spent much in ignorance of what their abilities are and which career could best suit those abilities. Primarily mismatch of abilities with career is a major cause of dissatisfaction in both career and life.

If work began, since the era of scientific management, to be classified and broken down to duties, tasks, working conditions, hazards and responsibilities and roles assigned on the basis of abilities, knowledge and skills, the need for insight into ones abilities, strengths and weaknesses needed for career success is crucial. There are existing theories that can give insight into the fit between man and job.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- The meaning of career and career development
- What career anchors are
- The theories of career development, and
- How to find a bridge between assessment, planning and successful organisational life.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

A **career** is ones particular area of work within a series of jobs. The work usually involves more responsibility as time passes. One can pursue a teaching/academic career, career in medicine or politics. What one does over a period of time becomes ones' career.

Development is a dynamic construct implying gradual growth, or increase or advancement. A career according to Fajana (2002) is the pattern or sequence of work roles of an individual. A career is not simply

moving up a career ladder within one's organisation. It is a sequence of work related experiences that people participate in over the life span of their working lives. A person's career might include moving up the corporate ladder (vertically up) or moving across the organization (i.e. laterally) or may involve changing jobs or occupation.

Career development is situated within organizational environment, where it involves levels of employees who are individually responsible for growth or development of their career. Organizations do however formulate career development policies which determine how talents are sourced, utilized, upgraded and discarded. Effective career development has been said to improve employee satisfaction and self-esteem, minimize stress, and strengthens the employees' psychological and physical health. Effective career development is also of benefit to the organization as well as the individual employee.

3.2 MEANING OF SELF-IDENTITY

The self is both a simple and complex concept. It is more than a mental construct located in your head – It is you, a *social being* with ability to engage in *symbolic communication* and *self awareness*. Often we ask the question who am I? Who am I relative to others? What is my purpose in life? Aristotle, a Greek Philosopher once said that “the unexamined life is not worth living” This applied in the content of self could have read that the unexamined self is not worth being a self!

The question, who am I, is definitely that of a desire to find or fix an identity. A quest to anchor one's personality or self upon some definite ideas of success/ failure, meaningfulness / non-meaningfulness, or simply to see oneself in retrospect.

Exercise 1: Pick a sheet of paper, on the left column, number 1 to 20 and beginning each sentence with the statement “I am”, make a list of up to twenty different responses to the question “who am I?”

Easy to do? Perhaps not so! Psychologists have used this type of procedure to understand how we develop our sense of identity. Three issues are important in the earlier definition of self.

1. *That the self is a social being.* The self does not develop in isolation but relative to certain relevant others, That is, the self evolves within a social context. The social context includes father, mother, and siblings as member of the nuclear family. Also uncles, cousins, nieces, nephews and/ immediate neighbours often form the nucleus of our early life interactions and do rob off on our sense of self. The nature and kind of interaction produces unique attributes of individualism or communalism (collectivism) depending on how broad or narrow the nexus of interaction is. The African child does often evolve into a communal being because of the extended family system, while the American child is individualistic.

2. *Self as a symbol using agent.* This implies the self as a “meaning seeking” agent/meaningful object. He categorises his enveloping environment of living and non-living entities by assigning symbols that assists in understanding, planning and coordinating his activities. Symbol usage also assists in regulating our behaviour as well as in anticipating the actions of others. The development and use of language has also assist in assigning meaning and value to the environment in which he lives.

3. *Self-awareness.* The self exist relative to others. Self-awareness provides knowledge about own behaviour, and encourages the use of insight from inner experiences to anticipate how rivals might behave in the future - in war or social engagements - thus giving advantage in the activities.

On the whole, the self is not a ‘thing’ distinct or separate from the person. We do not *possess* a self or *have* a self; rather we *become* a self through maturation and socialization.

What is assessment? It means to examine, form an opinion or make judgment about after careful consideration. Another word for assessment is evaluation. Self-assessment therefore is careful examination of self, with respect to certain salient expectations (of success or failure) or values, or beliefs especially those held by one with respect to either common opinions of significant others.

3.3 CAREER ANCHORS

There are reasons behind choice of career by individuals. An individual's career choice according to Schein (1978) is informed by:

1. Motivation.
2. Self-perceived talents and abilities.
3. Self-perceived motive and needs.
4. Self-perceived attitudes and values.
5. Technical/functional competence.
6. Management competence.

7. Security and stability.
8. Creativity.
9. Autonomy and independence.
10. Need for power, influence and control.

3.4 CAREER CYCLE

There are a number of propositions by scholars who had devoted time to the study of career stages across organizations. Two of such studies are briefly reviewed below. Schein had proposed nine stages, while Greenhans and Callaman proposed a five stage cycle.

Schein's nine stages of career development cycle.

Age	Career stage
	Growth, fantasy, exploration
16-25	Entry into the world of work
16-25	Basic training
17-30	Full membership in early career
25plus	Full membership in mid career
	Mid career crises
40plus	Late career
40plus	Decline and disengagement
	Retirement

Greenhans and Callaman five stage cycle.

Stage	Age	Characteristics
1	up to 25	occupational choice; preparations for worth.
2.	18 to 25	organisational entry.
3.	25 to 40	early career establishment and achievement
4.	40 to 55	Mid career\
5.	50 & above	Late career.

It could be seen from the above that one's career spans, giving the definition of the labour force in Nigeria as consisting of people from between ages 15 – 65, more than a third of the lifespan. Each of the stages poses unique challenges to both employees and employers of labour. Pre entry stage is characterized with schooling/training, fantasy about certain 'noble' careers or successful models and several activities not excluding self and others assessment, job search and the confusion of the first few days at work. The induction training in all good intent is meant to cater for the need of new recruits who needed to be situated within the context of a new organizational culture, climate and work ethics. The general and specific rule of work, often captured in the company's employees' handbook, is made available to serve as guide.

3.5 Career Plans

Organization's human resource plan for career growth and development may be for long (focus on future) or short term plans (focus is on the immediate).

i. **Short term plans.** In short term plans no deliberate effort is made to process skills through the organizations growth machineries. High performers are not identified and approved for future responsibilities. The prevailing assumptions will be that high performers will ultimately prove themselves and assume greater future responsibilities, otherwise the organisation will recruit from outside. Where deliberate effort is not made to develop and harness internal labour market, workers are difficult to put to action and such organisation will experience higher rate of workers' turnover.

ii. **Long term career plans.** A highly structured career management plans are put in place to train, motivate and promote high performers to assume greater responsibilities. Performance is periodically assessed, rewarded and training is given to meet future needs.

Another feature of long term plan is the broadening as well as deepening experience of job holders through exposure to relevant technology. Long term plans occur more in large organisation with individual structure, whereas short term plans is more common in small and rapidly growing organisations.

3.6 SELF-ASSESSMENT AND CAREER PLANNING

The self with respect to relevant social environment began as soon as one's sense of self is evolving. In the traditional society, assessment does often go beyond the individual person. Parents concerned about the present and future outcomes had over the years used different means to assess the future of their children. Such practices as divination, palmistry, star gazing or horoscope were attempts used in the past and still used today, by parents and individuals to ascertain the future. These attempts lack scientific base and may lead into erroneous judgment of future prospects. Certain individuals unfortunately base decision such as choice of career or profession on such ideas and traditional practices.

Self-assessment becomes realistic and with a chance to make valid prediction if based on objective facts about human abilities, interests, competencies and experiences. The basis for career choice and planning is understanding of natural abilities upon which adequate cultivation and training can be built for successful work experiences. Some of such bases are: physiological, cognitive, emotional, behavioural, socio/economic, past history, personality and needs.

Physiological. We are basically a biological being and physiological factors are largely inherited except where accidentally caused. The first contact with a person often lead to rough and rapid assessment of his physiological characteristics; such as height, physique, beauty / handsome or ugliness etc. Phrenology (assessment of a person's behaviour on the basis of shape of the skull or facial features) was once popular as a result of belief that physical features are good indication of certain specific abilities. In abilities requiring raw brawn (e.g. wrestling and boxing) for instance, a person's physiology is indicative. Certain professions as modelling and basket ball are respectively predicted for instance on the basis of good physique and height.

Cognitive. Perhaps a more important ability in career choice is the cognitive or intellectual ability. Cognitive abilities are many and varied. Traditionally, the intelligent quotient (IQ) measure has been presented as a unified measure of intellectual capacity. In reality, there are several intellectual functions some of which are;

- i. Verbal ability. This refers to ability to comprehend and use words.
- ii. Numerical ability. That is ability to use and manipulate numbers for mathematical and statistical ends. The population of students picking their vocation on the basis of dislikes or otherwise for mathematics attest to disparity in this ability. The skill is useful in all science, business and a wide range of occupations.
- iii. Spatial. Meaning ability to relate with dimensions of space and relativity of space and time. People in engineering, Geology, Geography, need this ability to function as pilot, surveyor, cartographer and so forth.
- iv. Psychomotor. Movement and use of fingers and other extremities are controlled and coordinated in the brain. Women for instance, have been shown to be more dexterous in their use of fingers, while men use their legs better. This may explain the preponderance of female typists and computer operators.
- v. Abstract reasoning. Meaning ability for logic deductive reasoning. It is an important ability for would be scientists, researchers and people dealing with abstract component of experience.
- vi. Creativity. Creativity refers to ability to derive novel solution to problem by bringing remote elements of experience together to produce new objects, new ideas or build new movement or models. It is useful ability in Art, Engineer, Science and in all field of endeavour where there is a need to break new grounds in human and material experience. This ability is limited in most population, and belongs more or less to the realm of geniuses like Isaac Newton, Wole Soyinka and Engineer Awojobi. They exhibit what Debono called lateral thinking.
- vii. Problem solving. It is an ability required where complex problems are involved. Problem solvers are unique in their mode of thinking, use of imagination, and ability to go beyond normal mode of thinking. Problem solving ability also leads to novel and creative solutions and as such has been though a different concept, studied along with creativity. The ability is also not so common or not so widely developed among most society man.

Emotional. While cognitive abilities describe rational factors of human behaviour, emotional factors are the basis of some irrational factors in man and also the basis of various motivational tendencies. Certain noted emotions are fear, frustration hate, anger, hate on the negative side, and love, joy, satisfaction and excitement on the positive side. Emotions are also described as temperament and are believed to have influence on both covert and overt behaviour as well as on occupational choices and life outcomes.

For instance, Emotional Intelligence (EI) which refers to assortment of non-cognitive skills, capacities and competencies has been shown to influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. It's composed of five dimensions;

Self awareness – ability to be aware of what you are feeling

Self management – ability to manage one's own emotions and impulses

Self-motivation – ability to persist in the face of setbacks and failures

Empathy – ability to sense how others are feeling
Social-skill – ability to handle the emotions of others.

Behavioural basis. One's behaviour (covert) and behavioural tendencies (covert) can serve as relevant and informed basis for self assessment. In most instances people are judged on the basis of what *they do* or what they refrain from doing. Ones behaviour at present is an insight into what one might do at a later. If certain behaviour is persistent in a child e.g. reading, singing, playing football, doodling, it may be an indication of his area of potential or interest in later life. A number of people had made it through life by developing their age long interest or relapsing into former pre-occupation after an extensive waste of time in other vocations.

Socio-Economic Basis. For certain skills or aptitudes to be developed, ones social and economic (individual, familiar or national) had to be assessed. Many who would have been a doctor may come from a background that is rich in poverty and as such unable to access found for the training. Most society in the developed world has put in place social and economic mediatory measures that will assist indigent but talented individuals to pursue their dreams. Nigeria is yet to come of age in this aspect, the social and economic footholds for training and educational had been further weakened by reckless and unrelenting reforms that have led to a vastly privatised nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary education to the advantage of indigent talents and potentialities.

Past History. Making self-assessment, with respect to past history, depend on the stage of life of the assessor; preschool, school age, school leaver or professional. For children, parents do often judge choice of career for their children mainly in the light of their own career success or failure. While most uneducated parents have little or nothing to say in their children choice of career, often they prefer popular professions like Law, Medicine, and Engineering. Educated parents may wish to use their children choice of career as wish fulfilment tool to satisfy their area of career failure or to betroth to them fortunes from their career success e.g. a legal practice, their company, assets and sometimes liabilities.

Personality Basis. Certain personality characteristics tend to relate to job success. People belong to several personality categorizations such as; Extroverts (Externally projected and socially gregarious individuals) and Introverts (internally directed, reticent, and easy going). Also people can make assessment of career orientation on the basis of their dominant needs. Milande and Costa (1999) using the factor analytic approach proposed four higher order factors each including several of Cattell's factors. The 'big five' factors have been well researched and found to be predictive of life outcomes such as career success. The big five' factor is presented using the acronym OCEAN for open conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neurotism.

Table 4.2: The Big Five Personality Factors

THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY FACTORS AND THEIR LOWER-ORDER TRAITS	
Big Five Factors	Lower-Order Traits
Openness	Artistically sensitive vs. Artistically insensitive Intellectual vs. unreflective, narrow Polished, refined vs. crude, boorish Imaginative vs. simple, direct
Conscientious	Fussy, tidy vs. careless Responsible vs. undependable Scrupulous vs. unscrupulous Persevering vs. quitting, fickle
Extraversion	Talkative vs. silent Frank, open vs. secretive Adventurous vs. cautious Sociable vs. recluse
Agreeableness	Good natured vs. irritable Not jealous vs. jealous Mild, gentle vs. headstrong Cooperative vs. negativistic
Neurotism	Poised vs. nervous, tense Calm vs. anxious Composed vs. excitable

Adapted from Passer and Smith, (2001)

The decisive influences of personality factors cannot be overemphasized. For instance, extraverts with propensity to be highly sociable are likely to buy with an objective to meet up with people's expectation rather than self. Loud colours will be likely preferred, as much as he / she will eat out of the home environment regularly and in company of others. The introvert on the other hand will prefer mild colours, show little concern for giving socially approved impressions of him/her and his/her general buying behaviour will reflect this orientation.

Needs. Our needs in life dominates our emotions, behaviour, and motives. Several needs, ranging from family, societal, and personal needs can form the basis of consideration for career choice. Most educated Africans in 1960s became journalists or politicians because of societal need for emancipation from colonialism. Many communities today still decide the career choice of their indigenes on the basis of areas of political, social or economic imperatives. The Niger Deltans will want their people to acquire skills that are suitable in the oil companies. Government in Nigeria had in the past made policies that favour career choices in science and engineering. Individuals may also see their education and career choice as a means to an end such as eradication of poverty, defending family legalizes or as result of a need to pursue knowledge and enlightenment.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Career begins with understanding of one's identity within the context of natural abilities, needs and societal perception. Self-assessment is signposted in physiological, cognitive, personality and other attributes which makes career plans feasible and predictable.

5.0 SUMMARY

Studying this unit, you would have learnt:

- * Meaning of career development and self-identity
- * What career anchors are and career cycle
- * About career plans, and
- * Self-assessment and career planning

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Fully discuss the ten career anchors listed in 3.2.
2. Compare and contrast the Holland's theory of occupational choice and the Big Five personality of McCrae, and Costa, (1999).

7.0 REFERENCES

- McCrae, R. R. & Costa, P. T. (1999). The five-factor model of personality. In L. A. Pervin and O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and Research*. New York: Guildford Press.
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UNIT 2. TYPES AND THEORIES OF CAREER

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Types of Career
 - 3.2 Theories of Career
- 4.0 Conclusion

- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Career theories are many and assists in excavation of crucial underlining traits, factors and needs that are fulfilled by career both for the individual, policy makers, educators and society in general.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this unit is to review some of the theories of career and career development. Though, many theories are listed, students will be expected to research into these theories and make an updated note of their own that is concise and touching on the essential features and possible criticisms of the theories.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 TYPES OF CAREER

Career opportunities exist in the formal and informal segments of the labour market. Opportunity is determined by several factors, and depending on whether one enters as employee, entrepreneur or apprentice.

1. Entering as employee - An employee works for other people on the basis of a contract of employment which stipulates relevant conditions of work such as hours of work, resumption time, pay, allowances and benefits, risk associated with job and mode of determination of contract. Formal organizations often keep a record of description of job and human requirement for all job positions. Opportunity for work presupposes some level of training which will put the individual into different layer of the organisation or ministry he hopes to work for.

2. As entrepreneur - The entrepreneur participates in the labour market as employer by labour. He owns the means of production, capital, land, equipment, raw materials, and seeks people (employee) to help translate his business objectives. He paid only money and other in-kind rewards to attract, motivate and retrain good workers. His main motive for doing business is profit. Entrepreneur operates as sole proprietors or engages in several types of ownership structure; partnership, limited, private or public liability concerns.

3. As apprenticeship - Apprenticeship occurs mostly in the informal sector. The apprentice is on a short term training course which will result in his own venture or a period as journey man.

Typically, in Nigeria, the labour market admits many entrants (nationals and foreigners) as employer, employee, or apprentice. Entry preparation exists in the form of school certificates (junior and senior), ordinary and higher diplomas, NCE, B. A or B. Sc degrees, and post graduate degrees such as post graduate diploma (PGD), M.A / M.Sc, M. Phil and PhD degrees. Entry also depend on areas of specialty such as business management, sciences, banking and finance, human resource management, engineering, law and so forth. At lower levels where semi and unskilled labour is required, specialty is not so important. Various skills: manual, technical, or managerial are traded in the labour market and these gives job openings in relevant ministries and Organisations.

3.2 THEORIES OF CAREER

The traditional concern of human resources managers has been to match individual abilities to specific jobs. Another concern is more global in nature: that is, individual – organization fit. A career however is not just matching skills with a job. It is a complex alignment to personality, values, interests, aptitudes and competencies with the requirements of work and conditions of the work environment. Several theories have been proposed to assist our understanding and provide explanatory framework for career choice of people within the context of several variables bothering on the personality, social support systems, parental/family situation, the labour market context and other indicative factors. Theories help us to make senses out of our experiences by providing explanatory framework for tracing and explaining relationship among seemingly disparate variables.

3.4 THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Of the several career theories here listed John Holland's and Super's career theory will be discussed in some detail. These theories are attempts at alignment of experiences with empirical studies.

1. John Holland's career typology
2. Driver's career concept
3. Super's self-expression theory.
4. Roe's theory

5. Lent, Brown and Hackett's Social Cognitive theory
6. Ginzberg's theory
7. Krumboltz Gottfredson's social learning theory

Holland's Personality-Job theory.

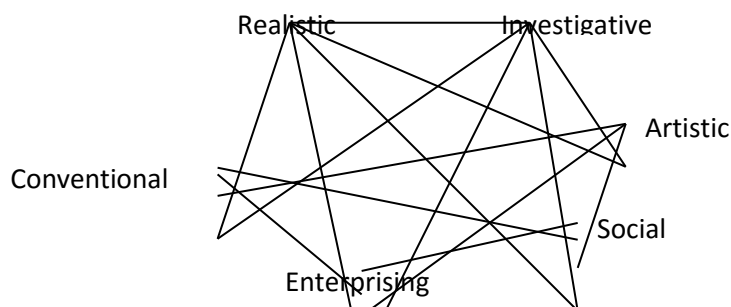
John Holland's (1973) theory is grounded in what he called modal personal orientation or a developmental process established through heredity and the individual's life history of reacting to the environmental demands. More simply put individuals are attracted to a particular occupation that meets their personal needs and provides them satisfaction. Holland's theory, derived from a study of the American population, rests on four main assumptions:

1. In our culture, persons can be categorized as one of the following: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, or conventional.
2. There are six modal environments: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional.
3. People search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles.
4. Behaviour is determined by an interaction between personality and environment.

Also called *Holland's theory of occupational choice*, the theory derived from development, by Holland, of vocational preference inventory questionnaire that contains 160 occupational titles. Respondents indicate like or dislike for these titles and their responses were used to form six personality profiles. A hexagonal diagram showing that the closer two fields or orientations are in the hexagon, the more compatible they are. Adjacent categories are quite similar, while diagonally opposite orientations are dissimilar.

The implication of this is that a realistic person should be in realistic jobs such as Mechanical Engineering and Farming. A realistic person in a social job is in a most incongruent situation. Adjacent positions (conventional and investigative), for instance, offer the next best degree of congruence to a realistic person

Fig 2:1 Career Diamond of Holland



According to Holland's theory, the six types represent characteristics of both the work environment and the personality traits and interests of people in those working environment. It is notable however that few people fall squarely into only one type. The extent to which the individual fits into one or several types are his degree of differentiation, which the extent to which he is aligned to the similar rather than dissimilar types, is his degree of consistency. A highly differentiated person is aligned with a single category, whereas most people relate to two or more categories. Along with the hexagon, he proposes the personality typology and their congruent occupations.

Table 2.1: Holland's Typology of Personality and Congruent occupations

Type	Personality trait	Work environment characteristics	Sample occupations
Realistic	Shy, genuine, practical, stable, persistent, conforming	Physical activities requiring strength and co-skill	Assembly worker, dry cleaner, mechanical engineer, farmer, drill

	materialistic	ordination. Work with hands, machines tools, focus on tangible results	press operator.
Investigative	Analytic, introverted, concerns reserved, precise, creative, independent, impulsive idealistic, intuitive emotional, original	Work involves thinking organizing and understanding, discovering, collecting and analyzing data problem solving	Biologist, economist, news reporter, mathematician dentist, system analyst
Artistic	Creative, impulsive, idealistic, emotional intuitive, imaginative, disorderly, impractical	Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities, that allows creative expression, creation of new products or ideas unstructured setting	Journalist, architect, advertising executive, writer, painter, writer, painter musician, interior decorator
Social	Sociable, outgoing, need for affiliation, conscientious friendly, co-operative, understanding	Serving others helping developing working in teams	Social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologist nurse.
Enterprising	Confident, assertive, need for power, energetic, ambitious, domineering.	Verbal activities opportunities to influence others and attain power achieving goals through others a result-oriented environment	Sales person stockbroker, politician lawyer, real estate agent, small business manager, public relations specialist.
Conventional	Dependable, disciplined orderly, practical, efficient, conforming, inflexible, unimaginative	Prefers rule-regulated, orderly and unambiguous activities, systematic manipulation of data	Accountant, tanker, administrator file clerk corporate manager.

Although each individual is made up of six types, one type is usually dominant. Most personalities tend to resemble up to three of the six personality factors. Holland's model of occupational choice, though had left out -3- dimensions of the "Big five" personality traits such as conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeability, and treating only openness and extroversion, has laid foundation for many career development activities in use today. The theory in the overall emphasizes the point that effective career development involves finding a good "fit" between the individual's personality and the work environment. Several researches have shown support for Hollander's typology. The theories' strongest criticism is that it is gender bias. Females tend to score high only in the three personality dimensions; artistic, social and convectional. Holland attributes this to the fact that females talents are channelled in such a way that certain occupations are female dominated and others male dominated. Holland's typology takes cognitive problem solving approach to career planning and this model has been very influential in vocational counselling. It has been employed by popular assessment tools such as the Self Directed Search, Vocational Preference Inventory and the Strong Interest Inventory. The approach has also resulted in practical resources like the dictionary of Holland occupational codes which applies Holland's codes to major occupations.

Super's Self-Expression Theory

Donald Super also made notable contribution to the development of career theory. Following the work history of a number of men for a period of 25 years he noted in his book Career pattern Study (1957) that career spans series of developmental stages. His 14 basic assumptions about career are as follows:

1. People differ in their abilities and personalities, needs, values, interests, traits and self-concepts.
2. People are qualified, by virtue of these characteristics, for a number of occupations.
3. Each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of abilities and personality traits, with tolerances for each individual as well as some variety of individual in each occupation.
4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work, and hence their self-concepts change, with time and experience.
5. This process of change may be summed up in a series of life stages (also called maxicycle) characterised as a sequence of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement which consists of developmental tasks. The period between each of the stages are marked by transitions (marked by minicycles) each time a career is punctuated by illness, injury, redundancies social/technological changes or any other socio-economic or personal events.
6. The nature of career patterns, that is, occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs is determined by individual's parental of career socioeconomic, level, mental abilities, education, skills, personality characteristics (needs, interest, values, and self-concepts) and *career maturity* and opportunities.
7. Success in coping with the demands of the environment and of the organisation at any given life-career stage depends on the readiness of the individual to cope with the demands.
8. Career maturity is a psychological construct that denotes an individual's degree of development along the continuum of life-stages and substages of the growth through disengagement.
9. Development through the life-stages can be guided by maturity of abilities, interests, and coping resources, reality testing and development of self-concepts.
10. The process of career development is essentially of developing and implementing occupational self-concepts as a synthesis of inherited aptitudes, physical makeup, opportunity to observe and play various roles which meets approval of superiors and peers.
11. The process of synthesis of and compromise between individual and social factors, self-concept and reality is that of role playing and learning from feedback.
12. Work satisfactions and life satisfactions depend on the extent to which an individual finds adequate outlets for abilities, needs, values, interests, personality traits and self-concepts within the context of work type and situation that allows for exploration and growth.
13. The degree of satisfaction people attain from work is proportional to the degree to which they have been able to implement self-concepts
14. Work and occupation provide a focus for personality organisation for most men and women, though some may focus on peripheral issues like leisure, homemaking, as much as tradition, stereotype, sex role, ethnic, racial and modelling shapes individual preferences.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Of the seven career theories listed, two were explained in detail with the encouragement for the students, using the avenue of the self-tutored assignment, to form a comprehensive and critical note on the other five theories. It is obvious that career theories, such as Super's self-expression, provide comprehensive insights into the factors, dynamics, and course of career from growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance to disengagement.

5.0 SUMMARY

At the end of this unit, you would have learnt about factors that shape individuals careers as the Holland and Super's theories shows.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Provide detail notes on the following theories; Driver's career concept, Roe's theory, Lent, Brown and Hackett's Social Cognitive theory, Ginzberg's theory and Krumboltz Gottfredson's social learning theory.
2. Provide insight into Super's Self-Expression's theory as it applies to Nigerians in at least two segments of the Nigerian economy.
3. Using Holland's career diamond, how does your current course of study and career aspiration fit into your assessment of needs, abilities, interests, motivation, personality traits and self-concept?

7.0 REFERENCES

Andersen, P. & Vandehey, M. (2006) Career Counselling and Development in a Global Economy.

UNIT 3. CAREER COUNSELLING

CONTENT

- Introduction
- Objectives
- Main Content
- Meaning of Career Counselling
- Importance of Career Counselling
- Basic Skills in Career Counselling
- Career Assessment Methods
- Conclusion
- Summary
- Tutor-Marked Assignment
- References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

2.0 OBJECTIVES

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 MEANING OF CAREER COUNSELLING

3.2 IMPORTANCE OF CAREER COUNSELLING

3.3 BASIC SKILLS IN CAREER COUNSELLING

3.4 CAREER ASSESSMENT METHODS

4.0 CONCLUSION

5.0 SUMMARY

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

7.0 REFERENCES

MODULE 5: WORKPLACE SAFETY, WELLBEING, QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

UNIT 1. WORKPLACE SAFETY

CONTENT

- Introduction
- Objectives
- Main Content
- Meaning of Psychology
- Meaning of Industrial Psychology
- Meaning of Organisational Psychology
- Goals of Psychology
- Field of Psychology
- Conclusion
- Summary
- Tutor-Marked Assignment
- References

Unit 2. Industrial Accident

CONTENT

- Introduction
- Objectives
- Main Content
- Meaning of Psychology
- Meaning of Industrial Psychology
- Meaning of Organisational Psychology
- Goals of Psychology
- Field of Psychology
- Conclusion
- Summary
- Tutor-Marked Assignment
- References

Unit 3. Equal Employment Opportunities

CONTENT

- Introduction
- Objectives
- Main Content
- Meaning of Psychology
- Meaning of Industrial Psychology
- Meaning of Organisational Psychology
- Goals of Psychology
- Field of Psychology

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UNIT 4. WELL-BEING AT WORK

CONTENT

Introduction
Objectives
Main Content
Meaning of Well-being
Stress and anxiety
Causes of Stress
Consequences of stress
Managing stress and anxiety
Conclusion
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Tutor-Marked Assignment
References

INTRODUCTION

OBJECTIVES

MAIN CONTENT

MEANING OF WELL-BEING

Work offers much more than activities, tasks, duties and responsibilities. Indeed work, as earlier seen has two basic components, the job and the person. Since a significant part of human life, approximately half of wakeful days for the duration of 35 average working years, is spent working work fulfils a lot of roles. Roles that are economic, socio-cultural, psychological in nature are involved in work and working. Work therefore serves to fulfil a lot of life aspirations and is significant to overall wellbeing; physical, social, moral, psychological and spiritual. Workers wellbeing are indexed in such issues as his/her job satisfaction, commitment, involvement, citizenship and what has been described as his/her quality of work life and work life balance.

STRESS AND ANXIETY

CAUSES OF STRESS

CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

MANAGING STRESS AND ANXIETY

CONCLUSION

SUMMARY

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

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Unit 5. Quality of Work Life

CONTENT

Introduction
Objectives
Main Content
Meaning of Quality of Work Life (QWL)
Dimensions of QWL
Models of QWL
Achieving QWL in Nigerian industries
Future prospects

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

a. OBJECTIVES

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

MEANING OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE (QWL)

The term Quality of Work Life (QWL) is premised on the philosophical principles that people are the most important resource in the organization; this is because they are trustworthy, responsible and capable of making far reaching contributions to the growth and survival of the organisation. As such, people should be treated with dignity and respect. Quality of Work Life is an umbrella term which includes many concepts. QWL means the sum total of values, both materials and non-materials, attained by the worker throughout his life. Whereas quality of work-life is contextualized in work situation, work-life balance is situated in both work and family or domestic life. In a survey of 25 literatures by Yadav & Khanna (2014), QWL was shown to have several dimensions such as participative management, pay and benefits, job satisfaction, organization commitment, growth and development, safety and healthy environment and participative management, salary, social integration, employee participation, welfare opportunities, rewards, team work, attitude and perception. There are many dimensions still untouched which affect quality of work life such as growth and profitability of organization, organization citizenship behaviour and personality. Yadav & Khanna (2014) however found that eight dimensions which are job satisfaction pay and benefits, organisation commitment, safety and healthy environment, growth and development, supervision and demographic factor are most commonly associated with QWL.

DIMENSIONS OF QWL

MODELS OF QWL

ACHIEVING QWL IN NIGERIAN INDUSTRIES

FUTURE PROSPECTS

CONCLUSION

SUMMARY

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

REFERENCES