**COURSE GUIDE**

# PAD 354
# MANPOWER PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

**Course Team** Dr. (Mrs.) Fatima Jummai Akinsanmi - Federal University, Oye-Ekiti & Dr. (Mrs.) Yemisi I. Ogunlela (Course Writers) –NOUN
Dr. Hamza Yusuf **(**Course Editor) – A.B.U., Zaria
Mrs. Martha Oruku **(**Programme Coordinator) – NOUN

**NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA**

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
University Village
Plot 91, Cadastral Zone
Nnamdi Azikiwe Expressway
Jabi, Abuja

Lagos Office
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island, Lagos

e-mail: centralinfo@nou.edu.ng
URL: www.nou.edu.ng



Published by National Open University of Nigeria

Printed 2018

ISBN: 978-978-8521-145-1

**CONTENTS** **PAGE**

## INTRODUCTION

PAD 354: Manpower Planning and Administration is a second semester elective course for students offering B.Sc. Public Administration programme at 300 level. It is an elective 2 unit course of 14 units and each unit is supposed to be covered in two hours. Man power planning and development is also known as human resource planning. It is an essential cornerstone in the efficient management of personnel in an organisation. Man power planning entails getting the right number and type of personnel to do the required tasks for the fulfillment of the goals and objectives of the organisation. It is an ongoing and continuous strategy.

## WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

The overall aim of this course on manpower planning and development is to explore and explain how man power is planned for and developed. It explores how the demand and supply for man power is met in the organisation. Other issues that are related to man power are also considered in this course. The area related to man power planning include training, motivation, discipline, job evaluation, compensation, among others.

## COURSE AIMS

The aims of this course are to expose you to manpower planning, procurement and improvement of workers' performance.

## COURSE OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the need and importance of Manpower Planning
- highlight the objectives of Manpower Planning
- Explain the steps in Manpower Planning
- examine Corporate Planning and the Manpower Planning Process

## WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

You are required to read the study units in each module, in addition to relevant textbooks, journal articles and other materials on the Internetthat will help you to understand the issues and be well grounded. This study is simplified to aid your understanding. There are self-assessment exercises and tutor-marked assignments in each unit. You will, at the end of the semester, be examined on this course.

## COURSE MATERIALS

The National Open University of Nigeria provides you with course materials namely:

- Course Guide
- Study Units
- References for further Reading
- Activities and tutor-marked assignments

## STUDY UNITS

The study units in this course are as follows:

### MODULE 1: Manpower Planning Concept, Demand and Supply Forecast

Unit 1: Manpower Planning and Corporate Planning
Unit 2: Manpower Demand and Supply Forecast
Unit 3: Manpower Planning and Development in Nigeria
Unit 4: Nigeria's Manpower Planning Experience
Unit 5: Problem of Manpower Utilisation in Nigeria

### Module 2: Procurement (Employment)

Unit 1: Recruitment and Selection Processes
Unit 2: Induction of Personnel
Unit 3 Job Evaluation…………………
Unit 4: Compensation Administration

### Module 3: Improvement of Workers' Performance

Unit 1 Employee Training and Development
Unit 2 Performance Appraisal
Unit 3: Motivation
Unit 4: Communication and Manpower Management
Unit 5: Discipline and Disciplinary Procedure

## TEXTBOOKS AND REFERENCES

There are no compulsory textbooks for this course. However, as you go through the course, you will observe that some textbooks are recommended often. This shows that they are crucial to a number of units.

## ASSIGNMENT FILE

The major assignment required of you is a tutor-marked assignment which you are expected to complete at the end of each unit and mail to you tutor.

## ASSESSMENT

Your assessment on this course will be two-pronged. First, you are required to study each unit, attempt the tutor-marked assignments and send them to your Centre for marking. Second, you shall sit for examination on this course at the end of the semester. The self-assessment exercises are meant for you to monitor your personal progress on the course.

## TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

The tutor-marked assignments constitute your continuous assessment, and accounts for 30% of the total score for this course. You are required to attempt, at least, four tutor-marked assignments, three of which must be submitted to your Centre before you sit for the end-of-course examination. Your Facilitator will give you the tutor-marked assignment to attempt and submit.

## FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

You are required to sit for examination at the end of this course. The examination accounts for 70% of the total score for this course. Your score in the examination will be added to your score in the tutor-marked assignment to make up your total score for the course. Your Centre will inform you of the examination period.

## COURSE MARKING SCHEME

| **ASSESSMENT** | **MARKS** |
|---|---|
| Tutor-marked assignments 1-4 | Best three (3) marks out of the four (4) assignments, for a total of 30% (10 marks each). |
| End of course examination | 70% of overall course marks |
| **Total** | **100%** |

## HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

To make the most from this course guide:

- Design your study schedule
- Stick to your schedule
- Gather your study materials
- Follow the study units sequentially
- Go through the objectives of each study unit, after studying the unit, to convince yourself that you understood the unit. If there are doubts, re-study that unit and/or seek support.
- Make your personal notes as you study the units; that will help you to revise for your examination more easily.
- Meticulously revise this study guide as part of your preparation for the end of course examination.

## SUMMARY

This course, PAD 354: Manpower Planning and Development provides you an opportunity to know how man power is planned for in an organisation. It exposes you to manpower planning concepts, demand and supply of manpower, recruitment processes and compensation administration in an organisation. A good understanding of the study units will equip you to pass your examination comfortably. More importantly, it will enable you to perform well at work and evolve into an effective and efficient personnel manager.

**MAIN COURSE**

**CONTENTS** **PAGE**

# MODULE 1 MANPOWER PLANNING CONCEPT, DEMAND AND SUPPLY FORECAST



## UNIT 1: MANPOWER PLANNING AND CORPORATE PLANNING

**CONTENTS**



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about the concept of manpower planning, the definition, the nature of the manpower resource, the feasibility and importance of manpower planning, the objectives and manpower planning process.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the importance of manpower planning
- highlight the objectives of manpower planning
- explain the steps in manpower planning
- examine corporate planning and the manpower planning process.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 The Concept of Manpower Planning

Personnel management is productive exploitation of manpower resources. This is also termed as manpower management. Manpower management is choosing the proper type of people as and when required. It also takes into account upgrading the existing people. Manpower planning is the starting point of manpower management. Every manager in an organization is a personnel man, dealing with people.

Planning is using the available assets for effective implementation of production plans in an organization. After plans are prepared or made people are grouped together to achieve organizational objectives. Planning is concerned with coordinating, motivating and controlling of the various activities within the organization.

Manpower planning in human resource management is a central factor. The penalties for incorrect staffing in any organization are costly. Understaffing leads to losing the business economies of scale and specialization, customers and profits. Over staffing is wasteful and expensive if sustained, and it is costly to eliminate because of certain legislations in respect of redundancy payments, minimum periods of notice, etc.

Manpower planning is the process an organization uses to ensure that it has the right amount and the right kinds of people to deliver a particular level of output or services in the future. Organizations that do not conduct or practice manpower or human resource planning may not be able to meet their future labour needs. They may have labour shortage or have surplus labour.

Human resource planning is concerned with planning the future manpower requirements in the organisation. Human Resource manager ensures that the organisation has the right type of people in the right number at the right time and place, which are trained and motivated to do the right kind of work at the right time. Obviously, human resource planning primarily makes appropriate projections for future manpower needs of the organization. Envisages plan for developing the manpower to suit the changing needs of the organisation from time to time, and foresees how to monitor and evaluate the future performance. It also includes the replacement plans and managerial succession plans. Human Resource planning is the process by which a management determines how an organisation should move from its current manpower position to its desired manpower position. Through planning a management strives to have the right number and the right kinds of people at the right places, at the right time, to do things which result in both the organisation and the individual receiving the maximum long-range benefit.

### 3.1.1 Definitions of Manpower Planning

Coleman defined Human Resource Planning (Manpower planning) as the process of determining manpower requirements and the means for meeting those requirements in order to carry out the integrated plan of the organisation. According to Wikstrom, human resource planning or manpower planning consists of a series of activities, viz., **(a) Forecasting** future manpower requirements, either in terms of mathematical projections of trends in the economic environment and developments in industry, or in terms of judgmental estimates based upon the specific future plans of a company; **(b) Making an inventory of** present manpower resources and assessing the extent to which these resources are employed optimally; **(c) Anticipating** manpower problems by projecting present resources into the future and comparing them with the forecast of requirements to determine their adequacy, both quantitatively and qualitatively; and **(d) Planning** the necessary programmes of requirements, selection, training, development, utilisation, transfer, promotion, motivation and compensation to ensure that future manpower requirements are properly met. Human resource planning is a double-edged weapon. If used properly, it leads to the maximum utilisation of human resources, reduces excessive labour turnover and high absenteeism; improves productivity and aids in achieving the objectives of an organisation. Faultily used, it leads to disruption in the flow of work, lower production, less job satisfaction, high cost of production and constant hiccups for the management personnel. Therefore, for the success of an enterprise, manpower planning is a very important function, which can be neglected only at its own peril.

### 3.1.2 The Nature of the Manpower Resource

The Human resource in any organization is the most complex of the resources. It is the most valuable of the resources. Human resource has the ability to think, to be creative and improve itself. Human resource is complex for the following reasons:

1. People are different from each other in different ways-physically, personality wise, educational attainment, abilities and so on. An organization needs specific people who are able to fulfill specific functions.
2. Human resource is difficult to move around. They are always needed in a specific place. Money is easier to move around.

3. When there is surplus of human resource, it becomes a drain on profits .Too many people are an unnecessary expense. If there is a surplus of money there is always a way that it can be utilized.
4. People are unpredictable, they may refuse to or be unable to meet the requirements of their jobs, they may not co-operate with change and they may decide to leave the organization.

### 3.1.3 Feasibility and Importance of Manpower Planning

The importance of manpower planning cannot be over-emphasized. It is indispensable for effective personnel function and for the business or organization as a whole. The challenge of predicting both internal and external factors in addition to the unpredictable nature of humans may make human resource planning seem almost impossible. Planning for human resource is better seen as preparations for contingencies that may arise, rather than a fixed track to follow. It is better to plan than not to plan at all. According to manzini, a plan imperfect though it may be will generally get us closer to the target than if we had not planned. Planning for human resources is a continuous event, which should be monitored, refined and updated. Each planning cycle should feed into the next.

Human Resource planning is the process by which a management determines how an organisation should move from its current manpower position to its desired manpower position. Through planning a management strives to have the right number and the right kinds of people at the right places, at the right time, to do things which result in both the organisation and the individual receiving the maximum long-range benefit. Human resource planning is a double-edged weapon. If used properly, it leads to the maximum utilisation of human resources, reduces excessive labour turnover and high absenteeism; improves productivity and aids in achieving the objectives of an organisation. Faultily used, it leads to disruption in the flow of work, lower production, less job satisfaction, high cost of production and constant headaches for the management personnel.

Therefore, for the success of an enterprise, human resource planning is a very important function, which can be neglected only at the peril of the enterprise. Coleman has defined Human Resource Planning as “the process of determining manpower requirements and the means for meeting those requirements in order to carry out the integrated plan of the organisation.”

## 3.2 Objectives of Manpower Planning

The major objectives of Manpower Planning in an organisation are to:

(i) ensure optimum use of human resources currently employed
(ii) avoid imbalances in the distribution and allocation of human resources
(iii) assess or forecast future skill requirements of the organisation's overall objectives
(iv) provide control measure to ensure availability of necessary resources when required
(v) control the cost aspect of human resources
(vi) formulate transfer and promotion policies.

## 3.3 Steps in Manpower Planning

Human resource planning refers to a process by which organisations ensure that they have the right number and kinds of people at the right place, at the right time; capable of performing different jobs efficiently. Planning the use of human resources is an important function in every organisation. A rational estimate to various categories of personnel in the organisation is an important aspect of human resource planning. Manpower planning involves the following steps:

**1. Analysis of Organisational Plans and Objectives:** Manpower planning is a part of overall plan of organisation. Plans concerning technology, production, marketing, finance, expansion and diversification give an idea about the volume of future work activity. Each plan can further be analysed into sub-plans and detailed programmes. It is also necessary to decide the time horizon for which manpower plans are to be prepared. The future organisation structure and job design should be made clear and changes in the organisation structure should be examined so as to anticipate its manpower requirements.

**2. Forecasting Demand for Human Resources:** Human resource planning starts with the estimation of the number and type of personnel required at different levels and in different departments. The main steps involved in Manpower process are:

- to determine and to identify present and prospective needs of human resource
- to discover and recruit the required number of persons
- to select the right number and type from the available people
- to hire and place in the positions for which they are qualified

- to provide information to the selected people about the nature of work assigned to them
- to promote or to transfer as per the needs and the performance of employees
- to denote if the employees are disinterested or their performance is not up to the mark
- to terminate if they are not needed or their performance is below standard and shows no hopes of improvement. It is the most crucial and critical area of human resource development.

Thus Human resource development manager must pay attention to place right man to the right job through recruitment selection training and placement of employees. This calls for the adoption of a systematic procedure to complete recruitment and selection.

**3. Forecasting Supply of Human Resources:** One of the important areas of human resources planning is to deal with allocation of persons to different departments depending upon the work-load and requirements of the departments. While allocating manpower to different departments, care has to be taken to consider appointments based on promotions and transfers. Allocation of human resource should be so planned that available manpower is put to full use to ensure smooth functioning of all departments.

**4. Estimating Manpower Gaps:** Net human resource requirements or manpower gaps can be identified by comparing demand and supply forecasts. Such comparison will reveal either deficit or surplus of human resources in future. Deficits suggest the number of persons to be recruited from outside whereas surplus implies redundant to be redeployed or terminated. Similarly, gaps may occur in terms of knowledge, skills and aptitudes. Employees deficient in qualifications can be trained whereas employees with higher skills may be given more enriched jobs.

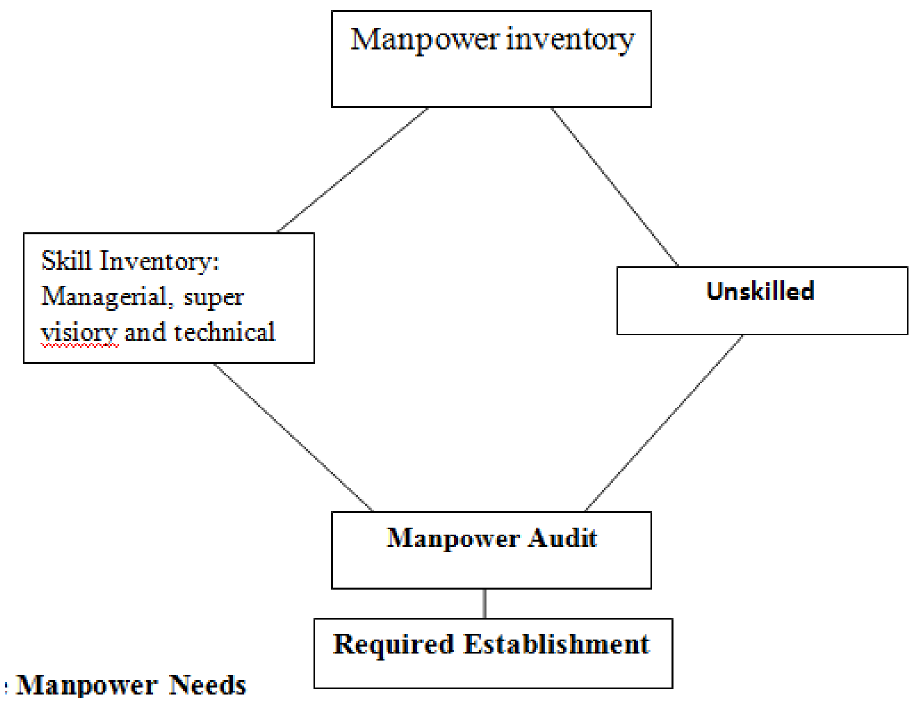
**5. Matching Demand and Supply:** It is one of the objectives of human resource planning to assess the demand for and supply of human resources and match both to know shortages and surpluses on both sides in kind and in number. This will enable the human resource department to know overstaffing or understaffing. Once the manpower gaps are identified, plans are prepared to bridge these gaps. Plans to meet the surplus manpower may be redeployment in other departments and retrenchment in consultation, with the trade unions. People may be persuaded to quit through voluntary retirement. Deficit can be met through recruitment, selection, transfer, promotion, and training plans. Realistic plans for the procurement and development of manpower should be made after considering the macro and micro environment which affect the manpower objectives of the organisation.

## 3.4 The Manpower Planning Process

Manpower planning entails a continuous critical analysis of the current manpower resources available in the organization

### The Manpower Stock

To realistically plan for future manpower requirements, it is important to know the present manpower resources. The examination of the current human resource available, such as managerial, technical, clerical etc. is central. This is referred to as manpower inventory. The manpower inventory is merely the stock- taking of employees in the different categories and in the different sections of an organization. The stock taking will reveal the skills available or lacking and the number of unskilled employees that should or should not be employed. After the stock taking, the manpower audit will follow. This will bring out the actual number of employees on the establishment, and this will form the basis of operations. This is shown in the diagram below




### Future Manpower Needs

After the current size of the establishment has been determined, the next thing is to plan for the future. For any organization to continue to exist, accurate forecasting of the manpower that will be needed is required.

For future manpower forecasting to be successful, the following factors should be put into consideration:

- knowledge of present manpower resources
- information on the manpower environment
- information on business objectives

a. **Present manpower Resources:** For any organization to effectively plan for its future manpower requirements, it must have a proper inventory of present manpower resources.

b. **Manpower environment:** The manpower environment is affected by technological, social, economic and political factors.

   i. **Technological factors:** The manpower requirements of an organization in terms of the occupations and skills are influenced by technological factors. For Example, in a manufacturing company, where a new and complex machine is to be introduced, it is important to determine the time in which the machine will be installed, and possibly start to train the present employees who will operate the machinery or to recruit new employees where the old employees do not have the necessary educational background to acquire that type of skill. Training necessitated by technological changes takes some time, therefore it has to be properly timed, otherwise the company's target date for stating production may not be met.

   ii. **Social factor:** these include population trends, education and social mobility. Here in Nigeria, most young people prefer to work in urban centres. Industries sited in the rural areas are therefore likely to suffer from manpower problems as most of the skilled men and the management staff necessary for the operations may not be available. Educational factor is another major determinant. In some parts of the country, it may be difficult to get adequate local personnel to man some of their industries. The deficiency is mainly in the skilled and managerial grades.

   iii. **Economic factors:** growth in the economy will lead to the establishment of more and more industries, thereby requiring more skilled staff.

   iv. **Political factors:** Political considerations affect the filling of vacancies in Nigeria. There is much talk of ethnic balancing, federal character and so on. Employment these days is based on tribalism and so on.

C. **Business objectives:** the manpower requirements of any organization have to be related to the objectives of that organization.

## 3.5 Corporate Planning and Human Resource Planning Process

Human Resource Planning constitutes an integral part of corporate plan and serves the organisational purposes in more ways than one. For example, it helps organisations to:

(i) capitalise on the strengths of their manpower
(ii) determine recruitment levels
(iii) anticipate redundancies
(iv) determine optimum training levels
(v) serve as a basis for management development programmes
(vi) cost manpower for new projects
(vii) assist productivity bargaining
(viii) assess future requirements
(ix) study the cost of overheads and value of service functions
(x) decide whether certain activities need to be subcontracted.

The human resource plan is a part of the corporate plan. Without it there can be no human resource plan for human resources. If there are several imponderables and unpredictable in the corporate plan, there will be difficulties in human resource planning. Whether or not the human resource planning meets the requirements and is in tune with reality depends on clarity of goals and the validity of the stated assumptions. The other important point is the time frame in defining the future. In human resource planning the future can be classified into three periods:

(i) the short-range or immediate future
(ii) the mid-range
(iii) the long-range future, none of which can be spelt out in terms of a set number of days, months or years.

The immediate future may refer to current situation and experiences and may even concern issues such as overtime and replacements. If there has been previous planning for human resource such, plans can serve as a guide in the immediate future. If not, a beginning should be made at once. The mid-range future has a different time span in various companies. It can be as short as a few months or as long as several years. Most would agree upon 2-3 years' period as a mid-range. The long-range plan could be five years, while 10 to 15 years span could be used for a perspective plan. Long-range plans must be made on the basis of various trends in the economy and in the labour market, and on long-term trends of production in the company. Long-range plans are general rather than specific, flexible rather than rigid. Nevertheless, a plan can be extremely useful in identifying factors and trends that need to be reckoned with for early warning on possible problems. The long range plan provides the opportunity and resilience to meet exigencies and make necessary adjustments. More complete plans can be had as time slowly brings the long-range into short-range.

The first step in the Human Resource Planning process is the establishment of a planning horizon. One should know the period for which the plan will apply. Then, the specific corporate objectives and strategies should be clear. Based on these, estimates or projections for demand and supply of human resources can be made. The difference between the estimates of demand for and supply of human resource is often referred to as the **human resource gap**, and one of the main components of the human resource strategy is to formulate plans for closing such gaps - perhaps by recruitment and training (if the demand is positive, i.e. demand exceeds supply) or by planned redundancy (if the gap is negative).

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Manpower planning is the process an organization uses to ensure that it has the right amount and the right kinds of people to achieve a particular level of performance in the future. Manpower planning is an indispensable part of every organization. Organizations that do not conduct or practice manpower or human resource planning may not be able to meet their future labour needs. They may have labour shortage or have surplus labour.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have considered the concept of manpower planning, the importance of manpower planning, the objectives of manpower planning, steps involved in the manpower planning process and corporate planning.

### SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. What are the steps involved in manpower planning?
ii. For future manpower forecasting to be successful, what factors should be put into consideration?

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the concept of manpower planning in an organization.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Bratton, J. & Godffrey (1999). *Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice*. London: Macmillan press Ltd.

Fombrun, C., Tichy, N.M. & Devanna, M.A. (Eds)(1984). *Strategic Human Resource Management*. New York: Wiley.

Ubeku, A.K. (1975). *Personnel Management in Nigeria*. Lagos: Longman

Watson, T. (1986). *Management, Organisation and Employment Strategy*. London: Routledge and Kegan.

# UNIT 2 MANPOWER DEMAND AND SUPPLY FORECAST

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about manpower demand forecast, various methods of manpower demand forecast, manpower utilization, manpower supply forecast, internal manpower supply methods, and reconciliation.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss manpower demand forecasting
- explain manpower utilisation
- examine manpower supply forecast and methods of manpower supply forecast
- explain manpower reconciliation.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Manpower Demand Forecast

The demand for manpower can be forecast using information from corporate plans or business plans. Such plans express the organization's activity in such terms as production figures, sales figures, number of patients treated, levels of service etc. In other words, how many and what type of employees will we need if we are to produce x amount over the next y years.

Certain techniques are used to translate production figures into numbers and types of employees. These include managerial judgment, use of statistical techniques and so on.

### 3.1.1 Methods for Forecasting Manpower Demand

These can be divided into two groups: objective and subjective methods.

**Objective methods I: (statistical methods)**

These methods depend on the assumption that the future situation will display some continuity with the past. Past events are projected into the future to model what would happen if they continued.

i.) Models based on extrapolation of manpower trends: these models are based on the change in manpower demand, but do not consider the factors which influence this demand. Time series is an example of this model. It is the extrapolation of the relationship between manpower demand and time. They are best used only for short or medium term forecasts, and they have two main disadvantages.
    a.) Historical figures of manpower employed do not necessarily indicate historical manpower demand.
    b.) The models do not make allowances for internal or external changes which may affect manpower demand

ii.) Models relating manpower demand to organizational and environmental circumstances. These models are used to calculate manpower demand as a result of, organizational activities. Models take account of determining factors, such as, production, sales, and level of service. A simple model might relate manpower demand to production; it means if output is to be doubled then manpower would also need to be doubled.

**Objective methods II: Work Study**

This method is based on time study and a thorough analysis of the work done to arrive at the man hours needed per unit of output. Standards are developed for the numbers and levels of employees that are needed to do the tasks. The standards may be developed within the organization or elsewhere. They are most useful when studying production work. It is important that the standards are regularly checked to make sure they are still appropriate.

**The Subjective Method (Managerial Judgment)**

Sometimes it is called executive judgment, managerial opinion or inductive method. It can also include the judgments of other operational and technical staff as well as all levels of managers. This is based on managers' estimate of manpower demand based on past experience and on corporate plans. Managerial judgments can be collected from the "bottom up" with lower level managers providing estimates to go up the hierarchy for discussion and redrafting. Alternatively a top down approach can be used with estimates made by the highest level of management to go down the hierarchy for discussion and redrafting. With this method; it is difficult to cope with changes that are very different from past experiences. It is less precise than statistical method. Managerial judgment is a simple method that can be applied fairly quickly and is not restricted by lack of data.

## 3.2 Manpower Utilization

If organizational goals are to be attained, trained personnel are to work where they can best apply their acquired knowledge and skills. But where employees are not allowed to perform duties for which they are trained, it result in huge financial loss to the organization. Manpower utilization is an important factor which can affect the demand for manpower. The way that manpower is used affects the number and type of employees required.

The use of manpower can be changed through the following means:

i. By the actual task performed as these may be altered or added to.
ii. The time spent on each task: manpower utilization may be changed as a result of conscious attempt to improve productivity; this can be more products per man hour, or a product or service of better quality.

Manpower utilization could also be changed through introduction of new materials or equipments especially new technology etc.
Changes in manpower utilization involve consultation with trade unions. Management alone cannot decide on the most efficient way to utilize manpower and directly implement it.

## 3.3 Manpower Supply Forecast

After forecasting demand for human resources and taking into account how they will be utilized, it is then necessary to ascertain the supply of manpower. Current manpower can be analyzed by considering the number of people in each occupation, age etc.

The analysis of current manpower is important as it provides a basis for forecasting the future internal manpower supply.

Internal manpower supply forecast attempt to predict future internal manpower on the basis of trends in the past. Here, the issues of concern are trends of employees leaving the organization which is referred to as labour turn-over and the trends of employee' movements within the organization. Past trends are predicted into the future to determine what will happen to the current manpower in the near future.

### 3.3.1 Methods for Forecasting Internal MP Supply

Forecasting internal manpower supply is concerned with predicting how the required supply of manpower will change over time, majorly in respect of how many will leave and how many will be internally promoted or transferred. These changes are forecast by analyzing what has happened in the past in terms of staff retention and/or movement, and projecting these into the future to see what will happen if the same trends continued.

In forecasting internal manpower supply, statistical techniques could be used. This can be categorized into analysis of staff leaving the organization, and analysis of internal movement.

**a. Annual labour turnover (LTO) index:** the most common method of measuring L.T.O is to express leavers as a percentage of the average number of employees. The L.T.O index is calculated as in the same period times hundred %

$$\frac{\text{No of leavers in a specified period}}{\text{Average no employed in the same period}} \times 100\%$$

It is most effective when used on a comparative basis L.T.O can vary between different sectors and industries. There is no single best level of L.T.O, so external comparisons are essential to gauge whether rates in an organization are out of line with others in the same industry or sector. Even organizations with lower than average turnover rates can experience problems if people have left from critical jobs or from posts that are difficult to fill. On the other hand, high turnover may not necessarily be problematic. In circumstances where an organization is seeking to reduce cost or reduce the numbers employed a high turnover rate might prove very useful. The major limitation of the LTO index is that it does not provide data on the characteristics of leavers, their reasons for leaving, their length of service or the jobs they have left from. So, while it may indicate that an organization has a problem, it gives no indication about what might be done to address it. For example;

Company A has 200 employees. During the year 40 employees had left from different jobs and have been replaced. The turnover rate is 20%. Company B also has an average of 200 employees. Over the year 40 people have left the same 20 jobs (i.e. each has been replaced twice). The turnover rate is also 20%.

The disadvantage of not stating the location of leavers within an organization can be addressed to some extent by analyzing L.T.O at departmental or business unit level or by job category.

Low labour turnover can cause difficulties as a lack of people with new ideas, fresh ways of looking at things and different skills and experiences can cause organizations to become stale and complacent. It also becomes difficult to create promotion and development opportunities for existing employees.

**b.** **Stability index:** This focuses on the percentage of employees who have stayed throughout a particular period usually, one year. It allows organizations to assess the extent to which labour turnover permeates the work force. It is calculated as:

$$\frac{\text{No of employees with 1 yr's service at a given date}}{\text{No employed 1 yr ago}} \times 100\%$$

Labour turnover and stability indices are used to project historical data into the future. For example, if an organization notes an annual turnover rate of 9 percent it may build this into future projections of available supply.

**c.** **The census method can provide data on the length of service of leavers**. This is essentially a snapshot (a piece of information that quickly gives one an idea of what is at a point in time) of leavers by length of service over a set period, often one year. Length of service is an influential factor in labour turnover. The census method can help to identify patterns of leavers.

**d.** **Survival rate,** i.e. the proportion of employees recruited in a specific year that is still with the organization at a certain later date. For example, a study of a cohort (homogeneous group of people) of 30 graduate employees might show that 12 remained with the organization after five years, giving a survival rate of 40 percent.

i.e. $\frac{\text{No of survivals} \times 100}{\text{T. No of cohort}} = \frac{12 \times 100}{30}$

e. **The half-life of a cohort can also be measured** i.e. the time taken for the cohort to reduce to half its original size.

The main disadvantage with the statistical or quantitative method of turnover analysis is that they provide no information on the reasons why people are leaving. For example, the census method may show that the highest proportion of people leave in the first months, but this does not show whether this is done to poor recruitment or induction practices, the nature of the job, management style or other factors. Quantitative/statistical analyses can help to highlight problems but do not give those responsible for planning any clue on how the problems might be tackled.

## 3.4 Reconciliation

The demand and supply forecast need to be compared and reconciled. The comparison gives the feedback. In the reconciliation process,

1. the supply forecast could be less than the demand forecast in which case the possibilities are to:
   a. Alter the demand forecast by considering the effect of changes in the utilization of manpower, such as training and productivity deals
   b. Alter the demand forecast by considering using different types of manpower to meet the corporate objectives, such as employing a smaller number of staff with higher skills, or employing staff with insufficient skills and training them immediately
   c. Change the company objectives, as lack of manpower will prevent them from being achieved. Realistic objectives may need to be based on the manpower that is forecast to be available.
2. The demand forecast could be less than the internal supply forecast in some areas, in which case, the possibilities are to:
   a. consider and calculate the costs of excessive staff
   b. consider the methods and cost of losing staff
   c. Consider changes in utilization: work out the feasibility and costs of retraining, redeployment and so on.
   d. Consider the possibility of changing the company objectives. Perhaps diversify its production i.e. moving into new markets etc.

The process of feedback and reconciliation entails that management make decision as to which alternatives are followed up and which are eventually adopted as the basis on which to make the manpower plans. The manpower plans cover areas such as:

i. **Manpower supply plans:** plans concerning the timing and approach to recruitment. For example, a decision may be taken to promote the image of a company in order to recruit sufficient staff. Promotion, transfer and redeployment plans will also be considered.

ii. **Manpower utilization plans**: any changes in utilization that affect manpower demand will need to be planned. Some changes could be as a result of sudden change or a gradual change in manpower demand over time. Whatever the case, those employees involved will need to be consulted about the changes and prepared for what will happen.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Data from corporate plans or business plans can be used to forecast manpower demand. The plans express the organization's activity in such terms as production figures, sales figures, number of patients treated, levels of service etc. It stipulates the number and type of employees that will be needed. Certain techniques are used to translate production figures into numbers and types of employees. These include managerial judgment, use of statistical techniques and so on. Internal manpower supply forecast attempt to predict future internal manpower on the basis of trends in the past. Here, the issues of concern are trends of employees leaving the organization which is referred to as labour turn over and the trends of employee movements within the organization.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learned about manpower demand forecast, methods of manpower demand forecast, manpower utilization, manpower supply forecast, methods of internal manpower supply and reconciliation.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. Discuss the methods of forecasting manpower demand.
ii. Discuss the internal manpower supply methods.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the subjective method or managerial judgment of manpower demand forecast.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Torrington, D. et al. (2005). *Human Resource Management*. Essex England: Pearson Education Limited.

Ubeku, A.K. (1975). *Personnel Management in Nigeria*. Lagos: Longman.

# UNIT 3 MANPOWER PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be examining manpower planning and development in Nigeria, the objectives of manpower planning and manpower development in Nigeria.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss manpower planning in Nigeria,
- enumerate the objectives of manpower planning and
- examine manpower development in Nigeria.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Manpower Planning and Development

Manpower planning or employment planning can be seen as the personnel process which attempts to provide adequate human resources to achieve future organizational objectives. This includes forecasting future needs for human resources of various types; comparing the needs with the present work force; and determining the quality and quantity of human resources to be employed, developed, retained or phased out. In every country, the human resources embrace the whole population but here, we are concerned with the number and type of people who are in labour force.

At organizational level, effective employment planning requires strategic decisions by operating managers to stir up the demand for personnel or to set the pace for the demand. They also furnish the data for analysis of the supply side. The personnel manager compares demand and supply and in conjunction with operating managers makes the employment planning and manpower decisions. Manpower planning constitutes a part of the general organization planning. It should therefore be seen in the context of the growth of the organization.

### 3.1.1 Objectives of Manpower Planning

There are three major aims of manpower planning. The first among them is to secure the optimum use of the human resources currently employed. Second, it is meant to provide for the future manpower needs of the organization. And third, at the national or governmental level, it is aimed at providing for effective equal employment opportunity.

### 3.1.2 Strategies for Manpower Planning

Manpower planning should be linked not only with macro-economic planning but also with educational planning both at national and organizational level. In drawing up a viable manpower plan, we need the use of an accounting framework, the projection of manpower needs; the projection of manpower availability; the basis of manpower utilization; and the monitoring of labour mobility.

**Accounting framework:** An effective manpower planning requires at the initial stage a comprehensive demographical survey of both the quantity and quality of the labour available in the country. The total labour force may include both the employed and unemployed. We need to know the quality and quantity of the two categories of the labour force. This is to guide us through the manpower planning.

**The projection of current and future manpower needs:** The current manpower position of the country or organization should be examined before we can project the quantity and quality of manpower supply that we need. Time is a vital factor in manpower planning. An organisation involved in manpower planning may have present manpower requirement, short-time manpower requirement and long-time manpower requirement.

**Present Requirement:** The assessment of present manpower requirement in an organisation can be obtained from various heads of departments in the organisation, public or private.

**Short-time Requirement:** Here the nature and structure of incentives should be noted and a comparison made. Short time manpower requirement is considered here as a period of one to three years. Here it is also necessary to consider both the nature and structure of the incentives; the structure of these includes the salary grading system while the nature of the incentives may include both monetary and non-monetary rewards of workers.

**Long-time Requirement:** The most difficult aspect of manpower analysis is the projection of long-term (future) requirements. Many labour economists agree that the optimum period for long-term manpower requirement is between one and two decades (10 and 20 years). The minimum period should be in ten years, Most especially when we have to consider the time required to provide buildings, development skills and material, build schools, train teachers and provide material and other infrastructures. The number of pupils and students at all levels of learning is an important factor here.

There is no generally accepted effective methodology for estimating future manpower requirements. However, the problem can be lightened by reviewing past trends. Here we consider the past in the growth of the number of people in various occupations, correlate this with the total population, giving room for labour-turn over, and voluntary quits or retirements.

**The projection of manpower Availabilities:** It is difficult to know the exact number of manpower that will be available at a future date. However, planners should be able to come out with *a* rough estimate of both the quality and quantity of manpower that will be available at some specified date. In doing this they have to estimate the total population and compare it with labour force that will be available. All categories of labour should be considered so that specific areas that need special attention can be identified for appropriate actions. The effects of death and birth rates should be considered.

**Analysis of Manpower Utilization**

In most cases, the utilization of manpower is a serious problem. A nation or organization may find itself misusing its available manpower. Misuse of manpower may mean employing much labour than required or employing less than required and thereby creating artificial surplus or shortage of manpower supply. A good analysis of manpower utilization should aim at equilibrium between supply and demand of manpower.

**Considerations for Labour Mobility:** Labour mobility can create a problem for a detailed manpower plan. The labour force moves in and out of organisations. Such movement is difficult to predict Manpower planners should try to study the trend of the labour mobility if they arc to come out with an effective plan.

## 3.2 Manpower Development in Nigeria

Specifically, manpower development here is focused *on* the educational system in the country, since it is through this system that the various skills can be met in the economy. By implication, the problem of manpower development in this country is rooted in the system of education which has been evolving over the years. This becomes more explicit if reference to the history of education in Nigeria is made.

The Western education was introduced in this country by the missionaries whose activities were basically limited to the coastal areas. The Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society established the first modern school in this country at Badagry, in 1842, through the efforts of James Fergusson. Towards the end of the year, Thomas Birch Freeman established another school in Abeokuta, and by 1849 both the Church and educational activities, have spread to cover Lagos and Ibadan. By 1894, these activities had covered other coastal areas like Bonny, Calabar and Owerri in the East, while the northern part of the country was considered "unfit at present". When Lord Lugard became Governor-General for the colony and Protectorates of Nigeria in January, 1914, he was committed to the issue of introducing the system of Indirect Rule in the South and modern education in the north with the view to sustaining and establishing his amalgamation venture.

One of the first major steps in this respect was to review the Education Ordinance of 1887, which was the first Nigerian education ordinance, and replace it with that of 1916. The 1887 Education Ordinance had formed the basis of state control of education on one hand, and the relationship between the church and the state on the other hand. Lugard however, felt that the new Education Ordinance of 1916 would aim at ensuring “a better standard of discipline, self control and integrity'.

One of the major features of the 1916 Education Ordinance was the establishment of education boards for the Lagos Colony, the Southern and Northern provinces respectively. Another major feature was the restriction of missionary activities on education. One other major feature of the 1916 Education Ordinance was the localization of teaching contents and methods, for example, while teaching was conducted in English in the South. Vernacular was used in the north. The effect was that educational development was slower in the north than in the south. In effect, the slow rate of westernization in the north kept on lagging behind the south in educational development.

The problem of educational development in the North, and the immediate effects of this education imbalance was summarised by the then Colonial Governor Sir Hugh Clifford in the following observation:

"In the Northern Provinces, there has been until recently a certain tendency to regard education of the local population with some uneasiness and suspicion, as a process likely to exert a disintegrating and demoralizing effect upon the character of those who are subjected to it, and where this feeling has been overcome, a further tendency is observable to regard education too exclusively as a man made of administration... After two ' decades of occupation, the Northern Province have not yet produced a single native who is sufficiently educated to enable him to fill the most minor clerical post in the office of any government department ... The African staff of these offices throughout the Northern provinces are therefore manned by -men from the Gold Cost, Sierra Leone and from the Southern Provinces of Nigerian... Education in the North has been practically confined to the vernacular and to Arabic has been allowed to become the almost exclusive prerequisite of the children of the local ruling classes, and has for its main object the equipment of these children with just sufficient knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic to enable standard of discipline, self control and integrity".

The "local" education system provided for in the 1916 Education Ordinance made matters worse, as Governor Clifford himself admitted:

"In the North, Government experiment at making education practical had not in twenty years, succeeded in producing northerners capable of filling minor government posts. In trying to encourage the local languages to the exclusion of English in the lower schools, difficulties arose which made it impossible to expand the scope and extent of teacher training".

With these observations, the educational gap between the North and south was to be inevitable. The local education system provided for by the Ordinance did not take into account the need to integrate the locality needs with those of the nation instead the system could be said to have attempted to alienate the localities in the North from Nigeria and integrate them with Britain, since the History and Geography of the British Empire were included in the primary curricula. Of course, to have achieved integration of that nature could not be possible due to language barrier. The system also made it almost impossible for instructions in the English language which was the practice in the south and which helped to widen the educational gap between the two areas. Moreover, the government control of school policy as provided for in the 1916 education ordinance was not properly and adequately enforced, because, the unassisted schools in the South witnessed very rapid expansions after the First World War, which also contributed to the widening of the gap between the north and the south. An attempt to curb this trend resulted in the Education Ordinance of 1926, which ultimately did little or nothing in this regard.

Ordinances, particularly the latter, educational reforms were effected to enable the north share a common education system with its counterparts in the East and West. This resulted in relatively rapid expansion of education in the region, within a few years as can be illustrated in the following table.

**TABLE 1**

**Primary Educational Development in the Northern Parts of Nigeria 1949-1953**

| **Year** | **Schools** | | | **Pulpil** | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Native Admin | Voluntary Agency | **Total** | Native Admin | Voluntary Agency | **Total** |
| **1949** | 532 | 851 | 1,383 | 35,510 | 62,088 | **97,598** |
| **1950** | 605 | 654 | 1,456 | 40,705 | 68,030 | **108,735** |
| **1951** | 646 | 889 | 1,535 | 41,891 | 65,670 | **107,561** |
| **1952** | 703 | 990 | 1,693 | 47,858 | 74,929 | **122,787** |
| **1953** | 744 | 1,033 | 1,777 | 51,303 | 92,506 | **143,809** |

**Source*: Ogunsola (1977). Legislation and Education in Northern Nigeria***

These increases in educational institutions and pupils in the North were as a result of the innovations of the 1948 and 1952 Ordinances respectively. One of the major innovations of these Ordinances was the introduction of Junior Secondary Schools in 1952 to replace the existing middle schools system. The Native Authorities were empowered to "involve a compulsory Attendance Order in Some difficult areas in order to encourage rapid expansion of education in the North. One other major innovation was the merger of Education Department with the Ministry of Education in the North. Of course, this was as a result of the 1956 Education Ordinance. The 1956 Education Ordinance also introduced a new seven-year primary school syllabi comprising of a four-year junior primary school and a three-year senior primary school in January 1956. This replaced the former four-year primary followed by three-year middle school syllabi previously used in the north and the eight-year syllabus used by some of the voluntary agencies in the south.

Meanwhile, the problem of educational development in the North has become more complicated. Apart from the North-South dichotomy, a new dichotomy, the North-far-North dichotomy emerged thus, making it difficult for educational planners in the Northern provinces to pursue the expansion of education with the greatest attention needed. The then Minister of Education, Aliyu Makama Bida highlighted this problem in the following remarks:

"In rny preface to last year's report, I discussed the disquieting difference in educational demand between the North and the 'far Northern' provinces within the Region. It is my duty once more to invite the public's attention to the danger of uneven development which is likely to be caused by this difference ... A Region in which some citizens thirst for Western" knowledge and others show little or no interest in it manifestly sets the Regional Government extremely difficult problems to solve."

This problem still lives with us up till today. The dichotomies are still there; and, with the creation of States, the issue just like the employment issues becomes more and more dichotormised. In Kaduna State for example, apart from the national North-South dichotomy felt by the indigenes of the State, there is also the State North-South dichotomies that tends to constitute obstacles for rapid educational expansion and effective manpower utilization, The State has come out with a number of measures aimed at correcting the educational imbalance. In the State's post Secondary Schools, like the Kaduna State Polytechnic, Zaria, and College of Education, Kafanchan, admissions are based on quota system. The quota system itself is based on population. This tends to favour the educationally disadvantaged areas of the Northern part of the State since the 1963 controversial census placed them far ahead of their counterpart in the South. This is an attempt to bridge the gap between the more educationally advanced south and the less educationally advanced northern part of the State. In addition to the admissions' system, these institutions of higher learning ran remedial courses exclusively for boys and girls from the educationally disadvantaged areas up to the late 1980.

This privilege, however, was extended to the females from the southern parts of the State. These problems are not peculiar to Kaduna State. Other States like Kogi, Kwara, Sokoto, to mention just these, face similar problems. Both the federal and state governments with similar experiences could emulate Kaduna State in this respect, if the country is to meet the constitutional requirement, which provides that, "government shall direct its policy towards ensuring that there are equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels."

The right to education is a principle embodied in the UNESCO's Convention against Discrimination in Education. Under Article 3 of the Convention, States ' subscribe to a number of specific and immediate obligations, designed to eliminate or prevent discrimination within the meaning of the convention. This includes abrogation or amendment of laws and prohibition of differences in treatment preferences or restrictions in certain fields. Thus, under Article 3 of the Convention, States are required:

a) To abrogate any statutory provision, ban any administrative instruments and to discontinue any administrative practices which involve discrimination in Education;
b) To ensure, by legislation where necessary, that there is no discrimination in the admission to educational institutions;
c) Not to allow any differences of treatment by the public authorities between nationals, except on the basis of merit or need, in the matter of school fees and the grant of scholarships or other forms of assistance to pupils and necessary permits and facilities for the pursuit of studies in foreign countries;
d) Not to allow any differences of treatment in any form of assistance granted by the public authorities to educational institutions any restrictions or preference based solely on the ground that pupils belong to a particular group.

To meet these requirements is not an easy task for Nigerian policy-makers and educational administrators. Apart from the problem posed by the educational imbalances in the country as already analysed earlier, several other factors including economic, political, socio-cultural, and, administrative deficiencies still constitute bottlenecks towards educational development in the country.

Economically, the problem is quite immense. To provide free, adequate and equal educational opportunities at all levels, i.e. from primary to university education, will require a colossal sum of money which may be taxing to both the government and the tax payers . Successive National Development Plans and the annual budgets illustrate that education usually carries considerable shares.

Of course, in the First National Development Plan (1962 to 1968), Education came third to communications which itself came second to Development Corporations with $32, 436,785 allocation. Communications and education were allocated the sums of $22,484 215 and $18,948,627, respectively. The next area to education in area of priority was agriculture, which was accorded the sum of $3, 205, 100, in the plan. Development.

Corporations, communications and educational alone were allocated almost 70% of the total amount of $98, 803,494 for the plan period. This indicates that education was given top priority over many sector, including agriculture. Within the education Sector, the importance of teacher training was stressed by giving it top priority.

Although Education was one of the three top priorities in the plan, primary education was not given the much-desired attention. It was only Lagos that got adequate attention in this regard due to a number of factors. In the first place, the Universal Free Primary Education Policy was already in operation in Lagos by 1955 so that educational expansion had to match with the population growth in the area. Second, Lagos occupied a unique position in the federation to the extent that the federal government was responsible for education at all levels in Lagos. These phenomena tended to widen rather than bridge the already existing educational gap between north and south; a problem which still remains with national leaders and educational policy-makers and/or administrators up to today, as subsequent development plans did not alter the trend.

**TABLE 2:The Ministry of Education Capital Requirements in M 1962-1968**

| Project Title | 1962-1963 | 1963-1964 | 1964-1965 | 1965-1966 | 1966-1967 | 1967-1968 | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Admin.& Inspection | 7000 | 200,000 | 48,215 | 48,215 | 48,215 | 48.215 | 399,860 |
| University | | 262,300 | 262.300 | 262,300 | 202,300 | 262.300 | 1,311,500 |
| Ad. Training College | | 277.020 | 200.000 | | | - | 744,020 |
| Teacher Training(I C II) | 520,7 00 | 1.500,000 | 1500,00 0 | 1 ,439.680 | 1 .439.680 | 1,439.68 0 | 7,779,420 |
| Sec. Schools | 832,3 84 | 1,500,000 | 777,357 | 777,356 | 777,356 | 777,356 | 5,941,810 |
| Primary Schools | 265,0 00 | 260,294 | 260.294 | 260,294 | 260,294 | 260.294 | 1,566.470 |
| Polytechnic S | 5000 | 122,216 | 122,216 | 122,216 | 122,216 | 122,216 | 616,080 |
| Other Tech. Educ. | 70,00 0 | 247,293 | 247,293 | 247,293 | 247.293 | 247,293 | 1,306,467 |
| | 1 | 4.4 19. 1 | 3,357,3 | 3.157.3 | 3,157.3 | i 157 | 18,948,62 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ,700.<br>085 | 25 | 5 4 | 5 4 | 5<br>4 | AS<br>4 | 7 |

**Source: Ngu .S. M (1994). First National Development Plan, 1962- 1968**

In the Second National Development Plan, (for example, what is now Oyo and Ondo States had a capital expenditure on education to the tune of 24,500m. This amount is more than two times those of the old Bauchi, Benue, Borno, Gongola, Kwara, and Plateau Sates put together with a total capital expenditure on education to the tune of 12.253m," at a time the total educational investment stood second only to transport and communication. The Third National Development Plan identified a new dimension on the problem of educational development in the country. Apart from the geographical imbalances, a structural imbalance was uncovered in the country's educational system. This Imbalance was in the pattern of development among the various levels of education in the country. For instance, 90 per cent of students enrolled in the formal school system were in the primary school while only 10 per cent were in the other two levels. In advanced countries, the corresponding ratios were 60 per cent and 40 per cent respectively. It meant that the second level of education could not provide adequate opportunities for the primary schools products. It also meant that the second level could not provide suitable and adequate input for the tertiary and higher education levels. Finally, and ultimately, it meant that the educational system could not meet the challenges of the shortages of manpower particularly at the middle and higher level manpower requirements. This was the prelude to the problems of manpower development and utilisation which influenced the planners of the Third National Development Plan.

In the Third National Development Plan Education was given top priority because of its importance as a very powerful instrument for social, political and economic change in a process of dynamic nation-building. Thus, a separate document was devoted solely for National Policy on Education whose major objectives included the following:

i) To expand facilities for education aimed at equalizing individual access to education throughout the country.
ii) To reform the content of general education to make it more responsive to the socio-economic needs of the country.
iii) To consolidate and develop the nation's system of higher education in response to the economy's manpower needs.
iv) To streamline and strengthen the machinery for educational development in the country.

Although these objectives appeared in six different areas, they can be conveniently managed in three major groups. The first major group is number (1) above which implies the need "to expand facilities for education aimed at equalizing individual access to education throughout the country. The second major group can be seen in (ii) above which implies the need "to reform the content of general education to make it more responsive to the socioeconomic needs of the country". Corollaries to this are the objectives iii) and (iv) above. Then the third major group can be seen in (iv) above which stressed the need "to streamline and strengthen the machinery for educational development in the country". The emphasis is on an educational system and development geared towards meeting manpower needs in the country's economy. The need to educate the citizen not only for manpower requirement but also for socio-political necessities has been ignored in educational objectives of the Third National Development Plan, 1973 - 1980.

Of course, that was at a period during which Nigeria was facing acute shortage of manpower at all levels. With the current trend of graduate unemployment however the country cannot afford to dispense with an additional educational objective aimed at educating or developing the mind of the individual not only for the manpower need but also for socio-political necessities. This is so because; an economic progress can be marred by socio-political instability or contradictions, which characterizes Nigeria since independence and other new states, confronted by the problems of nation-building. Walter Rodney (1972) has highlighted these sociopolitical contradictions as obstacles to development processes.

After detailed analysis of the theories of development and under-development, Rodney went on to identify both external and internal contradictions that hampered development in Africa, the former being the imperialist, exploitation policies whereby African wealth and labour was expatriated to develop Europe. While the latter being the Africans' responsiveness to these exploitation during colonialism and their inability to stamp out colonialism and neocolonialism and all their ramifications. To be able to achieve these, Rodney observed that, Africans needed education, not the system of education that meant importation of European cultures or values but the type of education that could shake off the dusts of colonialism and neocolonialism. He also observed that although the colonial educational system in the colonies was basically aimed at producing minor skills for the lowest jobs in the colonial administration, great strides were made by the nationalists who fought and won independence for most of the African States.

Unfortunately, however, the observation went on, most of these so-called independent African states have not learnt the lessons of colonialism and its evils, for a number of reasons.

In the first place if the colonialists had exploited the continent economically, what have the leaders of the new states done to halt or curb this trend; when political instability in these new states has been attributed to high scales of corruption and mismanagement of state resources which ultimately go to further develop Europe through the massive transfer of the resources to the Swiss and other European banks. Second, if the drive for super profits dictated development of the extractive industry, plantations and capitalist farms, and the building of parts, railways and roads, during colonialism, how much of post independence constructions has taken place in Nigeria.

Third, if the colonial education was geared towards the spread of European cultures and values, there has not been any remarkable change in our educational system since independence. The English language which is a very powerful weapon for importing European culture and values is the closest lingua franca and is made compulsory in schools at all levels in Nigeria and other new state in the continent.

Thus, it can be inferred that if Europe exploited and under-developed Africa, Africans have been disregarding and dehumanising Africans. This suggests that the legacy of colonial education still lives with us.

Our educational system should be made so as to eliminate this legacy completely from our society, before we can talk of political stability-which is an ingredient of economic development. The system should be made so as to mould the minds of the citizens towards patriotism and development and for "greatness" conscious. The educated Nigerian should be one who loves his country best, and African second to it, to be followed by other Third World Countries.

Unfortunately, however this crucial aspect of education has often been ignored in our national policies on education, if one is to have a flash-back on the successive national development plans. Undue emphasis is usually accorded to meeting the manpower needs of the country at the expense of manpower utilisation. For effective manpower utilisation, the development of the mental mind is of paramount importance in our quest for patriotism and economic development, for what use to the country is to produce a renowned economist or medical doctor or engineer who later becomes a politician and transfer our meager resources to further develop Europe? Unless Nigerians educate themselves towards the urgent need to halt the under-development purportedly started by Europe there would be no justification for the claim of its under-development by Europe, or Britain to be specific. Thus, emphasis should be placed on this aspect of education as well as specific skills like medicine engineering and the technical discipline to be reflected in the national policy on education.

By the end of the Rural National Development Plan which was the beginning of the Fourth National Development Plan, 1981 to 1985 the above point seemed to have been taken note of. Apart from recognizing the need to up-grade the standard of living of the masses through the expansion of productive employment and the provision of the basic needs of the people, the fourth National Development Plan also considered the importance of curbing the acute manpower shortage in respect of most of the high and intermediate level of scientific and technical manpower e.g. architects, engineers, medical doctors, technicians (40 per cent to 55 per cent vacancies rate), than for most of the administrative and other non-technical manpower (15 per cent to 30 per cent vacancy rate). Thus, the estimated manpower requirement for the plan illustrates how Nigeria still suffers from acute shortage of manpower in the fields of medicine para-medical skills, statistics, engineering, and technological knowhow. In the recent plan periods, therefore, emphasis has been on the need to curb this problem. This can be seen in the number of technical institutions including universities of technology that sprang up during the years. Out of the 10 federal universities, 7 were universities of technology established during the fourth National Development Plan, 1981-1985, although some have been made university campuses affiliated to other universities. Most of the state universities emphasis science and technology. In addition to these measures, top priority has always been accorded to medicine, engineering, science and technology in scholarship award and other bursary schemes.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you examined the manpower development process in Nigeria. You examined how the educational system was developed. The unit revealed that the southern part of Nigeria is more educationally advanced than the Northern part.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you looked at manpower planning and development in Nigeria the objectives of manpower planning and the strategies. The unit also examined manpower development in Nigeria.

**SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

Highlight the strategies for manpower planning.

## 6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the development of Western educational system in Nigeria.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ngu,S. M. (199. *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice.*

Ojo, F.; Aderinto, A. & Fashoyin, T. (I986). *Manpower Development and Utilization in Nigeria: Problems and Policies*. AkokaYaba, Lagos: University Press.

# UNIT 4 NIGERIA MANPOWER PLANNING EXPERIENCE

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about problems manpower seeks to address, the need for manpower planning in Nigeria, and the machinery of manpower planning in Nigeria.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the problems manpower seek to address
- explain the need for manpower planning in Nigeria
- examine the machinery of manpower planning in Nigeria

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Problems Manpower Planning Seeks to address

Manpower is developed through human capital formation. It means much more than population or labour force. In the economic sense, manpower is the managerial, scientific, engineering, technical, crafts men and other skills which are employed in creating, designing, developing organizations, managing and operating productive and service enterprises and economic institutions. Manpower planning is the process of determining the policies and programmes that will develop, utilize and distribute manpower with a view to achieving a country's broader aims of socio-economic and political development.

The problems with which manpower planning is concerned include:

i) Identifying the requirements for manpower for various sectors of the economy;
ii) Planning of formal education, on the job training, in service programmes and adult education so as to provide required skills.
iii) Analysis of the structure of incentives and the utilization of manpower, including unemployment and under employment and appropriate measures for alleviating them.
iv) Developing the necessary organizations and institutions to be responsible for the execution of manpower programmes.
v) Developing management and labour techniques, working conditions and industrial relations in order to ensure maximum productivity.

## 3.2 The Need for Manpower Planning in Nigeria

Factors that resulted in the need for systematic manpower planning in Nigeria include the following:

First was the school leaver unemployment problem which became serious in the early 60's as large numbers of youths drifted from the rural areas to the urban areas in search of wage employment. Second, there arose the need to provide skilled manpower for the expanding economy and to gear the educational system to meet such need. Before the attainment of independence in 1960, it was hoped that the skilled personnel required for development programmes would come from the United Kingdom. However it proved very difficult to recruit adequate numbers of technicians, Scientist, Engineers and other skilled personnel, who were essential for the implementation of such programmes As Nigeria moved towards independence, there was a high rate of turnover among expatriate staff particularly those in the public services. In addition, the Nigerianization of key posts, both in the public and private sectors of the economy, became a matter of great political importance and national prestige.

The importance of manpower to economic development was highlighted on several occasions. The World Bank Economic Missions which visited Nigeria in 1953 and prepared a report on the country's economy noted:

In the past, economic growth has been largely left to the efforts of expatriate entrepreneurs, administrators and technicians; the time has come to increase as speedily as possible the number of adequately trained Nigerians able to contribute effectively to that growth.

The then western Nigerian government in its appraisal of its only major pre-Independence planning exercise observed that; during the implementation of the 1955-1960 Development plan, the Urgent need for certain categories of manpower became manifest. Certain ministries were not able to achieve their targets mainly because the executive capacity was inadequate. Consequently, with the worsening unemployment situation and the shortage of high-level manpower, that is the simultaneous occurrence of surplus of unskilled labour and shortage of skilled labour, manpower planning in Nigeria became a must.

### 3.3 The Machinery of Manpower Planning

In recognition of the adverse effect of the shortage of high-level manpower and the growing need to develop them, the federal government, in April 1959 appointed a commission under the chairmanship of Sir Eric Ashby to conduct an investigation into Nigeria's needs in the area of post-school certificate and higher education for the subsequent 20 years. The Commission invited a leading authority, Fredrick H. Harbison, to prepare a special report on high-level manpower for Nigeria's Future' In his Report, which was accepted by the commission, Harbison outlined the country's manpower requirements for 1960-70 and recommended the machinery for continuous manpower planning .The commission made a strong recommendation that Nigeria should establish at once appropriate organizational arrangements for the purpose of assessing manpower needs and for formulating programmes for effective manpower development throughout the Federation on a continuing basis. The commission described this as its central recommendation, stressing that manpower development must be articulated with programmes of capital formation; and that manpower planning should, therefore, be regarded as an integral and indispensable part of general planning for economic development.

With the submission of the Ashby Report in 1960 manpower planning came to be viewed more seriously. As one of the organizational arrangements recommended by the Ashby Commission, the National Universities Commission (NUC) was established by the Federal Government. The NUC is to initiate and consider in consultation with universities, plans for such balanced development as may be required to enable universities to meet national needs. And also to examine the financial needs of the universities, receive block grants annually from the federal government and allocate such grants to the universities on the basis of need. In 1974, the NUC was reconstituted and changed to a statutory body with executive powers.

The three important aspects of the machinery for manpower planning, which grew out of the recommendation of the Ashby commission, are the National Manpower Board and its secretariat and the Regional (State) Manpower Committees.

**(a)** **National Manpower Board:** The Ashby commission recommended the establishment of a Manpower Development Board which should be inter-regional in composition and function. This recommendation was considered by the National Economic Council (NEC) in December, 1960, and subsequently led to the establishment of the National Manpower Board in 1962. The terms of reference include ‘’the determination of the nation’s manpower needs in all occupations, formulating, for the consideration of the NEC and the government of the Federation, programmes for manpower development through university expansion, training, scholarships, fellowship and other facilities and coordinating the policies and activities of the Federal and Regional Ministries primarily concerned with manpower problems. The board was also charged with the responsibility for employment policies including measures to deal with unemployment and the optimum utilization of the nation’s manpower resources. Summarily, the board was to be concerned with finding solutions to the problems of manpower shortages and manpower surpluses as indicated by unemployment and underemployment.

The National Manpower Board consisted of 19 members which were the Economic Adviser to the Federal Government, and representatives of the Federal and Regional Ministries of Education, labour and Economic planning. Also represented were national institutions and organizations such as the Universities, the Nigerian Employers’ Consultative Association and labour unions. The Permanent Secretary of the Federal Ministry of Economic Development was the chairman. The board had only limited impact on national manpower planning. Most of such impact was through its representation in other government bodies concerned with manpower development and utilization. In 1976, the board was reconstituted with 35 members.

**(b)** **State Manpower Committees:** Since each regional government had responsibility for general economic planning within its area of jurisdiction, it was thought necessary that regional bodies to complement the National Manpower Board should be established. The NEC decided that regional manpower committees be established. Four manpower committees (three regional and one federal) were subsequently set up with the following terms of reference:

(i) To assess the manpower requirement of the various arms of the public sector within the region and the manpower implications of the development programmes and to supply such information to the secretary of the National Manpower Board.
(ii) To examine from the regional government's points of view, the implications of the result of the work of and the recommendations of the National Manpower Board.
(iii) In the light of the above, to advise the regional government on the implementation of decisions and recommendations of the National Manpower Board.
(iv) To advise the National Manpower Board on matters referred to the committee by the board.

Each regional government was allowed to decided on the composition of its committee which was to be located in the regional ministry of economic planning. The regional manpower committees were never effective. They became moribund during the civil war.

**(c)** **National Manpower Secretariat**: A Manpower Secretariat to service the National Manpower Board was set up in the Federal Ministry of Economic Development which had the responsibility of overall development planning in the country. The secretariat was expected to present business to the National Manpower Board, handle manpower statistics , promote the development of employed manpower, create employment opportunities, expand training facilities maintain a national register of high-level manpower , and secure the optimum utilization of manpower resources. The secretary to the National Manpower Board was also the administrative head of the manpower secretariat.

A major problem encountered by the secretariat over the years is that of staff. For example, the secretariat relied largely on the federal office of statistics for the supply of its statistical staff that could be withdrawn or transferred at any time.

**An Appraisal of the Planning Machinery**

The Udoji commission outlined a catalogue of weaknesses in manpower planning and development machinery. They include:

a. Incapability to evaluate manpower contents of development projects submitted to the central planning office.
b. Incapacity to undertake demographic studies showing employment status by states, education distribution by age, sex and the like.
c. Lack of current and comprehensive information on the stock of skills available in Nigeria.

d. Lack of research on manpower utilization.
e. Low percentage of response from establishments selected for manpower surveys.
f. Lack of guidance to education planners in national or state institutions and universities because of inadequate data for estimating future manpower demand and supply situations.
g. Lack of guidance to secondary school students on subjects for study in post-secondary education institution based on accurate supply and demand positions.
h. Inability to recommend training priorities in skills urgently needed for National Development.
i. Little evidence of co-ordination in matters relating to employment, education and manpower planning; and
j. Inability to attract and retain competent professional manpower staff.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Manpower planning is the process of determining the policies and programmes that will develop, utilize and distribute manpower with a view to achieving a country's broader aims of socio-economic and political development. Unemployment problem in Nigeria was one of the reasons that gave rise to manpower planning in the country. Also the need for skilled labour made it necessary for manpower planning. The manpower planning boards were established as a result of the recommendations of the commission that was set up to examine the manpower needs of the country.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have examined problems manpower planning seeks to address, the need for manpower planning in Nigeria and the machinery of manpower planning in Nigeria. You also looked at the Udoji Commission appraisal of the manpower planning machinery in Nigeria.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. List five problems manpower planning seek to address.
ii. List the three important aspects of the machinery for manpower planning, which grew out of the recommendation of the Ashby commission.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What necessitated systematic manpower planning in Nigeria?

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ngu,S. M. (1994). *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice*

Ubeku, A.K. (1975). *Personnel Management in Nigeria*. Lagos: Longman

# UNIT 5: PROBLEM OF MANPOWER UTILISATION IN NIGERIA

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be examining the problem of manpower utilization in Nigeria. You will also consider the factors that contribute to the problems of manpower utilization in Nigeria.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss problems of manpower utilization in Nigeria
- enumerate factors that contribute to the problems of manpower utilization in Nigeria.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Problem of Manpower Utilisation in Nigeria

Not only do all countries concern themselves with the problems of manpower development and availability but also with those of manpower utilisation. The problem of manpower utilisation can constitute a clog in the wheel of manpower development and availability. In effect, ineffective manpower utilisation can lead to manpower surpluses or shortages in the various sectors of the economy. In Nigeria, for example, the problem is not just that of manpower development or availability but largely that of manpower utilisation as the analysis here indicates.

There are a number of factors responsible for the problems of manpower utilisation in Nigeria. They can be grouped under economic, social and political sub-systems. The economic system does not provide incentives for effective manpower utilisation in the country. The Nigerian economy operates within the framework of capitalism, which in an underdeveloped economy cannot provide the incentive and motivation necessary for effective manpower utilisation. The discussion on the reactions by various workers associations to the various salaries review commissions shows how poorly workers are compensated in this country. Apart from the poor salaries and conditions of services, other welfare services such as good pension schemes, redundancy and social security allowance are not just available. A medical doctor, engineer, architect mathematician, physicist or any specialist in one of our rare skills, may observe for example that he will be placed at an economically disadvantaged position by the existing economic system, especially if he considers the system whereby unskilled, primary or secondary dropouts become millionaires overnight through contracts and/or partisan politics. It is not surprising, therefore, that many professionals find their ways into politics and administration and thereby distorting national manpower planning, statistics in general, and manpower development and utilisation in particular. Thus, the claims by Professor Ransome-Kuti that there were 100,000 people to a dentist in Nigeria by the 1980s may be misleading if some of the qualified dentists have joined politics and administration.

### 3.1.1 The Effects of Social Sub-System

The social sub-system is closely tied to the economic sub-system. Many families and their youths see education as family investments. First, and foremost, the educated youth wants to secure a job after his possibly long training. Second, the job secured must be lucrative with good prospects for training and advancement so as to enable him meet the aspirations of both his family and those of the extended families as may be dictated by the cultural heritage. Until in recent years, many cultures in Nigeria have considered earned employment by women as a taboo. The Cultural Revolution in this respect should be sustained and completed so that some of the available manpower may not be dumped into pits only to decay without utilisation. Furthermore, the tendency for some employer by commission or omission to exclude females either from certain professions or jobs ought to be discouraged if the country is to attain a high level of effective manpower utilisation.

There are also some social factors which influence both policy-makers and policy implementers in both manpower development and manpower utilization. These include the educational system, the rapid growing population and mounting unemployment. Thanks to the introduction of the educational policy 6-3-3-4 system and now the 9-3-4 the educational system in Nigeria because over the years the educational system has not been geared towards solving manpower problems generally. Educational planners for example, have not been taking into consideration the quality of the educational products for mature effective manpower utilization.

Ineffective educational planning itself is highly influenced by the rapidly growing population. Without adequate or accurate statistics on the birth or death rates, one can understand the problems involved in educational planning and administration. The result of this, plus that of inadequate financial resources, is characterized by inadequate educational instructions-cum personnel and emoluments for effective production of the desired quality of personnel for the future effective manpower utilization.

The poor educational system and the rapidly growing population jointly and severally amount to unemployment and/or underemployment in the various sectors of the economy. Of course, the degree of unemployment varies from one sector to another and from one sector to another and from one geographical area to another. For example, graduate unemployment in the Southern parts of the country started right back to the 1970s while in the Northern parts, it started later.

### 3.1.2 The Effects of Political Sub-System

To understand the effects of political sub-system on manpower utilization in Nigeria will require an understanding of the country's political system itself. This is necessary because the political sub-system seems to be the most crucial and controversial issue, in manpower development and utilization policies.

It is not only impossible but also absurd to attempt detailed analysis of Nigeria political system here. A brief overview of its constitutional framework through which the affair of the State is run is therefore considered sufficient for the purpose of this discussion.
Since 1954, with Littleton's constitution, the affairs of the country have been run under the framework of federalism.

Federalism itself implies that at least, two levels of government ruling the same land and people, each level having at least one area of action in which it is autonomous, and some guarantee (even though merely a clause in a constitution) of the autonomy of each government in its own sphere. The system is that of compromise whereby the principle and practice of give- and – take operates, or at least, ought to operate, for the benefit *of* interests or the whole nation, as William Riker rightly observed:

> "The recent popularity of federal constitutions is not surprising because Federalism is one way to solve the problem of enlarging government a problem that is one of the most pressing political concerns in the modern world... Each advance in technology of transportation makes it possible to rule a larger geographical area from one centre, to fill a treasury more abundantly, to maintain a larger bureaucracy and police, and, most important of all, to assemble a larger army".

The above quotation comes closer to the factors influencing the choice of federalism in Nigeria. Awa E.A. (1976) has summarized these factors to include fear of attacks by foreign powers; economic and administrative advantages; ethnic and cultural forces, common historical experiences; geographical contiguity, similarity of political institutions; colonial policies; and political leadership.

Traditional federalists maintain that both the union and the units are independent and coordinate authorities enjoying plenty powers within their jurisdictions set by the constitution, and each authority should be contained to its sphere. Making a similar contribution, Dicey A.V. observes that "Federalism means the distribution of the force of state among a number of co-ordinate bodies each originating in and controlled by the constitution." This point is manifested in the writing of M. Venikatrangaiya especially, when he contends that the governments - central and local - must have complete freedom from mutual control and encroachment in the determination of their policies and the way in which they are exercised. It is this freedom that is the soul of federalism

All these submissions tend to build up a model on the essence of federalism, with emphasis on complete independence of the centre and the constituents units from mutual control. They also emphasize that each government should be restricted within the limits of its own jurisdiction. Anything short of this, as Wheare K. C. argues falls short of pure or unalloyed federalism, but rather, quasi-federalism, just like the constitution of India of 1950, with its centralized tendency.

The Nigerian federalism operates a-three tier system of government, viz, the central (federal), states, and local governments, each "autonomous" in its own sphere of jurisdiction; at least, by the provision(s) of the constitution. The constitution of 1999, for example has vested in the federal government the powers to legislate on both the exclusive and on current legislative list, this tends to illustrate the wide powers of the federal government in Nigeria. In other words, Nigeria operates the pure or unalloyed type of federalism.

The application of the doctrine as implied by the Supreme Court has led to a wide extension of powers of the national government at the expense of the states, a tendency which Amal Ray associates American federalism with. All these illustrate the type of federalism, which Nigeria operates the "pure or unalloyed federalism."

Now, the question is: how does this federal framework influence the manpower development and utilisation policies in Nigeria? The answer to this question can be provided by a close examination of the admissions policy into federal institutions of learning as well as employment policies in the federal civil service and other federal agencies throughout the federation of Nigeria.

Education is one of the concurrent legislative items in which both the centre and the units exercise their respective powers. The federal government for example subsidizes the funding of education at all levels in addition to its own specific educational institutions from secondary to university levels. The federal government colleges and/or federal government girls colleges spread all over the country with each state having two except Lagos with three, in accordance with the principle of federalism already discussed. The ad mission policy into these colleges is also based on the federal principles. Up to 1985, the admission formula into these schools was 20 - 50 - 30 on merit; state quota; Environmental quota, respectively. The 1986 admission exercise however, witnessed implementation of the new admission formula, which replaced the old one. Under the new admission policy, admissions on merit were reduced from 20 to 10 per cent, while equal state representation and environmental quotas were increased from 50, 30 to 55, and 35 respectively. All these are in consonance with the federal principle, which calls for mutual co-existence, co-operation and development.

In addition to the above schools, the federal government also established and run post-secondary institutions including federal polytechnics and universities, also scattered all over the country. Although the federal principle would require admission formulae similar to the one discussed above, it cannot be conveniently applied to these institutions for obvious reasons. In the first place, the federal universities are not enough to go round the states. In other words, not every state has a federal university, although there are campuses of the older universities covering other states that have none.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Manpower utilization problem can constitute a clog in the wheel of manpower development and availability in the country. Ineffective manpower utilisation can lead to manpower surpluses or shortages in the various sectors of the economy. In Nigeria, the problem is not just that of manpower development or availability but largely that of manpower utilization. Factors responsible for the problems of manpower utilisation in Nigeria can be grouped under economic, social and political sub-systems.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you considered manpower utilization problems in Nigeria and the factors that contribute to the problem of manpower utilization in Nigeria.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What do you understand by manpower utilization problems?

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the factors that contribute to manpower utilization problems in Nigeria?

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ngu,S. M. (1994). *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice*

Ojo. F., Aderinto, A. & Fashoyin, T. (I986). *Manpower Development and Utilization in Nigeria: Problems and Policies.* AkokaYaba, Lagos: University Press.

# MODULE 2 PROCUREMENT (EMPLOYMENT)



## UNIT 1 RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION PROCESSES

### CONTENTS



### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit you shall be examining aspects which includes, recruitment and selection processes. The unit focuses on how organizations recruit personnel to fill vacant posts and sources of personnel or skills needed for filling them.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- outline the steps organizations take in recruitment exercise
- state the components of employment interview.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Sources of Employment

In the procurement or employment or personnel in an organization, the sources of personnel for filing vacancies are important. There are two major sources. These are the external and internal sources of personnel for filling vacancies.

1. External sources include:
    a. Advertising: Advertisement is made in the national dailies magazines, journals, radio and television. Advertisement has a wide coverage of the labour market. It is also precise and clear to the applicant. The disadvantage of advertisement in that it is costly to advertise in the national dailies, radio and television. It is difficult to predict the outcome of advertisement. Some may not attract many applicants while others may attract a large number of applicants.

       Detailed advertisement including specification, job description, salaries and other condition of service tend to serve as motivation for high rate of responses because personnel are able to compare their present salaries and other condition of service before making up their mind on the new job. It also provides for higher rate of stability and retention of personnel in the organization since they are aware of all conditions of service before picking the job.
    b. Unsolicited Applications: They are applications submitted by individual applicants to organizations from time to time. This source allows the applicants to apply for any post unlike the advertisement source whereby the applicants are only able to apply for the post advertised. The disadvantage of the unsolicited application is that people may apply for jobs that do not actually exist. Chruden and Sherman (1963) said that unsolicited application from persons who appear to be well qualified but who cannot be hired immediately should be kept in file, for these persons may provide a source of employee for future vacancies. But it is possible that these applicants might have secured employment from other organizations.
    c. Employment Agencies: This may be public or private. Public employment agencies may be operating on a non – profit – making basis without costs involved on the part of the applicants, while private employment agencies operate as profit oriented enterprises charging fees to the applicants, or/and the employers.

In Nigeria, a public employment agency is represented by the labour office which has branches all over the country. The labour office receives information from both public and private organizations as regards vacancies and qualifications needed to fill them and communicates these information to the public especially the interested applicants. The applicants submit applications through the labour office. The labour office screens the applications on behalf of the organization and selects personnel for placement in various organizations. Before the 1980s, the labour office served as a useful employment agency for both the public and private sectors, especially at the unskilled and semi – skilled levels.

d. Educational institution: Educational institutions used to be one of the most common sources of personnel for filling of vacancies. In time past, the civil service goes round educational institutions in search of qualified personnel for various vacant posts.

2. Internal Sources: These include employee transfers, promotions and recalls from lay-offs.
   i. Organization makes use of transfers to fill up vacancies. Employees are transferred from one department to another from time to time.
   ii. Organizations also fill up vacancies through promotion. Employees who have demonstrated some professional skill of high standards may be given preferential treatment in filling certain vacant posts for which they are qualified.

## 3.2 The Recruitment Process

The recruitment process begins with considering the number and types of vacant posts needed to be filled, and the sources of personnel or skills needed for filling them. The source could be internal or external. For internal sources, postings or transfers or promotion can be carried out. In the case of external sources, the process will have to start with advertisement. The advertisement should contain adequate information about job content, qualifications and experience, compensations and other conditions of service.

### 3.2.1 Short Listing

After many applications must have been received, it may not be possible to invite all applicants to an interview, due to time and financial constraints. The employment agency should, therefore short-list those to be interviewed by preliminary screening and selection based on the information available in the applications. A short-listing exercise may tend to lay emphasis on qualities such as educational qualification and experience at the expense of qualities such as physical appearance, emotional stability and temperament which are fundamental in management processes and successes. Preliminary interview may be considered as superior to short-listing for these reasons.

### 3.2 .2 Preliminary Interview

Preliminary interview can be conducted either after a short-listing exercise, or in place of short-listing exercise. Preliminary interview is superior to shortlisting in different ways. Firstly, preliminary interviews enable the employers or their recruitment officers to see the applicants personally, so that both the physical and emotional disposition of applicant can be assessed. It also enables recruiting officers to evaluate the validity of information contained in the application forms or letters given by the applicants. This is done by comparing the original documents now presented by the applicants during the preliminary interview with what obtains in the application forms. It is also important in the sense that it enables applicants to know more about the jobs they have applied for.

This, however, has two sided effects. Some applicants may develop more interest in the jobs while others may get discouraged when they get to know most of the things about the job, especially when the advertisement was not detailed or comprehensive enough. At any rate, factual information could be obtained by means of an application blank. Questions asked in the application blank, however, should not be embarrassing and difficult to interpret. But the degree of reliability of the use of the application blank is still questionable from many quarters. In a study of III blanks completed by applicants for the job of nurse’s aide, systematic checking with previous employers produced some marked discrepancies; one fourth disagreed on “reasons for leaving prior position, while over half of the applicants overstated both salaries received and duration of previous employment”, as reported in Flippo (1980).

It was also discovered that 15 per cent had never worked for employers they indicated on the blank. This speaks for the unreliable nature or adverse effects of application blanks. A conclusive remark on all forms of interviews, and, particularly, the use of application blanks, is that success and reliability all depend on the degree of honesty and reliability of the applicants. But, perhaps most of these loopholes can be taken care of during the employment or final interview stage.

## 3.3 Employment Interview

After short-listing or preliminary interviews, the next stage is the final or employment interview. At the short-listing or preliminary interview stage, almost all the unqualified must have been screened out, yet the recruiting officers still have a number of candidates larger than the actual number required for employment. It is therefore necessary to conduct an employment interview.

The employment interview is the final stage of selection for placement, and almost the most difficult stage in the selection processes. It is difficult in the sense that almost all the candidates that reach this stage must have possessed the necessary requirements in skills and experience, and the recruitment officers are expected to choose only the most suitable candidates out of these, using interviewing techniques.

The interview could be structured or unstructured, what Edwin Flippo describes as “guided” and “unguided” interviews. In the guided interview, a list of questions is prepared based on an analysis of job specification. This is more suitable for untrained interviewers. The unguided interview is often used by experienced and well qualified interviewers. The unguided interview, as the concept implies, is not planned or structured. It enables the interviewer to obtain more information about the interviewee, since the latter does most of the talking and reveals more about himself. Whatever method of interviewing is chosen, the interviewer should observe certain principles of interviewing.

### 3.3.1 Principles of Interviewing

According to Ngu (1994), a good interviewing requires certain basic principles on which to base the assessment of candidates. The five point plan known as the “Pentagonal Peg”, as discussed in Ubeku (1975) emerged after the seven point plan developed by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology (NIIP) UK. The five point plan was developed by Mungo Frazer. Using this framework, interviewers are expected to observe the following principles of interview:

i. First impression and physical make-up;
ii. Qualifications and expectations;
iii. Brains and abilities
iv. Motivation and
v. Adjustment

These differ from those presented by Edwin Flippo (1980) which include:

1. Preparation
2. Setting
3. Conduct of the interview
4. Close and
5. Evaluation

The analysis here, however, attempts to cover the loopholes created by the two sets of principles, although the emphasis is on the latter set of principles of interviewing as presented by Flippo.

### 3.3.2 Preparation

All forms of interview required to be carefully planned. Interviewers must first of all determine the basic objectives of the interviews, and the methods of accomplishing these major objectives. The interviewers must have some basic knowledge about the interviewee before the commencement of this final interview. This implies that the interviewer must be conversant with the information already obtained in the preliminary interviews by referring to the application blanks or other sources of information. This enables the interviewer to determine what to expect and how to obtain what is expected from the interviewee.

### 3.3.3 Setting

The interviewer is expected to observe the principle of setting which is of two major types: physical and mental settings. The first consideration in this principle is that, the interviewer must make the interview venue or physical environment attractive, and as much as possible, matching with the types of jobs or vacancies to be filled. An untidy and inconvenient physical environment may put off prospective candidates, especially at chief executive level, while an attractive physical setting may mean more attraction to the job and the organization as a whole. The other consideration of physical setting comes in at the commencement of the interview. It begins with the entry of the candidates into the interview room when his physical appearance gives the first impression about him. A candidate's shabby appearance may put off interviewers completely, while a smart-looking gentleman may just be considered to be the right man for the job as soon as he enters the interview room.

### 3.3.4 Conduct of the Interview

This is the stage at which the interviewer obtains the desired information and supplies some facts that the interviewee may wish to know. The interviewer is expected to create a good relationship between him and the interviewee. The former should create a good atmosphere which enables the interviewee to relax. In this case a sort of introductory conversation on current affairs or general matters may serve as a useful tool. It also forms part of the interview process, because, apart from enabling the interviewee to feel free, the interviewer is able to determine the former's reactions to certain issues that may appear to be not of immediate concern to him. The interviewer then moves straight to the interview contents. The questions should be straight and easy to understand. Sensitive questions should be avoided. The questions should be framed in such a way that the interviewee does most of the talking while the interviewer listens attentively. The interviewer jots down important points or issues raised by the interviewee during their conversation.

### 3.3.5 Close

The "close" stage is important in the sense that the interviewee needs to be given some indications that the interview is coming to an end. This should be followed by some sort of indication of future action in a sort of positive future action. The candidates should be told when to know about the outcome of their interview.

### 3.3.6 Evaluation

The evaluation of an interview follows almost immediately after the interviewee leaves the interview room while the details are still fresh in the minds of the interviewers. The jotted down points should be examined in a broader perspective. Both the physical and mental disposition of the interviewee is considered along with skills, experience, and the ability for clear expression.

## 3.4 Selection

The final selection is done after the evaluation. The best thing is to make the final selection immediately after the evaluation stage. Some organizations, especially large ones, may chose to take the results of the interview for further scrutiny by a committee for selection and placement. This is the usual practice with the public services where certain political considerations like the popular but controversial "Federal Character" in Nigeria may have to come into play, particularly with the Federal Civil Service or National Corporations. At any rate, the candidates should be selected and placed according to the number of vacancies existing in the various sections of the organization, and in accordance with their qualifications, and experiences.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learnt a number of important issues related to recruitment and selection processes in organization to fill the existing vacant posts. It is very important to go through the processes discussed so as to get the best of staff into the organization.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

What you have learnt in this unit concerns the processes – recruitment and selection – by which organizations get the best hands to manage posts that are vacant through internal or external means.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Differentiate between Preliminary Interview and employment interview.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the sources of employment opened to organisations.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Cole G.A. (1997). *Personnel Management: Theory and Practice*. (4th ed.) London: ELST Educational

Flippo, E. B. (1980). *Personnel Management*. London: Mcgraw-Hill

Ngu, S. M. (1994*). Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice.*

Ubeku, A.K. (1975). *Personnel Management in Nigeria*. Lagos: Longman.

# UNIT 2: INDUCTION OF PERSONNEL

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is concerned with the induction of personnel and it focuses mainly on aspects which include meaning of induction, nature and scope of the induction process and objectives of the induction process. The unit explains the significance of induction process towards arriving at productive personnel.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define what induction of personnel is
- explain the nature and scope of the induction process.
- enumerate the objectives of staff induction.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Induction of Personnel

Induction may be defined as a systematic organizational effort to minimize problems confronting new personnel so that they can contribute maximally to the work of the organisation while realizing personal and position satisfaction. An organisation can recruit and select personnel, but until these individuals become fully adjusted to the work to be performed, the environment in which it is performed, and the colleagues with whom it is performed, they cannot be expected to give their best effort to attainment of organizational goals.

Initiation of an effective induction process is one way that the organization can contribute to personnel assimilation, as well as to the personal development, security, and need satisfaction of each member of the organization. Probably at no other time during the employment cycle does the newly appointed staff member need more consideration, guidance, and understanding than he does between the day of his appointment and the time when he becomes a self motivated, self-directed, fully effective member of the enterprise.

One of the emotional needs of every employed individual is an organizational Environment in which he can find a reasonable degree of security and satisfaction. He is apprehensive of many things – the community, his co-workers, and his ability to succeed. He is probably uninformed about organizational objectives, specific duties and responsibilities, and the personal and position standards to which he is expected to adhere. The variety of adjustments new staff members need to make before they are totally assimilated into the organization is extensive, and they are important enough to warrant administrative efforts to assist them through well-planned induction programmes. The investment in recruiting, selecting, inducting and supervising new personnel is dissipated when they leave the system voluntarily. One of the aims of the induction process is to minimize this drain on the organisation's financial and human resources.

The terms induction and orientation often used synonymously in the literature dealing with personnel administration, means the process by which newly appointed personnel are assisted in meeting their need for security, belonging, status, information and direction in both the position and organizational environment. The process is conceived as beginning in the recruitment stage and ending when the inductee has made the necessary personal, position, organizational and social adaptations that enable him to function fully and effectively as a member of the organisation. It involves more than plans for making new personnel feel at ease in an unfamiliar environment. The induction process in its broadest sense is an extension of the recruitment and selection processes (in which administrative efforts are designed to match the person and the position). A corollary objective of the induction process is to enable the person to achieve position satisfaction. In addition, the process should help to utilize fully the satisfactions and abilities of the person for attaining the goals of the organization.

### 3.1.1 Nature of Induction Programme

Induction involves more than just making the new employee feel at home in a strange or unfamiliar environment. The induction programme must be designed in such a manner that it enables the employee to achieve job satisfaction and also to make use of his abilities to achieve the goals of the organisation. Induction of employee is one of the major tasks that organisation heads should concern themselves with. After employees have been recruited and assigned to departments or sections, it is still essential that those in leadership positions formally introduce them to the system so that adjustment problems confronting the new employee can be solved.

The new employee for instance will be anxious to know how the organization system operates. If he is quite unfamiliar with the whole atmosphere, he becomes insecure and apprehensive of many things. Unless he is adequately informed of the ways things are done in the new system he would mostly fumble and stumble. Generally, a lot of time and money can be invested in the recruitment and selection processes, and this investment can be dissipated and possibly lost if the new personnel are not given the chance to contribute maximally to the work of the organization through lack of induction and orientation.

### 3.1.2 Scope of the Induction Programme

On his arrival at the organisation, the new employee should be received by the head or his representative, who has to provide him with information about the organisation. This is usually contained in the organization hand-book, which should set out all the organisation's policies and procedures. The information required by the new employee can be broken down into more specific detail. First, he needs to know the terms and conditions of employment; his work load; the health services in the organisation; working hours; extra duties; and in-service training requirements.

Second, he should be given information about the community in which the organisation is situated. For instance, he should know the geography of the areas; he should know about transport facilities; the customs and taboos there, religious organizations (churches and mosques), the people and their organization, and the attitude of the community toward the organisation.

Third, the new employee must be educated about the organisation he has come to serve. He must, for example, know about its facilities and its general aims, values, practices and operating procedures. The rules and regulations should also be explained to the new employee.

Fourthly, the new employee needs to know his fellow employees – their professional interests, the clubs to which they belong, their social and recreational activities, and their official responsibilities.

A well planned induction programme would reduce the sense of uncertainty and frustration normally experienced by new staff in their new places of work.

It should be noted that human maladjustment can be expensive and detrimental to organizational effectiveness and expectations. The type of environment in which the new staff finds himself and the first impression he has in his early days would go a long way to influence his behaviour and morale within the system.

### 3.2 Objectives of the Induction Process

#### i. Information

The process should enable every new employee to be fully informed about the community, about duties, relationships and responsibilities of the position, about characteristics of the organisation (purposes, policies, procedures, personnel, customs, history); and about the building unit to which the inductee will be assigned. One of the major expectations of induction is that newly appointed personnel will be furnished with whatever information is necessary to facilitate their adjustment.

#### ii. Need Satisfaction

Induction should result in a feeling on the part of the new appointee that he is an integral part of the organisation. The process should facilitate identification of the individual with the organization. The needs of new personnel for belonging, for security and for recognition should be anticipated.

#### iii. Position Compatibility

Effective performance of individuals is a long term consequence of induction. Hence, efforts should continue throughout the probationary period in order to determine the extent to which the man and the position are compatible and to determine whether the organisation should accept the individual as a permanent member of the organisation.

#### iv. Assistance

The induction process should provide technical assistance to new personnel. Whether to help in understanding goals or in developing attitudes and skills, there should be plans to eliminate the possibility of individual failure or maladjustment because of the absence of supervision during the adjustment period. The induction process should be able to utilize fully all system resources, both human and material, in helping the inductee to reach a satisfactory level of performance.

**vi. Development**

Position satisfaction and growth in ability of new personnel to be self directing are legitimate and practical ends of induction. The induction process should contribute to position satisfaction and to increasing the ability of the inductee to perform at a level of efficiency which lessens the need for supervision.

**vii. Acceptance**

Organizational receptivity to new personnel is another end toward which efforts of induction should be directed. Providing information about the inductee to his colleagues (his assignment, status, and title, for example) is one means of allaying the fear, suspicion, aversion, and insecurity members may have about newcomers.

**viii. Assimilation**

Acceptance of the organisation by the inductee should also result from the induction process. A positive attitude toward the system, its purposes, policies, procedures, and personnel is a condition which the organization seeks to nurture during the induction period. A carefully planned induction process should minimize difficulties individuals have in meeting the expectations of the organization.

**ix. Adjustment**

Expeditious individual adjustment to the working environment is a condition every system should expect to realize for its personnel. The sooner the new employee can adapt his habits, attitudes, feelings and knowledge to the work which he is employed, the sooner he and the organization will benefit. Human maladjustment is expensive, detrimental to the satisfaction of individual and organizational expectations, and harmful to the socializing and personalizing processes that take place between the individual and the system.

**x. Orientation**

Orientation of new members to the organisation is needed, with or without an induction program. The risk of having the inductee receive information solely from colleagues is one the system cannot afford to take. The views of colleagues about the system vary greatly. An individual employee with a grievance may present a picture of the system that is not in keeping with reality, one which may create negative impressions and harmful misconceptions. Therefore, an appropriate organization goal is the proper orientation of a new system member. It is in the best interest of the organization to provide the newcomer with firsthand facts, with credible information about system conditions, and with other knowledge that may be required to effect his integration with the organization.

### xi. Retention

The interests of the system regarding the newcomer extend beyond the immediate activities involved in the induction process. For every newly employed individual, a positive attitude toward the system should be developed, one that will endure throughout a career period. This is an ultimate system objective. Other organization interest should be in having the individual remain in the system and to become an effective operator in the position to which he is assigned; to work independently; to engage in self development; and to exceed role expectations through innovative and spontaneous behaviour. These are long term system objectives for which the foundations can be laid during the induction process.

### xii. Continuity

An important aim in the induction process is to provide information that was not fully covered during the recruitment and selection processes. The individual recruiter, for example, may not have been capable of explaining to the recruit all of the ramifications involved in a given position assignment. The administrator to whom a newcomer is assigned will need to do whatever remains to be done in order for the latter to make a full adjustment to system life.

In the sum, the induction period, which begins with recruitment and ends when the inductee becomes a permanent member of the organisation, offers numerous opportunities for the system to realize its aims.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

It is essential that even when heads of organisations appear too busy to introduce new staff to their system, they should delegate this responsibility to their immediate subordinates or to a senior staff member who have been long in the system and who also have a deep insight into the problems and modus operandi of the system.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt about the definitions of induction of personnel, its nature, and objectives. You have also learnt that induction is important to enhance staff settling down to do their work. New staff should not be allowed to begin on a trial and error basis for a lot of harm might have been done on some of his mistakes.

**SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

What are the three major advantages of staff induction programme?

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Outline five objectives of induction programme.

## 7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Castetter, W.B. (1976). *The Personnel function in Educational Administration*. New York: Macmillan.

# UNIT 3 JOB EVALUATION

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit you will be examining job evaluation, under which you will consider the concept, the objectives, the principles, advantages and methods of job evaluation. You will also examine merit rating.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

- explain the meaning and definition of job evaluation
- enumerate the objectives of job evaluation
- discuss the various methods of job evaluation
- examine the concept of merit rating
- highlight the objects of merit rating
- differentiate between job evaluation and merit rating
- discuss various methods of merit rating.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 The Concept of Job Evaluation

Job Evaluation is a system wherein a particular job of an enterprise is compared with its other jobs. In the present industrial era, there are different types of jobs which are performed in every business and industrial enterprise. Comparative study of these jobs is very essential because on the basis of such study the structure of wages for different types of jobs is prepared. The comparison of jobs may be made on the basis of different factors such as duties, responsibilities, working conditions, efforts, etc. In a nut shell, it may be said that job evaluation is a process in which a particular job of a business and industrial enterprise is compared with other jobs of the enterprise. Some scholars name it the determination of job rate.

**Definitions**

Some eminent scholars have defined job evaluation as follows: Kimball and Kimball define job evaluation as ―an effort to determine the relative value of every job in a plant to determine what the fair basic wage for such a job should be. According to Wendell French, job evaluation is a process of determining the relative worth of the various jobs within the organisation, so that differential wages may be paid to jobs of different worth. The relative worth of a job means relative value produced. The variables which are assumed to be related to value produced are such factors as **responsibility, skill, effort** and **working conditions**. Job evaluation is a process of comparing jobs with other jobs in terms of the demand a job makes on the worker.lt does not set the price of a job; it merely fixes its relative worth. It presents an effort to determine the relative value of every job in a plant, and to determine what the fair basic wage for such a job should be. It is not evaluating the, merit of the worker who is doing the work. It rates the job and not the qualities of the individual worker on the job, which is the task of employee rating. We may define job evaluation as a process of analyzing and describing positions, grouping them and determining their relative value of comparing the duties of different position in terms of their different responsibilities and other requirements.

### 3.1 .1 Objectives of Job Evaluation

The following are the objectives of job evaluation:

i. To secure and maintain complete, accurate and impersonal descriptions of each distinct job or occupation in the entire plant
ii. To provide a standard procedure for determining the relative worth of each job in a plant
iii. To determine the rate of pay for each job which is fair and equitable with relation to other jobs in the plant, community or industry
iv. To ensure that like wages are paid to all qualified employees for like work
v. To promote a fair and accurate consideration of all employees for advancement and transfer

(i) To provide a factual basis for the consideration of wage rates for similar jobs in a community and industry
(ii) To provide information for work organisation, employees'selection, placement, training and numerous other similar problems.

In fact the primary purpose of job evaluation is to set wages. It does this by providing a basis for the following matters

(a) Equity and objectivity of salary administration, ie., paying the people whose work is alike the same wages, and establishing appropriate wage differentials between jobs calling for different skills and responsibilities
(b) Effective wage and salary control
(c) Union-management negotiations on wages
(d) Comparison of wage and salary rates with those of other employees.

Besides setting wages, job evaluation also help in:

(a) Providing standardisation and improvement of working conditions
(b) Clarifying the functions, authority and responsibility of employees
(c) Establishing references for the settlement of grievances arising out of individual rates and for negotiations with a trade union on internal wage structure and differentials
(d) Developing machinery for a systematic reviewing of job rates as job contents change
(e) Developing personnel statistics.

### 3.1. 2 Principles of Job Evaluation

There are certain broad principles, which should be kept in mind before putting the job evaluation programme into practice. These principles are:

(i) Rate the job and not the man. Each element should be rated on the basis of what the job itself requires.
(ii) The elements selected for, rating purposes should be easily explainable in terms and as few in number as will cover the necessary requisites for every job without any overlapping.
(iii) The elements should be clearly defined and properly selected.
(iv) Any job rating plan must be sold to foremen and employees. The success in selling it will depend on a clear-cut explanation and illustration of the plan.

(v) Foremen should participate in the rating of jobs in their own departments.
(vi) Maximum co-operation can be obtained from employees when they themselves have an opportunity to discuss job ratings.
vii). Talking to foremen and employees, any discussion of money value should be avoided. Only point values and degrees of each element should be discussed
viii.) Too many occupational wages should not be established. It would be unwise to adopt an occupational wage for each total of point values.

### 3.1.3 Advantages of Job Evaluation

Job evaluation enjoys the following advantages:

(i) Job evaluation is a logical and to some extent an objective method of ranking jobs relative to one another. It may help in removing inequalities in existing wage structures and in maintaining sound and consistent wage differentials in a plant or industry.
(ii) In the case of new jobs, the method often facilitates fitting them into the existing wage structure.
(iii) The method helps in removing grievances arising out of relative wages; and it improves labour-management relations.
(iv) The method replaces the many accidental factors, occurring in less systematic procedures, of wage bargaining by more impersonal and objective standards, thus establishing a clear basis for negotiations.
(v) The method may lead to greater uniformity in wage rates, thus simplifying wage administration.
(vi) The information collected in the process of job description and analysis may a1so be used for the improvement of selection, transfer and promotion procedures on the basis of comparative job requirements.
(vii) Such information also reveals that workers are engaged on jobs requiring less skill and other qualities than they possess, thereby pointing to the possibility of making more efficient use of the plants‘ labour force

### 3.1.4 Methods of Job Evaluation

The following are the methods of job evaluations

1. **Ranking Method:** The ranking method requires a committee typically composed of both management and employee representatives of job in a simple rank order, from highest to

lowest. Rating specialists review the job analysis information and thereafter appraise each job subjectively according to its general importance in comparison with other jobs. In other words, an overall judgment is made of the relative worth of each job, and the job is ranked accordingly. These are overall rankings, although raters may consider individually the responsibility, skill, effort, and working conditions and each job. No attempt is made to determine the critical factors in each job. Therefore, it is quite possible that important elements of some jobs may be overlooked while unimportant items are weighed too heavily. It may be noted that because of the difficulties in ranking a large number of jobs at the time, the paired comparison technique of ranking is sometimes used. With this technique, decisions are made about the relative worth of only two jobs at a time. However, since each job is compared with every other jobs, the number of comparisons to be made increases rapidly with the addition of each job to the list

2. **Job Grading or Job Classification Method:** This method works by assigning each job a grade, level or class that corresponds to a pay grade for instance Grade I, Grade II, Grade III and so forth. These grades or classifications are created by identifying gradations of some common denominations, such as job responsibility, skill, knowledge, education required, and so on. Then, for each job grade so created standard job descriptions are determined. Thereafter, such standard description is matched with job descriptions in the organisation. The standard description that most nearly matches the job description determines the job‘s grading. This method requires a decision at the initial stage on the number of pay grades to be included in the wage and salary plan. Of course, the actual amount to be assigned to pay grades made after the job evaluation is completed.
3. **Factor-comparison Method:** This method is a combination of ranking and point systems. All jobs are compared to each other for the purpose of determining their relative importance by selecting four or five major job elements or factors which are more or less common to all jobs. These elements are not predetermined. These are chosen on the basis of job analysis. The few factors which are customarily used are:

(i) Mental requirements
(ii) Skill
(iii) Physical requirements
(iv) Responsibilities
(i) Working conditions, etc.

A few jobs are selected as key jobs which serve as standard against which all other jobs are compared. Key job is one whose contents have been stabilized over a period of time and whose wage rate is considered to be presently correct by the management and the union.

**Evaluation of Various Methods**

None of the systems is free from defects. None is the best in all conditions and for all types of organisations. However, the point system is the best in the present circumstances. It is widely used in almost all the enterprises as a technique of job evaluation since it presents an analytical approach to the measurement of job worth. It is better not to insist on a particular system of job evaluation. A mix of all the methods should be adopted.

## 3.2 Merit Rating

Merit rating is a technique to evaluate the merits of jobs according to job request merit. The personal abilities that an individual brings to his job, measured by the extent to which his output or quality of his work exceeds the minimum that can reasonably be expected for his basic rate of pay. The definitions of merit rating are given as follows: According to Edward Flippo**,** merit rating is a systematic, periodic and, so far as humanly possible, an impartial rating of an employee‘s excellence in matters pertaining to his present job to his potentialities for a job. According to Scot, Clothier and Spriegal, merit rating of an employee is the process of evaluating the employee‘s performance on the job in terms of the requirements of the job. Alford and Beatty observe that employees or personnel rating is the evaluation or appraisal of the relative worth to the company of a man‘s services of his better job. Merit rating is a process through which the ability, efficiency and potentiality of an employee are evaluated. Merit Rating is necessary for determining the wages rate, the need of training to the employees and the promotion of employees to the higher jobs.

**Objects of Merit Rating**

The objects of merit rating are as follows:

1. To make a comparative study of the abilities of different employees.
2. To provide higher reward to the more efficient employees.
3. To prove the justification of different rate of wages to different employees according to their abilities.
4. To establish harmonious relation between employees and employers.

5. To motivate the employees to do better and more work.
6. To determine a policy for promotions and transfer.
7. To evaluate the success of training programmes.
8. To forecast the need of training to the employees and to determine the nature of training.

**Methods of Merit Rating**

The following are the various methods of merit rating:

1. **Rating Procedure:** In this method, the abilities of an employee are compared with that of other employees. Under this method, the employees are divided into efficient and inefficient employee. This method adopts the technique of paired comparison. Therefore, the pairs of two employees each are made according to the formula of N (N-1) Z and the more efficient employee in every pair is underlined. The employee having maximum underline is treated as the most efficient employee whereas the employee having no underline to his credit is treated least efficient employee.
2. **Grading Method:** Here different grades are divided for evaluating the ability of different employees and then the employees are placed in these grades. The grades are—Excellent, Very Good, Good, Average, Bad, and Worst. Every grade may again be sub-divided into three grades: (i) Highly Satisfactory (ii) Satisfactory (iii) Non-satisfactory. Employees can be placed in any of these groups according to their abilities.
3. **Man to Man Comparison Method:** This is the method where, a master scale is used to evaluate the qualities of different employees. The five scales of performance are determined for every job in the master scale. For example, to measure the efficiency of employees, first of all the most efficient employee is selected and after that the most inefficient employees are selected who are respectively more efficient than average efficiency and less efficient than average efficiency. These five employees become the base for measuring the efficiency of the total employees. Every employee of the enterprise is compared with these five employees to evaluate their ability and efficiency.
4. **Graphic Rating Method:** In this method, the abilities of employees are evaluated through graph. The abilities of all the employees are represented on a graph paper with the help of scale. Following qualities are included to evaluate the ability of employees such as Quantity of Job, Quality of job, Regularity, ability to learn, ability to initiate, dependence upon other employees and officers, safety aspects, ability to direct, ability to supervise, behaviour with other employees and officers. Under

this method of Merit Rating, a report is prepared regarding Merit Rating of every employees and it is represented on a graph paper. It makes evaluation of employees very easy and simple.

**5.** **Checking List Method:** A list of necessary qualities for the performance of a job is prepared under this method. The qualities of the employees are measured on the basis of the abilities of such lists. If an employee possesses that quality, the sign ‗+‘ is marked in the list. If that quality is not possessed by an employee the sign ‗-‘ is marked in the list. If there is a doubt regarding it, the sign of (?) is marked in the list. On the basis these sign, the abilities of an employee are evaluated. The specimen of checking list of Merit Rating is as follows:

**Check List of Merit Rating**

**S. No. Question Yes (+) No (-)**

1. Does the employee possess technical knowledge of his job?
2. Does the employee posses interest in his job?
3. Is the attendance of employee satisfactory?
4. Is the health of employee satisfactory?
5. Does the employee follow the orders and instructions?
6. Does the employee behave well?
7. Does the employee perform his duties properly?
8. Does the employee violet his responsibilities?

**6.** **Descript Evaluation Method:** In this method supervisor prepares a detailed report of the abilities, efficiency and potentialities of the employees under his supervision. All the employees are evaluated on the basis of these reports.

**7.** **Forced Choice Descriptive Method:** In this method some details are collected regarding the performance of an employee on the given job. After this, some standards are fixed with the consent of evaluations. The performance of an employee is evaluated on the basis of these standards and the ability and efficiency of all the employees are evaluated on this basis.

**Limitation of Job Evaluations**

(i) Though many ways of applying the job evaluation technique are available, rapid changes in technology and in the supply and demand of particular skills have given rise to problems of adjustment.

(ii) Substantial differences exist between job factors and the factors emphasised in the market. These differences are wider in cases in which the average pay offered by a company is lower than that prevalent in other companies in the same industry or in the same geographical area.

(iii) A job evaluation frequently favours groups different from those which are favoured by the market. This is evident from the observations of Kerr and Fisher. According to them, ―the jobs which tend to rate high as compared with the market are those of janitor, nurse and typist, while craft rates are relatively low. Weaker groups are better served by an evaluation plan than by the market; the former places the emphasis not on force but on enquiry.

(iv) Job factors fluctuate because of changes in production technology, information system, and division of labour and such other factors. Therefore, the evaluation of a job today is made on the basis of job factors, and does not reflect the time job value in future. In other words, continuing attention and frequent evaluation of a job are essential.

(v) Higher rates of pay for some jobs at the earlier stages than other jobs or the evaluation of a job higher in the organisational hierarchy at a lower rate than another job relatively lower in the organisational hierarchy often give rise to human relations problems and lead to grievances among those holding these jobs.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it may be said that job evaluation is a process in which a particular job of a business and industrial enterprise is compared with other jobs of the enterprise. Job evaluation has certain objectives which are meant to enhance the progress of the organization.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have examined the concept of job evaluation, the objectives of job evaluation, the methods of job evaluation and merit rating.

**SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

i. What is meant by Job Evaluation?
ii. Explain in brief the various methods of Job Evaluation.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Give five objectives of job evaluation.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Novit, M.S. (1979.) *Essentials of Personnel Management*. London: Prentice Hall inc. Publishers

Flippo, E. B. (1980). *Personnel Management*. London: Mcgraw -Hill

# UNIT 4 COMPENSATION ADMINISTRATION

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about the categories of cash compensation, benefits, types of benefit schemes and criteria for determining compensation. Compensation of workers is an important aspect of every organization which must be taken seriously.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss organisational reward system
- enumerate categories of cash compensation
- compare and contrast incentives and fringe benefits
- examine criteria for determining compensation.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Organisational Reward System

The organizational reward system consists of the types of rewards to be offered and their distribution. Organizational rewards include all types of rewards, both intrinsic and extrinsic, that are received as a result of employment by the organization. Intrinsic rewards are internal to the individual and are normally derived from involvement in certain activities or tasks. Job satisfaction and feelings of accomplishment are examples of intrinsic rewards. Most extrinsic rewards are directly controlled and distributed by the organization and are more tangible then intrinsic rewards. Pay and hospitalization benefits are examples of extrinsic rewards.

**Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Rewards**

| Intrinsic Rewards | Extrinsic Rewards |
|---|---|
| Achievement | Formal recognition |
| Feelings of accomplishment | Fringe benefits |
| Informal recognition | Incentive payments |
| job satisfaction | Pay |
| Personal growth | Promotion |
| Status | Social relationships |
| | Work environment |

### 3.1 .1The categories of cash compensation

Although the flexible compensation approach makes cash compensation and "fringe benefit" largely synonymous, traditional forms of pay have been described as compensation while other benefits are called fringe benefits.

The categories of cash compensation are concerned with the use of money and other fringe benefits as a means of motivation and also to improve performance. These include salary, hourly wages, sales commission, piece rates, productivity bonuses, performance bonuses; profit sharing plan etc.

1. **Salary:** Salaried workers are paid a set of wages by the week or the month and are expected to work a standard set of hours each week. Usually salaried workers are not subject to pay loss for absences due to illness or even for modest absences, for "personal business". For this reasons, salaried workers are not usually asked to punch time clock, although some fill out time cards.
2. **Hourly wages or measured day-work:** Hourly wages are a set wage paid for each hour the employee is actually at work or actually works. Sometimes standards of the amount of work expected in a typical hour are established and this is referred to as measured day work. Pay at the end of each week or month is calculated on the basis of the number of hours worked. Usually, no allowance is made for time off for personal business, but sometimes allowance is given for time off due to illness or other specified causes.
3. **Sales Commission:** The aim of sales commission is to maximize sales and its advantage is similar to that of piece rates in providing pay in direct proportion to the performance of useful

work. This may be very significant motivationally, particularly for people who are motivated primarily by extrinsic rewards, because it provides immediate positive feedback each time a sale is completed

**4.** **Piece Rates:** This is one of the many so called incentive compensation plans. It provides an incremental payment for each unit of production completed. Usually piece rates are paid as a bonus on top of an hourly or week wage. It can be paid on the basis of either individual production or group output. Piece rates have been a source of considerable friction between workers and managers and they appear to have been a common basis for the alienation of workers who, rightly or wrongly, believed that they were being exploited by unfair rates.

**5.** **Productivity Bonuses:** This bonus plan provides wages based on production that exceeds the standard rate or on the completion of task in less than the standard time. Productive bonuses may be paid on either an individual or on group basis.

6. **Performance Bonuses:** performance bonuses as one of the compensation components are similar to productivity bonuses except that they are paid for total performance, including performance that goes beyond mere productivity. Any measurable item of performance can be subject to such bonuses. Thus, it can be applied to executive, professional, clerical, white - collar and blue- collar workers.

7. **Profit sharing Plan:** This provides that a stated percentage of profits will be shared by all employees of the organization or by certain groups in the organization. It can be shared on a level percentage basis beginning with the first profits. The timing of the payment may be current, deferred or mixed.

The important benefits of the total compensation are to ensure that various differential levels are seen and paid accordingly and also serve as motivating factor to the individual or employees of the organization.

The objective in developing pay system is to assign a monetary value to each job in the organization (a base rate) and an orderly procedure for increasing the base rate. To develop such a system, there are four basic tools such as job analyses and job description, a job evaluation plan, pay survey and a pay structure. The employee benefit programs provide a blanket of protection against the contingencies of life and they are an integral part of social structure.

Direct payments are only one part of the total compensation package that each employee receives. Indirect payment in the form of benefit and service must also be considered as part of the total compensation in an organization.

The compensation objectives include 'efficiency and equity. These objectives are broadly concerned with efficiency which is typically defined as: Improving productivity and controlling cost.

Often these two can be found in an employee statement of pay objectives, such as to facilitate organization performance, to control labour costs, to attract and retain competent employees and to reward employee contribution and performance.

Equity is a fundamental objective in pay system statements such as "fair treatment for all employees" or "a fair day's pay for a fair day's work" reflects a concern for equity. Thus, the equity objective attempts to ensure fair pay treatment for all participants in the employment relationships. The equity employee contributions (e.g., offering higher pay for greater performance, providing a living wage" or health care insurance).

Procedural equity, often overlooked by compensation managers, is concerned with the processes used to make decision about pay. It suggests that the way a pay decision is made may be as important to employees as are the results of the decision. As an objective for a pay system, procedural equity helps ensure that employees, manager and other relevant parties have a voice in the design of pay plan and an opportunity to voice any dissatisfaction with the pay received.

Compliance is part of the equity objective and involves conforming to various federal and state compensation laws and regulations. As these laws and regulations change, pay decision often need to be adjusted to ensure continued compliance.

Business organizations have different types of benefits which if properly managed, could secure for them a committed and productive workforce. In general, the aims of reward management in business organization are to attract retain and motivate people of the right quality needed to achieve the objectives of the organization

## 3.2 Benefits

Benefits represent an extra income or additions that require no additional effort. Although the return from them may not be readily apparent to the employer, such benefits often satisfy employee needs arid wants that are not satisfied by wages and thus, have considerable value in. promoting employee morale. However, because the cost of fringe benefits is increasing and because unions are asking for more and more benefits especially in the area of housing and transportation, employers are now very concerned over what was regarded in the past as a small proportion of the total labour costs.

It is the rise in cost that is making employers to question the value of fringe benefits. In some organizations; the management assures that if employees are given as many benefits as possible in addition to their wages, then the .efforts of trade unionist will be centralized. This approach is common in organizations where they are afraid of trade unions. This of course is far from the truth; it does not follow that the more fringe benefits, the more liberal, you will be. Benefits are no longer gifts to be handed down to employees by the management. Today, initiative for them is generally with the union and they arise as a result of collective agreements. Consequently, fringe benefits have become common supplements to wages, but may or may not have the incentive value of wages.

**Requirements of a Benefit Scheme**

a. The scheme should be fair and, just to both employer and employees, to ensure complete trust on both sides.
b. The work content must be accurately measured. Full confidence in the work measurement must be obtained. We must emphasize here that-before the scheme is installed it has to be discussed with the employees to ensure that they understand and accept it.
c. The worker should be paid in direct proportion to the individual effort, rather than as a group.
d. The scheme should be simple in operation so that employees can calculate their wages easily.
e. The scheme should give the worker a guaranteed minimum wage.
b. The scheme should be flexible and intimately connected to other management controls, and it must be so designed as to protect quality.
a. It must have a reasonable degree of permanence, and it should contain as much incentive for the slow worker as well as the fast worker.

**3.2.1 Types of Benefit Schemes**

Some employee benefits required by law include:

a. Individual schemes
b. Group schemes
c. Factory-wide productivity schemes and
d. Profit sharing plans

**a. Individual Schemes**

These schemes include measured day work, piece rates, differential incentive piece etc. The purpose here is to induce the worker through the financial incentive to produce work of the quantity above that which is specified. The commonest of the types mentioned under this head is piece rate.

This scheme provides for wage payments which are based on the quantity of units produced. The scheme is popular in industries where the nature of the product and the quantity produced depend largely on physical effort of an individual or group. Examples of this benefit scheme are:

**Measured Day Work:** Here,, earnings are directly proportional to the time worked, but rates are graded. In other words workers whose output reaches the standard have agreed rates of pay since the production standards having been set. The worker is paid on an hourly rate based on his performance in provisions period.

**Straight Piece Work:** Here, earnings are computed at a stated fixed price per unit output. The employee therefore can easily calculate his wages as these vary with output. To the employer, the wage costs can be accurately foreseen as wages per unit remains constant.

**Differential Incentive Piece:** This is a variation of the last earnings as the output rises. This is supposed to be a strong incentive to increase output.

**b. Group Incentive Schemes**

The schemes here are similar to the individual ones except that the emphasis is on group co-operation as individual output is uncertain. A good example is the scheme which involves a whole machine crew, the machine operator and the other less skilled workers who form part of the crew. In some schemes the money payable is graduated according to the importance of the function of the individual in the team effort, thus the machine might get 40 per cent, the operator 30 percent and others 30 percent, of the agreed amount or bonus. The sharing in such case is of course, rather arbitrary. Under the system whereby machine crew is paid a bonus, workers like cleaners and gardeners (who also work in the company) are left out. Further, the efforts of an individual employee are not regarded as these are submerged in the group effort.

**c. Factory-Wide Productivity Bargaining**

The aim of productivity bargaining is to increase production efficiency through worker participation in production committees. These committees' process do make suggestions about methods, machines, plant layout, materials and other matters related to production. The method is yet to be implemented in Nigeria.

**d. Profit Sharing Scheme**

Profit sharing schemes have not become common in the industrial practice of this country. In profit sharing the employees are given a bonus at the end of the year, depending on the rate of the company's profits for that year. When the company makes large profits, the bonus goes up, but where the profits are low, this fact also affects the size of the bonus. The idea behind this scheme is to give the worker the sense of belonging. It is also an appreciation of his efforts during the year.
Apart from the required benefits, the following voluntary benefits can be provided by organizations;

a. Medical Facilities
b. Food
c. Recreational Services and
d. Other fringe benefits.

**a.** **Medical Facilities:** Many **companies** provide free medical services for their employees. Others even go as far as extending the services to the immediate families of the employee.

**b.** **Food:** The mid-day meal has become an established institution with many firms in this country. Many companies operating in the country have canteens attached to either their factories or offices and the food provided is heavily subsidized.

**c.** **Recreational Services:** Recreational facilities are very common today especially with the big firms. The Shell Company of Nigeria has a club house and a good playground in Lagos. Mobil Oil has good well-known club house along Clifford Street, Lagos. Pop-music is gradually finding its way into the stream of singer benefits, the harbors band of the Nigerian Ports Authority is well known for their pop and high-life music.

**d.** **Other Fringe Benefits:** Among the principal items on which employers may incur costs on account of fringe benefits include:

a. Paid public annual holidays, these being payments for which no work is done.
b. Contribution towards sickness benefits,

c. Redundancy payment, Christmas/Sallah bonuses, and retirement benefits.

## 3.3 Incentives and Fringe Benefits Compared

Researches have shown that a better alternative to the use of dictation power and force in the control of employees is the use of incentives and fringe benefits to solicit for the desired behavior from the employees.

Incentives and benefits have a great bearing on the operation of organizations. The primary effect of incentives and fringe benefits is therefore to retain employees in the organizations on a long term basis.
**Incentives:** An incentive is additional compensation to employees for additional performance in an organization.

**Benefits:** A benefit on the other hand, is additional compensation given to employee as a condition of organizational membership.

Different types of incentives which an organization can offer include:

1. **Educational incentive:** This is education related support provided to employees in their job by the employers. It includes study leave with pay, study allowances, study loan, scholarship etc.
2. **Financial incentive, system:** This is a situation where employees are encouraged to save part of their earnings for future use. Examples include credit bonus and contribution.
3. **Insurance incentive:** Examples are health, disability, accident and life Assurance. Health insurance incentives include hospital charges, major medical problems etc, while life assurance incentive covers not only the employees of an organization but also the members of their families for the whole of their life time. The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) established by the Federal Government for workers and other citizens is a good example of the insurance incentive.
4. **Social and Recreation incentive system:** It involves sponsoring sporting activities, break and canteen services provided by the employers to their employees. The main intention is to keep the employees physically and mentally fit and retain them in the organization.

## 3.4 Criteria for Determining Compensation

A manager can determine the type of financial compensation to offer to his employees based on the following factors:

1. **Ability to Pay:** Whether a particular labour or skill is scarce or not, an organization will only hire if it has the capacity to pay such salary. On a holistic note, the ability of an organization or employer to pay particular rates affect the general level of pay in an organization. Even within an industry, organizations that are making good sales and profits may pay higher wages than one which cannot make both ends meet.
2. **Prevailing Wages:** Organizations, particularly those in the same industry, try as much as possible to pay comparably rates which they considered fair so that they can be competitive and attract and retain qualified staff from the labour market.
3. **Supply and Demand:** Closely related to prevailing wages is the economic issue of supply and demand of labour. When the supply of particular type of labour is scarce (low), its price or its wages and salaries will rise and vice versa in the labour market.
4. **Job Values and Requirement:** The worth or value of jobs to an organization also helps in the determination of wages for those jobs. Jobs through job evaluation techniques are graded according to their relative amount of skills, responsibility and the hazards of the job. The conditions of this process, the monetary worth of the jobs in an organization are determined and these enable the employers to fix various rates for the different jobs in the organization.
5. **Cost of Living:** A pay increase must be roughly equivalent to cost of living increase in order to maintain the level of real wages.
6. **Labour Union:** When a union compares pay as a standard in making compensation demands, the employer must obtain accurate market data in order to know how to pay his employees in an organization.
7. **The Economy:** A depressed economy generally increases the labour supply, serving to cover the average wage rate. In most cases, the cost of living will rise in an expanding economy thereby exercising upward pressure on pay level.
8. **Government:** Compensation given to the employees may affect the employees in many ways. So the government intervenes and makes sure that the benefits within the labour market are accurate. In this case organizations that pay higher wages and salaries would be monitored and regulate the labour market effectively.

Conclusively equity theory of motivation hold that employees have a strong need to maintain a balance between what is perceived as input to their jobs in form of compensation or reward if an employee believes he or she is under paid he is likely to reduce expended efforts by working more slowly, taking off early or being absent. Similarly if an employee believes she or he is overpaid, that employee is likely to work harder or for longer hours.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Compensation is that whereby the organization evaluates the performance of its employees and rewards them accordingly. This could be in terms of monetary rewards or non monetary rewards. This can also be called the organizational rewards.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have examined the categories of cash compensation, benefits, types of benefit schemes, and criteria for determining compensation. Compensation of workers is an important aspect of every organization which must be taken seriously.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. List and briefly discuss five categories of cash compensation.
ii. Mention five criteria for determining compensation.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the various types of benefit Schemes.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READING

Bature, N. ( 2013). *Human Resources Management.* Kaduna: Joyce Graphic Printers.

Novit, M. S. (1979). *Essentials of Personnel Management*. London: Prentice Hall inc. Publishers.

Sharma, A. K. (1979). *Management Development in Public Enterprises*. Delta Ajanta Publications

# MODULE 3 IMPROVEMENT OF WORKERS' PERFORMANCE



## UNIT 1 EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING

**CONTENTS**



### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The unit focuses on the meaning and significance of staff development. The unit examines the important role staff development plays in the progress of an organization.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- differentiate between staff training and staff development
- explain the role of staff development to the progress of an organization.
- describe types of staff training.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Meaning of Staff Development

The terms training and development have different meanings but are used interchangeably by some writers. However, the two terms are different, while training usually implies specific, factual, and narrow-range content, development refers to a focus on general decision making and human relations skills. In both staff training and staff development the aim is to improve the skills and performance of the subordinates.

From the above distinctions, therefore, staff development is itself a training process and best viewed in two dimensions. The first being an in-service training programme where individuals in an organization are given opportunities to further their education to enable them prepare for future positions. The second type of training is aimed to prepare individuals to be able to handle new job assignments. This is corroborated in Sharma (1979:23) when he noted that staff development is aimed at the following points:

i. To improve the current level of performance of incumbents in their present jobs;
ii. To equip men with potentials for higher level responsibilities.

The former represents the immediate pre-occupation or objective of staff development concerned with considerations currently relevant; whereas the latter involves long range considerations and planning.

Thus, staff development can simply be defined as activities provided for the middle and upper management in and outside an organization. A narrow view to the meaning of staff development was given in Campbell, et-al (1970:234) when they state that "Staff Development is a teaching activity planned and initiated by an organization". While Harris (1980) views staff development as that aspect in administration, which implies the training of an individual in organization to enhance his performance, Ngu (1994:26) views it as the process of behavioural modification or moulding of workers in order to integrate organizational needs with their characteristics. This view is in consonance with the view expressed in Novit (1979) when he noted that staff development is the training of personnel in an organization towards motivating them to become competent and work hard in achieving the goals of an organization.

Thus, from the above definitions it becomes clear that staff development connotes the organization's efforts in its programme to provide the need based training and education to its workers to enable them become competent in handling their present or future assigned tasks. However, the scope of staff development scheme in terms of its coverage varies from one organization to another. The variations in coverage may arise due to the resources an organization may decide to earmark for the purpose within its reach.

According to Sharma (1979:22) the broadest scheme is made up of all the members of the management at the top level down to the lower level. This is corroborated in Humble (1969:25) when he noted that staff development is reappraisal of the staff resources to achieve the desired objectives of an organization. It covers both managers and labour force. He went further to give the objectives of staff development as follows:

i. The preparation of management succession plans;
ii. Recruitment objectives for specific type of managerial and technical skills;
iii. Training plans;
iv. The introduction of specific forms of incentive and wage payments; and
v. The setting of limits to labour staff turnover.

Staff development is a basic factor in building and maintenance of the organizational effectiveness. According to Ngu (1994:26) staff development is so important that it is not only imperative but continuous. No organization can dispense with it as a programme and as a process. This means, however, that no matter the cost, organizations have to train their workers at least to enable them handle the assigned jobs. This is corroborated and elaborated in Roscoe and Freak (1976:292) when they noted that:

> Organization has to give the minimum training to its employees to make them at least become acquainted with the objectives, policies, rules, standards, and procedures peculiar to the organization and the particular job. At the other extreme, staff development can include a long programme of education and planned experience, leading to key positions. Some organizations have development programmes for supervisors and executives, enabling them to handle their jobs better and preparing them for greater responsibilities.

To meet the challenges of change, organizations must ensure that sufficient training and programmes for development of workers are put in place.

According to Longenecker (1977:232) an organization's greatest asset is its people and so it makes sense to ensure that every employee is trained for the job he is doing and developed to take on future responsibilities within his scope of competence. This view is in consonance with the view of Sharma (1979:96) when he noted that when the aim is to broaden the experience of an individual, it becomes necessary to offer him opportunities to develop familiarity with different and/or longer range of the organizational operations.

The views of Longenecker and Sharma were streamlined and moderated to suit the interests of employees, by Miner (1968:57) when he noted that although the development effort must have something to do with the organizational goals; the particular goals under consideration need not be restricted to narrow economic aims. Personal development for personal development's sake may indeed be a conscious objective of the organization. However, it is imperative to note that although an organization can provide opportunities for staff development, it cannot actually develop employees. They need to accomplish development themselves. That is they need to assume some responsibilities for their own progress.

In any organization personnel division is responsible for planning and coordinating training activities. The division can conduct training activities for employees even outside their regular work assignment. This is accepted by Longenecker (1977:1770) when he noted that personnel development often organizes training conference to impart knowledge or to improve skills of participants. This, he went further to say, is conducted when the employees have the training needs, where for instance, certain basic ideas are imparted to the participants to develop their careers and help in enhancing the progress of the organization. This view is in line with the view of Hurst (1970:174) when he expressed that:

> Personnel management deals with an extensive programme, ranging from the placement, induction and training of new personnel to the provision of courses for management. The effort is directed to the development of careers and progress within the organization by utilizing the educational resources and facilities available to each stage.

## 3.2 Types of Staff Development (Training)

Training policy can be defined as a written statement on organizational plans or programmes to develop the skills of the workers. Training needs or objectives are usually derived from the current manpower situation in an organization, state or country. The existing manpower situation determines the training objectives. To be able to identify training needs will entail a comprehensive manpower survey, which will expose the type of skills of personnel that need to be trained or developed. The types of training that can be readily available for an organization will include:

**1. Induction Courses**

These are conducted to introduce the newly employed personnel to their new jobs, since most of them are not likely to possess previous experience. It is designed to bring the knowledge and skills of the new employees to a satisfactory level.

**2. On-the-Job-Training**

This is similar to the induction course just concluded above. The major objectives of the two types of training are similar in the sense that they entail acquiring new skills to be able to handle new jobs. Induction course is basically meant for new employees. However on the job training can be extended to include old employees, if a new skill is introduced in the organization.

**3. Off-the-Job-Training**

This is the type of training that can be conducted outside the working environment. It is usually conducted in classrooms where trainees are given theoretical knowledge on how to handle a particular operation. The only practical aspect of this type of training is the use of films or charts or diagrams for illustrations.

**4. On-and-Off-the-Job Training**

It combines classrooms instructions with practical instruction in the working environment. This has almost the same major objective with "Industrial Attachment" programmes for technicians or teaching practice for teacher trainees.

**5. Vestibule Training**

It is similar to "On-the-Job Training". Here the trainees are given instructions using the types of machines or materials they will operate in the working environment. In most cases, similar model machines are used for vestibule training. It is very costly and has the advantage of not interrupting the flow of work in operating departments. Example of such is the Business Apprentice Training Centre (BATC) being in operation in Kaduna State and a few other States in Nigeria.

### 6. Refresher Courses

It is used mainly to update knowledge and skills. They are conducted internally or externally or both. It is very useful and necessary with innovations through changes of ideas or operating machines. It serves as a motivating factor where the employee feels satisfied for being given the opportunity for learning.

### 7. Conference

Training is sometimes conducted through conferences or workshops. This is not highly formalized since the trainees are treated as participants and not just passive recipients. The theme chosen for conferences must be relevant to the organization's objectives.

### 8. Role Playing

This is another training device that can be used in organizations. It can be used for executive development. The participants assume the roles of the positions they are expected to occupy after the training and their performance, are simultaneously evaluated and corrected where necessary by the training instructors.

### 9. Sensitivity Training

It is used for development of awareness to behavioural pattern of oneself and one's colleagues. It is used to encourage mutual understanding among working group. It is highly recommended for leadership training and executive development.

### 10. Supplementary Training

Lastly, since many organizations may utilize quite a good number of the training methods discussed above it may still be inevitable for them to seek supplementary training methods from independent institutions. Public or private organizations used the supplementary training method by sponsoring their employees in different institutions of learning.

## 3.3 Training Processes

Before the training process commences, the training objectives must have been identified, the participants or trainees selected, qualified instructors also selected, and the training facilities adequately provided. The training method to be used by instructors will depend largely on the training content and the extent of both physical and mental maturity of the trainees. Throughout the training process, the instructors should help to create exciting illustrations. Training by periods or hours should not be unnecessarily too long. Instructors should not do the talking or demonstration all alone. Training lessons must be prepared ahead of time. Both preparation and presentation of the lesson must be based on the level, qualifications, skills or experience of the trainees.

## 3.4 Evaluation of Training

This is to enable the employers to determine the effects of training on both the trainees (employees) and the organization. The following are the criteria for evaluating a training programme.

i. Participants' Reactions or Changes in the Trainees' Reaction: this is determined during the training period. The feelings and responses of the trainees to the training programme are examined. They may find their instructor's unqualified. They may find the training session boring to mention but a few reactions. The trainees' reactions can be measured by completing a well designed questionnaire or evaluation form.
ii. Changes in the Trainee's Knowledge: The objectives of training programme is to increase the participants knowledge or skill on specific area. For example, if a training programme is designed to enhance an employee knowledge of specific office procedures. It is pertinent to expect that the employee concerned will know more about the procedures by the end of the training programme.
iii. Changes in the Trainee's Attitude: Changes in the attitude of participants takes place because training itself is a change agent. This can be measured by comparing the trainee's previous sense of duty with the after-training or present one. His duty and his relationships with his superior and subordinate officers will change.
iv. Change in Job Performance: This is shown through effective changes in job performance by the employees. This can be measured by the trainee's ability to handle more challenging jobs very effectively.
v. Organizational performance or result: Training and development are means to attain organizational goals or desired results. The above four points for training evaluation are inadequate unless the organizational objectives are fully accomplished. Therefore, it is important in applying organizational performance standards and results as the ultimate criteria for evaluating training programme.

### 3.5 Advantages of Training

1. It enables employee to improve on their jobs.
2. Through training and staff development programmes, members of staff are better able to handle machinery and equipment thus reducing damages to the minimum.
3. There is satisfaction associated with a sense of achievement, and knowledge that members of staff are developing their inherent capabilities at work.
4. It enables staff to increase their value to the organization and thus prepare themselves for promotion.

It enables staff to learn and adapt themselves to new major job content and work relationships.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Staff development and training are geared towards improvement on skills and performance. Both involve moulding the workers characteristics towards better performance. They should be an in-built, integral part of the organizational system if employees would perform their jobs well and get full satisfaction from their work.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learned the meaning of staff development (training) and different types of training were examined. The process of training and how to evaluate training were highlighted and the main advantages of training for both the staff and the organization were examined.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is employee development?

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss five types of training.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Harris, B. M. (1990). *Improving Staff Performance through In-Service Education*. London: Allyn and Bacon Inc.

Humble, J. W. (1968). *Improving Management Performance – A Dynamic Approach to Management by Objectives.* London: Brit Management Publications Ltd.

Lawler, E. B. & Aveick, K. (1990). *Performance and Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Longnecker, J. G. (1977). Essentials of Management – A Behavioural Approach. Ohio: Charles E. Merril Publishing Company.

Ngu, S. M. (1994). *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice*.
Zaria: Ahmadu Bello University Press.

Novit, M. S. (1979). *Essentials of Personnel Management*. London: Prentice Hall Inc. Publishers.

Sharma, A. K. (1979). *Management Development in Public Enterprises*. Delta: Ajanta Publication.

# UNIT 2 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you shall examine performance appraisal; its definition, purpose, uses, methods of performance appraisal and management by objectives.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define performance appraisal
- state the purpose of performance appraisal
- enumerate the uses of performance appraisal
- highlight the essentials of an effective performance appraisal system
- explain performance appraisal process
- discuss methods or techniques of performance appraisal.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Definitions of Performance Appraisal

Performance Appraisal has been defined as follows: According to Edwin Flippo, performance appraisal is the systematic, periodic and an impartial rating of an employee‘s excellence in matters pertaining to his present job and his potential for a better job. According to Cummings, the overall objective of performance appraisal is to improve the efficiency of an enterprise by attempting to mobilise the best possible efforts from individuals employed in it. Such appraisals achieve four objectives including the salary reviews, the development and training of individuals, planning job rotation and assistance promotions.

According to Wendell French, performance appraisal and review is the formal, systematic assessment of how well employees are performing their jobs in relations to established standards and the communication of that assessment to employees. According to Dale Yoder, performance appraisal includes all formal procedures used to evaluate personalities and contributions and potentials of group members in a working organisation. It is a continuous process to secure information necessary for making correct and objective decisions on employees. Performance appraisal is a systematic evaluation of the employees' performance at work. Performance appraisal is a process of evaluating an employee's performance on a job in terms of its requirement. It is a process of estimating or judging the value, excellence, qualities of status of some object, person or thing. Performance appraisal is a formal programme in an organisation which is concerned with not only the contributions of the members who form part of the organisation, but aims at spotting the potential also. The satisfactory performance is only a part of the system as a whole and the management needs more information than mere performance ratings of the subordinates. Performance appraisal is the systematic evaluation of the individual with respect to his performance on the job and his potential for development.

Performance appraisal is concerned with determining the differences among the employees working in the organisation. Generally, the evaluation is done by the individual‘s immediate superior in the organisation and whose performance is reviewed in turn by his superior. Thus, everyone in the organisation who rates others below him is also rated by his superiors. Performance appraisal employs rating techniques for comparing individual employees in the work group, in terms of personal qualities or deficiencies and the requirements of their respective jobs

### 3.1.1 Characteristics of Performance Appraisal

The following are the characteristics of performance appraisal:

1. **A Process:** Performance appraisal is not a one-act play. It is rather a process that involves several acts or steps.
2. **Systematic Assessment:** Performance appraisal is a systematic assessment of an employee‘s strengths and weakness in the context of the given job.
3. **Main Objective:** The main objective of it is to know how well an employee is going for the organisation and what needs to be improved in him.
4. **Scientific Evaluation:** It is an objective, unbiased and scientific evaluation through similar measure and procedures for all employees in a formal manner.
5. **Periodic Evaluation:** Although informal appraisals tend to take place in an unscheduled manner (on continuous) basis with the enterprises, a supervisor evaluate their subordinates work and as subordinates appraise each other on a daily basis, yet the systematic (i.e., formal) appraisal of an individual employee is likely to occur at certain intervals throughout that person‘s history of employment (say quarterly, six monthly, annually, etc.)
6. **Continuous Process:** In addition to being periodic performance usually is an ongoing process. It means that appraisals are regularly scheduled and are not dumped on the employee on whimsical dates without relevance. The process has not been broken in person‘s history of employment however, the periodicity of appraisal may be changed as per needs of the situation.
7. **Employee Feedback:** Performance appraisal system provides information to employees on how well they are doing their jobs, and this feedback is provided to them when it is relevant. Performance appraisal is also called Employee Rating and Service Rating. Performance appraisal and merit rating are used synonymously. But strictly speaking performance appraisal is a wider term than merit-rating. In merit rating the focus is on judging the calibre and worth of an employee so as to place him on right job. On the other hand, performance appraisal focuses on the performance and future potential of the employee. Its aim is not simply to decide placement or promotion but to measure the value of worker in different job situations.

### 3.1.2 Purpose of Performance Appraisal

The following are the main purposes of performance appraisal:

1. **Appraisal Procedure:** It provides a common and unified measure of performance appraisal, so that all employees are evaluated in the same manner. It gives an indiscriminatory rating of all the employees.
2. **Decision Making:** Performance appraisal of the employees is extremely useful in the decision making process of the organization. In selection, training, promotion, pay increment and in transfer, performance appraisal is a very useful tool.
3. **Work Performance Records:** Performance appraisal gives us complete information in the form of records regarding every employee. In the case of industrial disputes even arbitrator accepts these records in the course of grievance handling procedure.
4. **Employees Development:** Performance appraisal guides the employees in removing their defects and improving their working. The weaknesses of the employee recorded in the performance appraisal provide the basis for an individual development programme. If properly recorded and used, the performance appraisal gives fair opportunities to employees to correct and rectify their mistakes.
5. **Enables Supervisors to be More Alert and Competent:** Performance appraisal enables supervisor to be more alert and competent and to improve the quality of supervision by giving him a complete record of employee's performance. He can guide an employee, where he is prone to commit mistakes.
6. **Merit Rating:** Merit rating is another name of performance appraisal; it gives supervisors a more effective tool for rating their personnel. It enables them to make more careful analysis of employee's performance and make them more productive and useful.
7. **Improves Employer Employee Relations:** Performance appraisal is not only a useful guide for the supervisors and employees but it improves the employer-employee relations by creating a more conducive and amicable atmosphere in the organization. It also stimulates free exchange of thoughts and ideas between the supervisor and his men. In this way performance appraisal bridges the emotional gap between the employer and employee by bringing them more close and by reducing man-to-man differences in the organization.

### 3.1.3 Uses of Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal helps the employees in Self-improvement and Self-development. It helps the management in taking decisions about Placement, Promotions, Transfer, Training and Development, etc. It helps to achieve individual and organisational goals. It is useful to the employees and the organisation. Therefore, Performance Appraisal should be conducted objectively from time to time. The employees should not oppose it. However, they should see that the performance appraisals are systematic, fair and impartial. It should not be for punishing the employees. It should be for improving the employees and their performances.

1. **Help in Deciding Promotion:** It is in the best interest of the management to promote the employees to the positions where they can most effectively use their abilities. A well-organised, developed and administered performance appraisal programme may help the management in determining whether an individual should be considered for promotion because the system not only appraises the worth of the employee on the present job but also evaluates his potentialities for higher job.
2. **Help in Personnel Actions:** Personnel actions such as lay-offs, demotions, transfers and discharges etc. may be justified only if they are based on performance appraisal. While in some cases, actions are taken because of unsatisfactory performance of the employee, in some other cases it may be called for due to some economic conditions beyond control such as changes in production process. In former case, the action can only be justified on the basis of the result of performance appraisal.
3. **Help in Wage and Salary Administration:** The wage increase given to some employees on the basis of their performance may be justified by the performance appraisal results. In some cases appraisal, i.e., merit and seniority are combined for higher salaries or better positions.
4. **Help in Training and Development:** An appropriate system of performance appraisal helps the management in devising training and development programmes and in identifying the areas of skill or knowledge in which several employees are not at par with the job requirements. Thus the appraisal system points out the general training deficiencies which may be corrected by additional training, interviews, discussions or counseling. It helps in spotting the potential to train and develop them to create an inventory of executives.
5. **Aid to Personnel Research:** Performance appraisal helps in conducting research in the field of personnel management. Theories in personnel field are the outcome of efforts to find out

the cause and effect relationship between personnel and their performance. By studying the various problems which are faced by the performance appraiser, new areas of research may be developed in personnel field.

6. **Help in Self Evaluation:** Performance appraisal helps the employee in another way also. Every employee is anxious to know his performance on the job and his potentials for higher jobs so as to bring himself to the level of that position.
7. **Help in Creating Healthy Competition:** Performance appraisal brings out the deficiencies and shortcomings of the employees. Discussions between rater and rates may be conducted in a spirit of co-operation and mutual understanding. This gives an opportunity to the employer to have an insight on their performance and to take corrective measures to improve upon their performance.

### 3.1.4 Essentials of an Effective Performance Appraisal System

The following are the essentials of an effective Performance Appraisal System:

1. **Mutual Trust:** The existence of an atmosphere of confidence and trust so that both supervisor and employee may discuss matters frankly and offer suggestions which may be beneficial for the organisation and for an improvement of the employee. An atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence should be created in the organisation before introducing the appraisal system. Such an atmosphere is necessary for frank discussion of appraisal. It also helps to obtain the faith of employees in the appraisal system.
2. **Clear Objectives:** The objectives and uses of performance appraisal should be made clear and specific. The objectives should be relevant, timely and open. The supervisor must very thoroughly evaluate the employee‘s performance so that he is capable of meeting challenges about his ratings of his subordinate.
3. **Standardization:** Well-defined performance factors and criteria should be developed. These factors as well as appraisal form, procedures and techniques should be standardised. It will help to ensure uniformity and comparison of ratings. The appraisal techniques should measure what they are supposed to measure. These should also be easy to administer and economical to use. The appraisal system should be performance based and uniform. Employees should be made fully aware of performance standards and should be involved in setting the standards.
4. **Training:** Evaluators should be given training in philosophy and techniques of appraisal. They should be provided with knowledge

and skills in documenting appraisals, conducting post appraisal interviews, rating errors, etc.

5. **Job Relatedness:** The evaluators should focus attention on job-related behaviour and performance of employees. The results of performance rather than personality traits should be given due weight. Suggestions for improvement should be directed towards the objective facts of the job (such as work schedules, output, reports completed, sales made, losses incurred, profits earned, accomplishments, etc.). Joint plans for the future must be developed after consultation with subordinates. The individual as a person should never be criticised.
6. **Strength and Weaknesses:** The raters should be required to justify their ratings. The supervisor should try to analyse the strength and weaknesses of an employee and advise him on correcting the weakness.
7. **Feedback and Participation:** Arrangements should be made to communicate the ratings to both the employees and the raters. The employees should actively participate in managing performance and in the ongoing process of evaluation. The superior should play the role of coach and counselor. The overall purpose of appraisals should be developmental rather than judgmental.
8. **Individual Differences:** While designing the appraisal system, individual differences in organisations should be recognised. Organisations differ in terms of size, nature, needs and environment. Therefore, the appraisal system should be tailor-made for the particular organisation. The needs of rates in terms of feedback, mobility, confidence and openness should also be considered.
9. **Post Appraisal Interview:** A post-appraisal interview should be arranged so that employees may be supplied with feedback and the organisation may know the difficulties under which employees work, so that their training needs may be discovered.
10. **Review and Appeal:** A mechanism for review of ratings should be provided. Which particular technique is to be adopted for appraisal should be governed by such factors as the size, financial resources, philosophy and objectives of an organisation. The results of the appraisal, particularly when they are negative, should be immediately communicated to the employees, so that they may try to improve their performance.

### 3.2 Steps in Appraising Performance

Various steps in appraising performance of employees are as follows:

1. **Establishing Performance Standard:** The process of evaluation begins with the establishment of Performance Standards. While designing a job and formulating a job description, performance standards are usually developed for the position. These standards should be very clear and not vague, and objective enough to be understood and measured. These standards should be discussed with the supervisors to find out which different factors are to be incorporated. Weights and points to be given to each factor and these then should be indicated on the Appraisal Form, and later on used for appraising the performance of the employees.
2. **Communicating Performance Expectations to Employees:** The next important step is to communicate the aforesaid standards to the concerned employees. Their jobs and jobs-related behaviour should be clearly explained to them. It should be noted that job related behaviours are those critical behaviour that constitute job success. The employee should not be presumed to guess what is expected of him. It should be noted that here communication means that the standards have been transmitted to the employee and he has received and understood them, that is a two-way channel of communication should be established i.e. transference of information from the manager to the subordinate regarding expectations, and feedback from the subordinate to the manager that this information has been received and understood in same context and contents.
3. **Measuring Actual Performance:** The third step is the measurement of actual performance. To determine what actual performance is, it is necessary to acquire information about it we should be concerned with how we measure and what we measure. Four sources of information are frequently used to measure actual performance: personal observation, statistical reports, oral reports and written reports.
4. **Comparing Actual Performance with Standards:** The next step is comparison of actual performance with the standards. By doing so, the potentiality for growth and advancement of an employee can be appraised and judged. Efforts are made to find out deviations between standard performance and actual performance.
5. **Discussing the Appraisal with the Employee:** After comparing actual performance with standards, the next step is to discuss periodically the appraisal with the employee. Under this discussion, good points, weak points, and difficulties are indicated and discussed so that performance is improved. The

information that the subordinate receives about his performance assessment has a great impact of his self-esteem and on his subsequent performance. Conveying good news is considerably less difficult for both the manager and the subordinate than when performance has been below expectations.

6. **Initiating Corrective Action:** The final step is the initiation of corrective action whenever necessary. Immediate corrective action can be of two types. One is immediate and deals predominantly with symptoms. The other is basic and delves into causes. Immediate corrective action is often described as putting out fires whereas basic corrective action gets to the source of deviation and seeks to adjust the difference permanently. Coaching and counseling may be done or special assignments and projects may be set. Persons may be deputed for formal training courses, and decision making responsibilities and authority may be delegated to the subordinates. Attempts may also be made to recommend for salary increases or promotions, if these decisions become plausible in the light of appraisals. It should be noted that the above details may vary from organisation to organisation, but these steps usually form the principal steps/features of a sound evaluation programme.

## 3.3 Methods or Techniques of Performance Appraisal

Several methods and techniques are used for evaluating employee performance. They may be classified into two broad categories as shown.

**Performance Appraisal**

**Traditional methods**

1. Ranking method
2. Grading method
3. Man – to man comparison method
4. Graphic rating scale method

**Modern method**

1. Management by objective
2. Assessment center method
3. Human asset acting method
4. Behaviorally anchored rating scales
5. $360^0$ Appraisal

### 3.3.1 Traditional Methods of Performance Appraisal

There are different techniques/methods which are used for performance appraisal of employees. Some of the methods of performance appraisal are:

1. **Ranking Method:** Ranking method is the oldest and simplest method of rating. Here, each employee is compared with all others performing the same job and then he is given a particular rank i.e. First Rank, Second Rank etc. It states that A is superior to B. B is superior to C and so on. This method ranks all employees but it does not tell us the degree or extent of superiority i.e. by how much one employee is superior to another. Secondly, this ranking is based on only mental assessment so it is not possible to give any objective proof about why the rater has ranked one employee as superior to another. In this method, the performance of individual employee is not compared with the standard performance. Here, the best is given first rank and poorest gets the last rank. The ranking method is highly subjective. Similarly, here the employees are compared as a whole. Comparison of the various parts of an employee's performance is not done.
2. **Grading Method:** Under this method of performance appraisal, different grades are developed for evaluating the ability of different employees and then the employees are placed in these grades. These grades may be as follows: (i) Excellent; (ii) very good; (iii) Good; (iv) Average; (v) Bad; (vi) Worst.
3. **Man-to-Man Comparison Method:** This method was first used in USA army during the 1st World War. Under this method, few factors are selected for analysis purposes. These factors are: leadership, dependability and initiative. After that a scale is designed by the rate for each factor. A scale of person is also developed for each selected factor. Each person to be rated is compared with the person in the scale, and certain scores for each factor are awarded to him/her. In other words, instead of comparing a whole man to a whole man personnel are compared to the key man in respect of one factor at a time. We can use this method in job evaluation. This method is also known as the Factor Comparison Method. In performance appraisal, it is not of much use because the designing of scale is a very difficult task.
4. **Graphic Rating Scale Method of Performance Appraisal:** This is the very popular, traditional method of performance appraisal. Under this method, scales are established for a number of fairly specific factors. A printed form is supplied to the rater. The form contains a number of factors to be rated. Employee characteristics and contributions include qualities like quality of

work, dependability, creative ability and so on. These traits are then evaluated on a continuous scale, where the rater places a mark somewhere along the scale. The scores are tabulated and a comparison of scores among the different individuals is made. These scores indicate the work of every individual. The following table presents simple graphic scale:

| **Quality** | **Quantity** | **Creative** | **Dependability** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Excellent** | | | | √ |
| **Goods** | √ | √ | √ | |
| **Average** | | | | |
| **Poor** | | | | |

This method is popular because it is simple and does not require any writing ability. The method is easy to understand and use. Comparison among pairs is possible. This is necessary for decision on salary increases, promotion, etc.

### 3.3.2 Modern Method of Appraisal and Career Development

Most of the traditional methods emphasis either on the task or the worker‘s personality, while making an appraisal. For bringing about a balance between these two, modern methods have been developed. The details of these methods are as follows :

### 3.3.3 Management by Objective (MBO)

It was Peter F. Drucker who first gave the concept of MBO to the world in 1954 when his book The Practice of Management was first published. Management by objective can be described as, a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organisation jointly identify its common goals, define each individual‘s major areas of responsibility in terms of results expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members.

**Essential Characteristics of MBO:** The important features of MBO are as follows:

1. **A Philosophy:** Management by objective is a philosophy or a system, and not merely a technique.
2. **Participative Goal Setting:** It emphasises participative goal setting.

3. **Clearly Define Individual Responsibilities:** Management by objective (MBO) clearly defines each individual‘s responsibilities in terms of results.
4. **Accomplishment of Goal:** It focuses a tension on what goal must be accomplished rather than on how it is to be accomplished (method).
5. **Objective Need into Personal Goal:** MBO converts objective need into personal goals at every level in the organisation.
6. **It Establishes Goals Yardsticks:** It establishes standards or goals yardsticks as operating guides and also as basis of performance evaluation.
7. **Efforts to Blend and Balance Goals:** It is a system intentionally directed toward effective and efficient attainment of organisational and personal goals.

**Objectives of MBO:** The objective of MBO is to change behaviour and attitudes towards getting the job done. In other words, it is results-oriented. It is performance that counts. It is a management system and philosophy that stress goals rather than methods. It provides responsibility and accountability and recognizes that workers or employees have needs for achievement and self-fulfillment. It meets these needs by providing opportunities for participation in goal setting process. Subordinates become involved in planning their own careers.

**The Process of MBO**

It is as follows:

1. **Establishment of Goal:** The first step is to establish the goals of each subordinate. In some organisations superiors and subordinates work together to establish goals. While in other organisation, superiors establish goals for subordinates. The goals typically refer to the desired outcome to be achieved. Thereafter these goals can be used to evaluate employee performance.

2. **Setting the Performance Standard:** The second step involves setting the performance standard for the subordinates in a previously arranged time period. As subordinates perform, they know fairly well what there is to do, what has been done, and what remains to be done.

3. **Comparison of Actual Goals with the Standard Goals:** In the third step the actual level goal attainment is compared with the standard goals. The evaluator explores reasons of the goals that were not met and for the goals that were exceeded. This step helps to determine possible training needs. It also alerts the

superior to conditions in the organisation that may affect a subordinate but over which the subordinate has no control.

**4. Establishing New Goals, New Strategies:** The final step involves establishing new goals and, possibly, new strategies for goals not previously attained. At this point, subordinate and superior involvement in goal-setting may change. Subordinates who successfully reach the established goals may be allowed to participate more in the goal-setting process next time. The process is repeated.

**Benefits or Advantages of MBO**

The benefits of MBO are as follows:

1. **Balanced Focus on Objectives:** MBO forces the management to set objectives with balanced stress on key result area. Thus, crisis conditions are avoided to take place in the organisation.

2. **Better Managing Things:** MBO forces managers to think about planning for results, rather than merely planning activities or work. Managers are required to ensure that the targets are realistic and needed resources are made available to subordinates to achieve the targets. Clearly set objectives for the subordinates serve as evaluation standards and motivators for them. Thus, MBO results in improvement in managing.

3. **Better Organizing:** The positions in the enterprise can be built around the key result areas. Managers are required to clarify organisational roles and structures hence better organising.

4. **MBO Reduces Role Conflict and Ambiguity:** Role conflict exists when a person is faced with conflicting demands from two or more supervisors; and role ambiguity exits when a person is uncertain as to how he will be evaluated, or what he has to achieve. Since MBO aims at providing clear targets and their order or priority, it reduces both these situations.

5. **It Provide more Objective Appraisal Criteria:** The targets emerge from the MBO process provide a sound set of criteria for evaluating the manager‘s performance.

6. **More Motivation:** MBO helps and increases employee motivation because it relates overall goals to the individual‘s goals: and help to increase an employee‘s understanding or where the organization is and where it is heading.

7. **Develop Personal Leadership:** MBO helps the individual manager to develop personal leadership, especially the skills of listening, planning, controlling, motivating, counseling and evaluating. This approach to managing in stills a personal commitment to respond positively to the organisation‘s major concerns as well as to the development of human resources.

8. **MBO Identifies Problem Early:** It identifies problems better and early. Frequent performance review sessions make this possible.

9. **Identifies Performance Deficiency:** MBO identifies performance deficiencies and enables the management and the employee to set individualised self improvement goals and thus proves effective in training and development of people. Mc Gregor points out that MBO, in most of the cases, does some good without costing much. He further point out, under proper conditions, participation and consultative management provide encouragement to people to direct their creative energies towards organisation objectives, give them some choice in decisions which affect them, and provide sufficient opportunities for satisfaction of social, egoistic and self-fulfillment needs.

**Disadvantages of MBO**

1. **Unfavourable Attitude of Managers:** Some executives have an attitude that the regular attention required of them by Management by objectives system, drawn heavily on their busy time-schedule and is not consistent with their roles. They feel that it is not so effective a way as some other approaches. Some view their roles as primarily involving policy-making, budget formulation etc.
2. **Difficult to Apply MBO Concepts:** Those executives who have been involved very often find it difficult to apply MBO concepts to their own work habits. They find it hard to think about the results of work rather than the work itself. They tend to over emphasize goals that are easy to quantify, sometimes forgetting that workers often behave almost like children at play-when the game no longer challenges, interest is soon lost.
3. **Heavy Paper Work:** MBO involves a huge amount of news letter, instruction booklets, training manuals, questionnaires, performance data review and appraisals report to be prepared by the superior and subordinates. Thus MBO is said to have created

one more paper mill in organisation added to the already existing large amount of paper work.

4. **Tug of War:** There is sometimes tug of war in which the subordinates try to set the lowest targets possible and the supervisors the highest.
5. **Time Consuming:** MBO is time consuming especially in the early phases of its introduction when employees are unfamiliar with its process. A number of pitfalls have been indicated, by the researchers, in the way of effective working of MBO programmes. The reasons for failure in the MBO process are: hasty implementation, unknowledgeable users, lack of management follow through, and support, over emphasis on structure, treatment of another gimmick, failure to carefully monitor and encourage the MBO process during hard initial year of implementation. MBO can be effective technique for performance evaluation and for motivating subordinates, by developing communication between executives at all levels. Those at the bottoms must be willing to listen to the voice of experience, and those at the top willing to accept fresh idea from lower echelon employees. Similarly, executives must keep abreast of new programmes, especially the modern ideas that have been developed in the academic circles.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Performance appraisal or Performance evaluation is a method of evaluating the behaviour of employees in a work place, normally including both the quantitative and qualitative aspect of job performance. Performance here refers to the degree of accomplishment of the tasks that make up an individual job. It indicates how well an individual is fulfilling the job demands. Performance is measured in terms of results. Thus, Performance appraisal is the process of assessing the performance or progress of an employee, or a group of employees on the given job, as well as his potential for future development. Thus, performance appraisal comprises all formal procedures used in organisations to evaluate contributions, personality, and potential of individual employees.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have considered the definition of performance appraisal, the characteristics, purpose, uses of performance appraisal, essentials of performance appraisal, steps and methods of performance appraisal.

**SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

i. Define Performance appraisal.
ii. What are the main purposes of performance appraisal?

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Examine the process of MBO

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Bature, N. (2013). *Human Resource Management*. Kaduna: Joyce Graphic Printers and Publishers.

Humble, J.W. ( 1968). *Improving Management Performance-A Dynamic Approach to Management by Objectives*. London: Brit Management Publications Ltd.

# UNIT 3 MOTIVATION

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit you shall examine what motivation is, various theories of motivation by different scholars.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this unit, you should be able to explain what motivation is and the various theories of motivation

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Definition of Motivation

Human motives are based on needs, whether consciously or subconsciously felt. Some are primary needs, such as the physiological needs for water, air, food, sleep, and shelter. Other needs may be regarded as secondary, such as self esteem, status, affiliation with others, affection, giving, accomplishment and self-assertion. Naturally, these needs vary in intensity and overtime between individuals.

Motivation seen from a general term applies to the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces. To say that managers motivate their subordinates is to say that they do things which they hope will satisfy these drives and desires and also induce the subordinates to act in a desired manner.

Motivation can be defined as the act of stimulating someone or oneself to get a desired course of action or to push the right button to get a desired reaction. It is the responsibility of the human resource manager to motivate staff. This is in terms of attractive salary, attractive allowances, social fringe benefits, reasonable holidays, pension and gratuity. If the employees are given all these, they would give their best, thereby working efficiently towards the achievement of organizational objectives.

### 3.1.1 Techniques of Motivation

The motivational techniques used in modern organizations towards accomplishing corporate objectives can be divided into two:

1. Monetary incentives
2. Non-monetary incentives

**Monetary incentives**

Monetary incentives include salary and wages, bonuses, holiday pay and so on. That is, all financial benefits accruing to an employee.

**Non-monetary incentives**

This is all about job satisfaction enjoyed by the employees in organization. That is, the combination of factors that bring joy, happiness and peace of mind to the employee in carrying out the task assigned to him. The following are some of the non-monetary incentives in use:

a. Job enrichment
b. Job enlargement
c. Job rotation
d. Well organized information system
e. Participation
f. Opportunity for self development and promotion.

**a. Job enrichment**

This enhances vertical loading of the job. It may not necessarily mean increasing the responsibility of the workers, but the characteristics of the job may be improved with the job enrichment. It can be seen as qualitative increase of the job; e.g. an 'employee' may be given responsibility not only for overseeing the photocopying machine but for controlling quality too.

**b. Job enlargement**

This is building into job a higher sense of challenge and achievement. That is, the duties performed by the employees are increased from the initial responsibility to enlarge scope of the aspect of the individual. For example a secretary in an office may be asked to take charge of a computer, its maintenance, purchase of office stationeries and taking minutes of meetings. Job enlargement in this case enhances the ability and skill of the individual because of the large scope of responsibility.

**c. Job rotation**

Job rotation is the transfer of employee from one place to another. This is normally meant to create interest in the mind of the employee performing the job. In this case, the responsibility might not change, but the environment might change and this enhances job satisfaction to some extent.

**d. Well organized information system**

Clarity of work purpose and feedback of results are good motivational techniques in many organizations today. Each employee must have a clear idea of what is expected of him at work and he must be kept informed about how well or badly he is performing by means of an effective appraisal system.

**e. Participation**

Involving subordinates in the decision making process gives them that sense of belonging and recognition in the organization. The degree of participation allowed might therefore be a factor in motivation. Employee would necessary be satisfied with their job if they are allowed to take part in the decision making in organization

**f. Opportunity for self development and promotion.**

An organization that encourages the employees to undertake self development courses and expose them to training and development in their various job tend to encourage its employees to be willing to contribute their best. The employees should be promoted as evidence of recognition and management satisfaction towards contribution to corporate objectives.

## 3.2 Theories of Motivation

Various scholars have approached this issue from different perspectives, e.g. Henry Fayol, Frederick Taylor, etc assumed that workers are rational human beings who are motivated to maximize their economic gains; hence money was regarded as a strong motivating factor.

The way to ensure that money has meaning, as a reward for accomplishment and as a means of giving people pleasure from accomplishment, is to base compensation as much as possible on performance. It should be noted that people differ and so also their needs in life.

Some of the theories are:

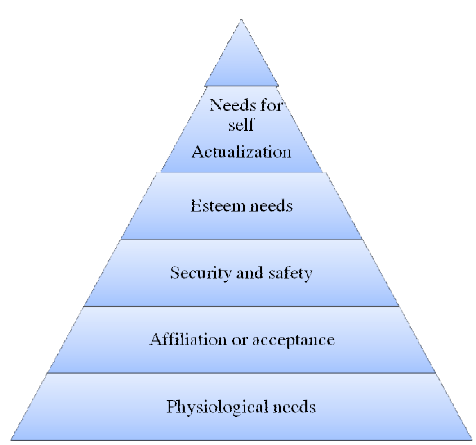
1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory
2. Clayton Alderfer's ERG theory
3. Herzberg's theory
4. Douglas Mcgregor theory
5. Equity theory
6. McClelland's Needs theory

### 3.2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

One of the most widely mentioned theories of Motivation is the hierarchy of needs theory put forth by psychologist Abraham Maslow. Maslow saw human needs in the form of a hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest; and he concluded that, when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator.

**The Needs Hierarchy**

The basic human needs placed by Maslow in an ascending order of importance are shown in the diagram below:



**a. Physiological needs**

These are the basic needs for sustaining human life itself. They include food, water, warmth, shelter and sleep. Maslow took the position that, until these needs are satisfied to the degree necessary to maintain life, other needs will not motivate people.

b**. Security or safety needs**

Safety needs are triggered off the moment the physiological needs are adequately satisfied. Here, people want to be free of physical danger and of the fear of losing a job, property, food or shelter. Safety needs are satisfied at work place by health insurance, safe work environment, workman compensation etc.

c**. Affiliation or acceptance needs**

These needs spring up when the security needs have been adequately taken care of. Since people are social beings, they need to belong and to be accepted by others. Affiliation needs can be achieved in social interaction.

d**. Esteem Needs**

According to Maslow, once people begin to satisfy their need to belong, they tend to want to be held in esteem both by themselves and by others. This kind of need produces such satisfactions as power, prestige, status and self-confidence.

**e. Need for self actualization**

Maslow regards this as the highest need in his hierarchy. It is the desire to become what one is capable of becoming - to maximize one's potential and to accomplish something. To achieve this need, management should help the staff in the work place by providing opportunities for training and development, encourage innovativeness and initiate among workers, job enlargement and enrichment.

### 3.2.2 Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory

Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been subjected to a lot of criticisms. One of the scholars that criticized Maslow's work was Clayton Alderfer. Alderfer (1972), taken Maslow's theory as a starting point, suggested that the five levels of needs can be amalgamated into three categories. These he called existence, relatedness and growth resulting in his work being termed ERG. In this case, existence needs is similar to Maslow's basic needs, relatedness needs is pertaining to satisfactorily relating to others, while growth needs is referring to self development, creativity, growth and competence.

Alderfer suggested that one may be motivated by needs on several levels at the same time. For example, one may go to work to make a living (existence needs satisfaction), and at the same one may be motivated by good relation with co-workers. Also, according to Alderfer, when people experience frustration on one level, they may focus on the needs at a lower-level needs category.

### 3. 2.3 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Maslow's needs approach has been considerably modified by Frederick Herzberg and his associates. Their research purports to find a two-factor theory of motivation. In one group of needs are such things as company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security and personal life. These were found by Herzberg to be only dissatisfiers and not motivators. In other words, if they exist in a work environment in high quantity and quality, they yield no dissatisfaction. Their existence does not motivate in the sense of yielding satisfaction; their lack of existence would however, result in dissatisfaction. Herzberg called them maintenance, hygiene, or job-context factors.

In the second group, Herzberg listed certain satisfiers and therefore motivators-all related to job content. They include achievement, recognition, challenging work, advancement and growth in the job. Their existence will yield feelings of satisfaction or no satisfaction (not dissatisfaction).

The first group of factors (the dissatisfiers) will not motivate people in an organization; yet they must be present, or dissatisfaction will arise. The second group or the job content factors were found to be the real motivators because they have the potential of yielding a sense of satisfaction. Clearly, if this theory of motivation is sound, managers must give considerable attention to upgrading job content.

### 3.2.4. Douglas Mcgregor Theory

One view about the nature of people has been expressed by Douglas McGregor in his Theory X and Theory Y. Managing, McGregor suggests, must start with the basic question of how managers see themselves in relation to others. This viewpoint requires some thought on the perception of human nature. Theories X and Y are two sets of assumptions about the nature of people. McGregor chose these terms because he wanted neutral terminology without any connotation of being "good'' or "bad".

**The Theory X Assumption**

The "traditional" assumptions about the nature of people, according to McGregor, are included in Theory X as follows:

i. Average human beings have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.
ii. Because of this human characteristic of disliking work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort towards the achievement of organizational objectives.

Average human beings prefer to be directed, wish to avoid responsibility, have relatively little ambition, and want security above all.

**Theory Y Assumption**

McGregor sees the assumptions under theory Y as follows:

- The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
- External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for producing effort towards organizational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the services of objectives to which they are committed.
- The degree of commitment to objectives is in proportion to the size of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- Average human beings learn, under proper conditions, not only to accept responsibility but also to seek it.
- The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
- Under the condition of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

These two sets of assumptions obviously are fundamentally different. Theory X is pessimistic, static, and rigid. Control is primarily external, imposed on the subordinate by the superior. In contrast, Theory Y is optimistic, dynamic, and flexible, with an emphasis on self-direction and the integration of individual needs with organizational demands. There is little doubt that each set of assumptions will affect the way managers carry out their managerial functions and activities.

### 3.2.5 Equity Theory

An important factor in motivation is whether individuals perceive the reward structure as being fair. One way of addressing this issue is through the use of equity theory, which refers to an individual's subjective judgment about the fairness of the reward he or she gets, relative to the inputs (which include many factors, such as effort, experience, and education), in comparison with the rewards of others. J. Stacy Adams has received a great deal of credit for the formulation of the equity (or inequity) theory. The essential aspects of the theory may be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes by a person}}{\text{Input by a person}} \qquad \frac{\text{Outcomes by another person}}{\text{Input by another person}}$$

There should be a balance of the outcomes/inputs relationship for one person in comparison with that for another person.

If people feel that they are inequitably rewarded, they may be dissatisfied; they may reduce the quantity or quality of output, or they may even leave the organization. If people perceive the rewards as equitable, they probably will continue at the same level of output. If people think the rewards are greater than what is considered equitable, they may work harder.

One of the problems is that people may overestimate their own contributions and the rewards others receive. Certain inequities may be tolerated for some time by employees. But prolonged feelings of inequity may result in strong reactions to an apparently minor occurrence. For example, an employee being reprimanded for being a few minutes late may get angry and decide to quit the job, not so much because of the reprimand but because of longstanding feelings that the rewards for his or her contributions are inequitable in comparison with others' rewards.

### 3.2.6. McClelland's Needs Theory

David C. McClelland has contributed to the understanding of motivation by identifying three types of basic motivating needs. He classified them as the need for power, need for affiliation, and need for achievement. Considerable research has been done on methods of testing people with respect to these three types of needs, and McClelland and his associates have done substantial research, especially on the need for achievement. All three drives-power, affiliation, and achievement are of particular relevance to management, since all must be recognized to make an organized enterprise work well.

**Need for Power**

McClelland and other researchers have found that people with a high need for power have a great concern with exercising influence and control. Such individuals generally are seeking positions of leadership; they are frequently good conversationalists, though often argumentative; they are forceful, outspoken, hardheaded, and demanding; and they enjoy teaching and public speaking.

**Need for Affiliation**

People with a high need for affiliation usually derive pleasure from being loved and tend to avoid the pain of being rejected by a social group. As individuals, they are likely to be concerned with maintaining pleasant social relationships, to enjoy a sense of intimacy and understanding, to be ready to console and help others in trouble, and to enjoy friendly interaction with others.

**Need for Achievement**

People with a high need for achievement have an intense desire for success and an equally intense fear of failure. They want to be challenged, and they set moderately difficult (but not impossible) goals for themselves. They take a realistic approach to risk; they are not likely to be gamblers but, rather, prefer to analyze and assess problems, assume personal responsibility for getting a job done, and like specific and prompt feedback on how they are doing. They tend to be restless, like to work long hours, do not worry unduly about failure if it does occur, and tend to like to run their own shows.

**How McClelland's Approach Applies to Managers**

In research studies by McClelland and others entrepreneurs, people who start and develop a business or some other enterprise showed very high need for achievement and fairly high need for power drives but were quite low in their need for affiliation. Managers generally showed high on achievement and power and low on affiliation, but not as high or as low as entrepreneurs.

McClelland found the pattern of achievement motivation clearest in people in small companies, with the director or president normally having very high achievement motivation. In large companies, what is quite interesting is that he found chief executives to be only average in achievement motivation and often stronger in power and affiliation drives. Managers in the upper-middle level of management in such companies rated higher than their directors or presidents in achievement motivation. Perhaps, as McClelland indicated, these scores are understandable. The chief executive has "arrived", while those below are striving to advance.

The question is often raised as to whether all managers should rate high on achievement motivation. People who are rated high tend to advance faster than those who are not. But because so much of managing requires other characteristics besides achievement drive, every company should probably have many managers who, while possessing fairly strong achievement motivation, also have a high need for affiliation. This latter need is important for working with people and for coordinating the efforts of individuals working in groups.

### 3.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Motivation

The advantages of motivation are highlighted below:

1. It makes the employees look cheerful and healthy.
2. Changes can be easily brought in a firm if employees have complete faith in it. This happens only when they are motivated regularly.
3. Motivation enhances job satisfaction.
4. Productivity is the outcome of performance. Performance can be improved by motivation
5. It enhances self respect and discipline among employees.
6. It helps to improve the interest and attitude of employees in organization.
7. It reduces the rate of strikes in organization.
8. It helps in making the efficient use of available human resources.

**Disadvantages of Motivation**

1. It over pampers employees and makes them less productive in some cases.
2. Over motivation could lead to laziness in an organization or industry.
3. It leads to specialization or concentration on one aspect or area in which they are motivated and leave the area in which they are not motivated.
4. It makes workers to work for quantity without quality. Workers are supposed to work for both quality and quantity.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Motivation is vital in every organization if the employees are to give their best for the progress of the organization. There are different ways in which employees can be motivated. It is the responsibility of the human resource manager to motivate staff.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have examined the definition of motivation, thevarious ways workers can be motivated and the various theories of motivation.

**SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

1. Give two techniques of motivation.
2. List four theories of motivation.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Bature, N. ( 2013). *Human Resources Management*. Kaduna: Joyce Graphic printers and publishers,

Flippo, E.B. (1980). *Personnel Management.* London: Mcgraw-Hill

# UNIT 4 COMMUNICATION AND MANPOWER MANAGEMENT

**CONTENTS**



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit you learn about the meaning of communication, the importance of effective communication, variables in communication, modes of communication and skills for communication managers.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define communication
- examine the importance of effective communication
- enumerate the modes of communication.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Meaning of Communication

Communication is the sharing of information between two or more individuals or groups to reach a common understanding. It is also the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. Communication provides a means by which people in business; politics and other professions act and interact, exchange information and ideas, develop plans, proposal and policies, make decisions and manage men and materials. It is the lifeblood of an organization. It is something you cannot do without in business today.

#### 3.1.1 The Importance of Effective Communication

Effective communication is essential in the following ways:

1. Learning about new technologies
2. Specialization of tasks
3. Improving quality
4. Motivation
5. Increase responsiveness to customers
6. Government relation
7. Innovation

**1. Learning about** new **technologies**

Good Communication is necessary for managers to learn about new technologies, implement them in their organizations, and train workers on how to use them.

**2. Specialization of tasks**

Communication plays an important role in the specialization of tasks in organization. In this case the employees of the same field communicate with one another by the use of jargons or verbal short-cuts; example, Dr (Debit), Cr (Credit), VAT (Value added Tax) being used in banks may mean different things in another profession or field. That is why jargons should be used with caution. It saves time and increases productivity in the organization if used properly.

**3. Improving quality**

Improving quality hinges on effective communication. Managers need to communicate to all members of an organization the meaning and importance of high quality and the routes to attaining it. Subordinates need to communicate quality problems and suggestions for increasing quality to their superiors; and members of self-managed work teams need to share their ideas for improving with each other.

**4. Motivation**

Theories of motivation have clearly shown that the more productivity of any group of employees improves, the more such workers are positively motivated. Workers in any organization like to be given a sense of belonging and other incentives that can motivate them to greater productivity. Motivation is a by-product of good communication culture between management and employees. Therefore, communication enhances good morals, job satisfaction, the feeling of belonging and security in employees.

**5. Increase responsiveness to customer**

Effective communication can also help to increase responsiveness to customers. When the organizational members who are closest to customers, such as salespeople in departmental stores and tellers in banks, are empowered to communicate customers' needs and desires to managers, managers are better able to respond to these needs. Managers, in turn must communicate with other organizational members to determine how best to respond to changing customer preferences.

**6. Government relations**

The government regulates the activities of business organizations in different ways. These could be through licensing, taxation and environmental protection laws. Business organizations are therefore required to provide the different levels of government with a wide range of information to facilitate their work and healthy relationship.

**7. Innovation**

Innovation, which often takes place in cross-functional teams, also requires effective communication. Members of a cross-functional team developing a new kind of compact disc-player, for example, must effectively communicate with each other to develop a disc player that customers will want, that will be of high quality, and that can be produced efficiently. Members of the team also must communicate with mangers to secure the resources they need to develop the disc - player and must keep managers informed of progress on the project.

Therefore, effective communication is necessary for managers and all other members of an organization to learn new technologies, improve quality, responsiveness to customers and innovation and thus gain a competitive advantage for their organization. Managers therefore must have a good understanding of the communication process if they are to perform effectively.

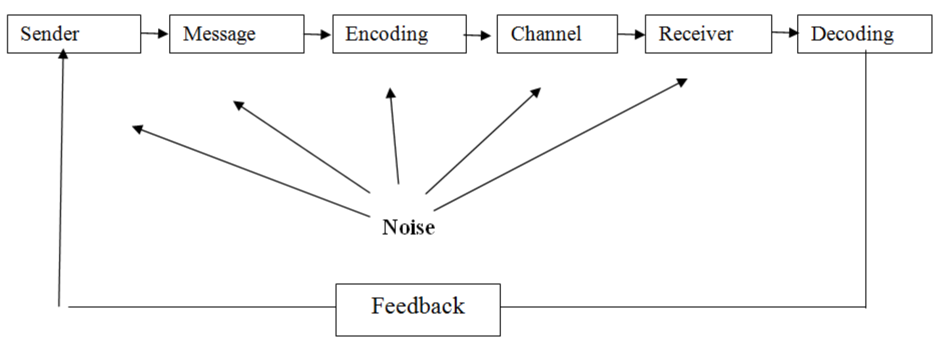
## 3.2 Variables in Communication Process

Communication as a process means that a transmitted message passes through different stages before reaching its final destination. Each of these stages affects the other and they interact freely with one another. Communication is not a static activity. Therefore, it cannot be said to have a beginning, middle or an end in the real sense of the words. These stages are called variables in the communication process.

The stages in the communication process include:

(i). The Sender (Source or encoder)
(ii). The message
(iii). The channel
(iv). The receiver (decoder)
(v). Feedback
(vi). Noise

This is presented diagrammatically below:




**Sender**

The sender is the initiator of a message. The sender has the responsibility of formulating the message in a way that accurately conveys his idea to the receiver. He needs to visualize his message from the receiver's viewpoint.

**Message**

The message in this case is the "commodity" or "the thing itself, which is being communicated. It refers to the thought, ideas, attitudes, intentions or needs which the source sends to the receiver.
The term message embraces three coactive elements of most business communication transactions. These are verbal message (i.e. the spoken word), non-verbal message (i.e. the body language) and the meta-verbal message (i.e. the message behind message). An example of meta-verbal is "welcome". Welcome could be interpreted as friendly or offensive depends on how you say it.

**Encoding**

This is whereby sender translates a message into understandable symbols or language.

**Channel**

A channel is the medium through which a message passes from the sender to the receiver. Channels of communication could be through television, radio, telephone, fax, satellite etc.

**Receiver**

Receiver is the person or group for which a message is intended. That is to say, the receiver is the momentary destination of a message. Momentary here means there is no such thing as a permanent receiver or sender of a message

**Decoding**

This is whereby the receiver interprets and tries to make sense of a message.

**Feedback**

Feedback is the response the receiver of a message gives after interpreting the perceived message. This response or reaction could be in any form; it may be a sigh, a nod, an outright disapproval or even silence.

Feedback is therefore an essential part of the communication process.

It helps to show whether or not:

(a) Communication has taken place,
(b) The receiver of a message has understood it.
(c) The receiver has prepared and willing to partake in the communication process and
(d) The sender had adequately formulated and sent his or her message.

**Noise**

Noise is a technical term for all forms of obstacles which conspire to reduce the effectiveness of a message. It could emanate from sender, channel and the like. That is, noise could be physical, psychological or linguistic.

i. Physical: Physical noise include loud sounds from radio sets, markets in full session, loud conversation, sound from workmen's tools or from moving vehicles.

ii. Psychological: Psychological noise includes poor mental attitude; depression, fatigue or other mental and emotional disabilities.

iii. Linguistic: Linguistic noise relates to one's ability to use the language of communication. Linguistic noise therefore falls into three categories:

a. Semantic, which may occur as a result of the wrong choice of words or the use of words with unfamiliar meaning.
b. Grammatical, which is manifested in the form of faulty sentence construction, mis-application of rules of language or misuse of punctuation marks.
c. Phonological, which manifests itself in poor pronunciation, e.g. 'piles' when 'files' is meant, 'Milo' when mirror is meant, 'ship' when 'sip' is meant, 'sow' when 'show' is meant.

To reduce the incidence of noise, the senders often repeat their messages, repeat some particular important part of their messages several times or try to improve upon them by using examples and analogies. This ensures that the messages squeeze through the noise to the receiver.

### 3.3 Modes of Communication

There are many modes of conveying messages from a sender to a receiver. Each of these modes has its advantages and disadvantages. If for instance you have a message sent to your friend in Kogi State of Nigeria; you may decide to deliver the message in person, you may decide to call him or her on the phone, and you may decide to write that person a letter, or even send it through e - mail.
All these are some of the different options open to you for the transmission of the message to your friend in Kogi State. It is obvious that while you have many options available to you for transmitting your message, the cost and effectiveness of each of these means of transmission differ. The effectiveness of a given mode is determined by many factors. These range from the nature of the message, the target audience, the competence and the resources of the sender and other environmental factors.

A thorough understanding of the different demands, merit and demerits of the different modes of communication would help you decide at all times which is the most cost-effective and efficient means of conveying what message.

The modes of communication can be classified into three namely:

(1) Oral mode
(2) Written mode
(3) Mediated communication.

**Oral Mode**

1. Oral communication is used in day-to-day activities like conversations, interviews, tutorials and other discussions that are done in a face-to-face communications situation. Oral communication can take place between two people, among small group or a large group of people. When an individual voices out his thought, he is said to be engaged in a form of oral communication.

In oral communication, the participants do not only use speech but also the tone of their voices in conveying meanings. There is also the use of facial expressions, gestures and other expressive body movements to reinforce the message being conveyed.

### 3.3.1 Factors That Affect Oral Communication

Oral communication has four basic controlling factors that the intending user needs to take into consideration before deciding for this mode. These are behaviour, appearance, voice quality and listening skills.

(i) **Behaviour**

We noted earlier that oral communication does not entail speech and sound alone; it includes gestures, facial expression and other body movements that are capable of supporting the spoken words. Often confusion arises as to the meaning of what was said if it was not accompanied by appropriate gestures. The speaker therefore has to know the appropriate behaviour that will amplify his message.

(ii) **Appearance**

Appearance here refers to other items of information like costumes, make-up, hairstyle, nails jewelries and other objects that compliment the physical appearance of the speaker. Often in oral communication the speaker's appearance is the first thing that strikes the receiver long before the speaker says a thing. It is part of what determines the sender's initial credibility and the degree of attention his message enjoys from the listener. Some dresses are appropriate for some occasions just as they are inappropriate for other situation. For example, a pair of pyjamas and slippers may not be suitable for an office situation.

(iii) **Voice quality**

This factor refers to the speaker's use of tone, pitch and stress. It involves the speaker's mastery of the rules of the language as well as his phonetics, that is, pronunciation and articulation. Some people are naturally endowed with sweet, melodious voices that can easily convince people, while others have coarse voice quality that tends to irritate their listener's ears.

(iv) **Listening skills**

In oral communication, it is not enough for the speaker to know how to pass his or her messages or to adopt appropriate appearance and behavior; he must be a good listener too. This is to avoid breakdown in oral communication.

### 3.3.2 Advantages of Oral Mode

(a) It gives room for instant reception, processing and feedback from the receiver. This gives the sender an opportunity to assess the effectiveness of his or her message and to make modification if necessary. The receiver too can ask for instant clarification on any point he or she does not understand.

(b) The instant feedback reduces uncertainty in the interpretation of the message. This leads to better understanding between the participants.

(c) It is flexible and the sender has the opportunity to adopt his message to suit his audience.

(d) It offers better possibilities for further planning of the message.

(e) The source can assess the weak points in his communication on the spot.

(f) It assures the sender that his message is not only being received but understood.

(g) It is competitively cheap and timely if the participants are within the reach.

### 3.3.3 Disadvantages of Oral Mode

(a) It is basically transient (lasting for a short period only), and may not be easily recalled for future reference, unless recorded with the aid of an electronic device like tape recorder or camera. 'Experience has shown that when such electronic devices are used, the participants become too conscious of their actions and utterances. This affects the form of the message itself.

(b) Oral communication is easily misrepresented and susceptible to different forms of distortions ranging from omission of detail, addition of extra information, modification of message to suit personal idiosyncrasies, highlighting of a few details etc.

(c) Some emotional messages like termination, death, retrenchment and other misfortunes are not easy to convey to the victims by words of mouth.

(d) The over-dependence on spoken words put a lot of stress on our mental faculties, because we have to try to assimilate all that has been said and possibly recall them when the need arises.

(e) It is often not practical or convenient to reach and converse with high level officials in a face-to-face encounter.

## 3.4 Written Mode

This refers to the translation of oral messages into alphabetic symbols. It ranges from the human handwriting to the printed text. This mode of communication is used for documents like letters, memoranda, and minutes, posters, computer-print outs and newspapers.

### 3.4.1 Advantages of Written Mode

(a) Written communication is more permanent and can be stored for future reference.
(b) In business, written communication helps us to confirm our transactions and commitments made orally.
(c) It cannot be easily misquoted since materials can easily be retrieved for verification.
(d) It. can be read several times over for a better understanding of the content. It can also be read anywhere at any time the reader chooses.
(e) The sender can edit his message and introduce new ideas before transmission. This gives room for coherence (understanding) and greater impact.
(f) It can be read several times by the sender and modified before it is transmitted to the readers.

### 3.4.2 Disadvantages of Written Mode

(a) Written communication has a delayed feedback.
(b) It does not have instant reception and interpretation like oral communication. The process of transmission takes more time than in oral communication where the participants are in a face-to-face situation.
© People are cautious in composing written messages because they could be used against them in future or in a law court.
(d) It is more expensive compared to the oral mode.

## 3.5 Mediated Communication

Mediated communication involves the transmission of oral and or written messages through electronic devices like fax, telephone, radio, television, on-line computer, teletype, electronic mails, walkie-talkie, microfilm, video tapes and the like. It is most useful in large organizations where face-to-face communication is limited or is ineffective in reaching many people at the same time.

### 3.5.1 Advantages of Mediated Communication

(a) It provides greater convenience to the participants because they can engage in other activities as they communicate.
(b) It gives the sender more flexibility in the techniques of packaging and sending his messages.
(c) It gives the receiver greater control over the message reception in that he can decide to tune in or off at his convenience. He can contribute actively in the process of information selection, packaging and eventual transmission. This is contrary to the sender, controlled oral and written communication.

(d) It has an improved feedback mechanism since the receiver can either talk back or type in his reaction immediately.
(e) It provides more information to many people at the same time.

### 3.5.2 Disadvantages of Mediated Mode

(a) Most mediated communication lack the advantage of combining oral and non-verbal means for more faithful and effective transmission and reception of messages.
(b) Most mediated communication is depersonalized so much so that the participants may not know much about each other. This could hamper the success of the communication.
(c) The gadgets are expensive to acquire, consequently, they are beyond the reach of some potential receivers. After all, you need to own a set to receive the message.

## 3.6 Communication Skills for Managers

There are various kinds of barriers of effective communication in organizations. Some barriers have their origins in senders. When messages are unclear, incomplete, or difficult to understand, when they are sent over an inappropriate medium, or when no provision for feedback is made, communication suffers. Other communication barriers have their origins in receivers. When receivers pay no attention to or do not listen to messages or when they make no effort to understand the meaning of a message, communication is likely to be ineffective.

To overcome these barriers and effectively communicate with others, managers (as well as other organizational members) must possess or develop certain communication skills. Some of these skills are particularly important when managers send messages;others are critical when managers receive messages. These skills help ensure that managers will be able to share information, will have the information they need to make good decisions and take action, and will be able to reach a common understanding with others.

### 3.6.1 Communication Skills for Managers as Senders

Organizational effectiveness depends on managers (as well as other organization members) being able to effectively send messages to people both inside and outside an ORGANIZATION. This takes us to the seven communication clues for managers:

i) Send messages that are clear and complete
ii) Encode messages in symbols that the receiver understands
iii) Select a medium that is appropriate for the message
iv) Select a medium that the receiver monitors
v) Avoid filtering and information distortion
vi) Ensure that a feedback mechanism is built into message
vii) Provide accurate information to ensure that misleading rumors are not spread.

**Send Clear and Complete Messages:**

Managers need to learn how to send a message that is clear and complete. A message is clear when it is easy for the receiver to understand and interpret, and it is complete when it contains all the information that the sender and receiver need to reach a common understanding. In striving to send messages that are both clear and complete, managers must learn to anticipate how receivers will interpret messages and adjust messages to eliminate sources of misunderstanding or confusion.

**Encode Messages in Symbols the Receiver Understands**

Managers need to appreciate that when they encode messages, they should use symbols or language that the receiver understands. When sending messages in English to receiver(s) whose native language is not English, for example, it is important to use commonplace vocabulary and to avoid clichés that, when translated, may make little sense and in some cases are either comical or insulting.

**Select a Medium Appropriate for the Message**

As you have learned, when relying on verbal communication, managers can choose from a variety of communication media, including face-to-face communication in person, written letters, memos, newsletters, phone conversations, e-mail, voice mail, faxes, and video conferences. When choosing among these media, managers need to take into account the level of information richness required, time constraints, and the need for a paper or electronic trail. A primary concern in choosing an appropriate medium is the nature of the message. Is it personal, important, non-routine, and likely to be misunderstood and in need of further clarification? If it is, face-to-face communication is likely to be in order.

**Select a Medium that the Receiver Monitors**

Another factor that managers need to take into account when selecting a communication medium is whether the medium is one that the receiver monitors. Managers differ in the communication media they pay attention to. Many managers simply select the medium that they themselves use the most and are most comfortable with, but doing this can often lead to ineffective communication. Managers who dislike telephone conversations and face-to-face interactions may prefer to use e-mail, send many e-mail messages every day, and check their own e-mail every few hours. Managers who prefer to communicate with people in person or over the phone may have e-mail addresses but rarely use e-mail and forget to check for e-mail messages. No matter how much a manager likes e-mail, sending an e-mail message to someone else who never checks his or her e-mail is futile. Learning which managers like things in writing and which prefer face-to face interactions and then using the appropriate medium enhances the chance that receivers will actually receive and pay attention to messages.

**Avoid Filtering and Information Distortion**

Filtering occurs when senders withhold part of a message because they (mistakenly) think that the receiver does not need the information or will not want to receive it. Filtering can occur at all levels in an organization. Rank-and-file workers may filter messages they send to first-line managers, first-line managers may filter messages to middle managers, and middle managers may filter messages to top managers. Such filtering is most likely to take place when messages contain bad news or problems that subordinates are afraid they will be blamed for. Another communication barrier or problem in an organization is that of information or serial distortion.

**Information or Serial Distortion**

Information or serial distortion occurs when the meaning of a message changes as the message passes through a series of senders and receivers. Some information distortion is accidental-due to faulty encoding and decoding or to a lack of feedback. Other information distortion is deliberate. Senders may alter a message to make themselves or their groups look good and to receive special treatment.

Managers themselves should avoid filtering and distorting information. But how can they eliminate these barriers to effective communication throughout their organization? They need to establish trust throughout the organization. Subordinates who trust their managers believe that they will not be blamed for things beyond their control and will be treated fairly. Managers who trust their subordinates provide them with clear and complete information and do not hold things back.

**Include a Feedback Mechanism in Messages**

Because feedback is essential for effective communication, managers should build a feedback mechanism into the messages they send. They either should include a request for feedback or indicate when and how they will follow up on the message to make sure that it was received and understood. When managers write letters and memos or send faxes, they can request that the receivers respond with comments and suggestions in a letter, memo, or fax; schedule a meeting to discuss the issue; or follow up with a phone call. By building feedback mechanisms such as these into their messages, managers ensure that they get heard and are understood.

**Provide Accurate Information**

Rumors are unofficial pieces of information of interest to organizational members but with no identifiable source. Rumors spread quickly once they are started, and usually they concern topics that organizational members think are important, interesting, or amusing. Rumors, however, can be misleading and can cause harm to individual employees and to an organization when they are false, malicious, or unfounded. Managers can halt the spread of misleading rumors by providing organizational members with accurate information on matters that concern them.

### 3.6.2 Communication Skills for Managers as Receivers

Managers receive as many messages as they send. Thus, managers must possess or develop communication skills that allow them to be effective receivers of messages. Managers or leaders can be effective communicators by observing the following:

**Pay Attention**

Because of their multiple roles and tasks, managers often are overloaded and forced to think about several things at once. Pulled in many different directions, they sometimes do not pay sufficient attention to the messages they receive. To be effective, however, managers should always pay attention to messages they receive, no matter how busy they are. When discussing a project with a subordinate, an effective manager focuses on the project and not on an upcoming meeting with his or her own boss. Similarly, when managers are reading written forms of communication, they should focus their attention on understanding what they are reading; they should not be sidetracked into thinking about other issues.

**Be a Good Listener**

Managers (and all other members of an organization) can do several things to be good listeners. First, managers should refrain from interrupting senders in the middle of a message so that senders do not lose their train of thought and managers do not jump to erroneous conclusions based on incomplete information. Second, managers should maintain good eye contact with senders so that senders feel their listeners are paying attention; doing this also helps manager focus on what they are hearing. Third, after receiving a message, managers should ask questions to clarify points of ambiguity or confusion. Fourth, managers should paraphrase, or restate in their own words, points senders make that are important, complex, or open to alternative interpretations; this is the feedback component so critical to successful communication.

Managers, like most people, often like to hear themselves talk rather than listen to others. Part of being a good communicator, however, is being a good listener, an essential communication skill for managers as receivers of messages transmitted face-to-face and over the telephone.

**Empathetic**

Receivers are empathetic when they try to understand how the sender feels and try to interpret a message from the sender's perspective, rather than view a message from only their own point of view. Therefore, managers should take this into consideration, while dealing with .subordinates in organization or people in the society as a whole.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Communication as a process through which information is shared between two or more people is vital in the operations of any organization. Without communication activities cannot be carried out in the organization. Effective communication is a prerequisite for effective performance in any organization.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt the meaning of communication, the variables in the communication process, the modes of communication and the communication skills required for managers.

**SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**

i. Give five importance of effective communication.
ii. What are the modes of Communication

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the variables in the Communication process.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Bature, N. ( 2013). *Human Resources Management*. Kaduna: Joyce Graphic printers and publishers,

Ngu. S. M. (1994). *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice*. Zaria: Ahmadu Bello University Press.

# UNIT 5 DISCIPLINE AND DISCIPLINARY PROCEDURE

## CONTENTS



## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be examining the meaning of discipline, disciplinary procedure, conducts that constitute indiscipline and the forms of disciplinary actions.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define discipline
- discuss disciplinary procedure
- examine conducts that constitute indiscipline
- explain various forms of disciplinary actions.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Meaning of Discipline

Although the term "discipline" may be given different interpretations, it is generally accepted "as the training or mode of life in accordance with rules, subject to control, order, severe training, punishment ... to train, to educate to bring control, to chastise." This is a sort of comprehensive definition embracing the various facets of the concept of discipline.

However, there is a tendency for people to look at discipline in much a narrower sense in terms of command and obedience. Frank Membrere, for example, looks at discipline as the process of "application of authority to secure good conduct and the willing compliance with lawful orders and command of that authority".

Whatever may be the views of the various scholars, discipline, to reiterate, is an essential management tool which sustains the organisation and leads it to efficiency and successes in the organisation endeavours. Supporting this view, A.L. Adu opines that "Disciplinary code is a major tool for creation of efficiency of operation in the civil service machinery and for the maintenance of a healthy spirit and morale which are necessary for the growth of an efficient approach to responsibilities by civil servants."

The quotation above supports the view that discipline and efficiency are inseparable. It all means that we cannot attain efficiency without discipline in the organisation. Of course, this is true to all forms of discipline. It does not matter whether discipline is seen in terms of command and obedience; or, in terms of training of the mind.

It is necessary to add to this discussion that a disciplined society is one that respects the rules of the games. It is an ideal society or organisation where every member knows the rules of the games and is willing to abide by them with little or no supervision.

### 3.2 Disciplinary Procedure

A disciplinary procedure is instituted as soon as any of the rules and regulations is breached. Rule 04101 of the Civil Service Rules and Regulation (1974), for example indicates that "disciplinary proceedings... are initiated because of an officer's misconduct or general inefficiency." This is part of the fourth chapter of the official document. In fact, the whole chapter of this document deals with discipline and disciplinary procedure. Here discipline is drastically reduced to a concept of a very narrow sense.

Indiscipline in the document, for example, has been limited to what is regarded as "misconduct"'. This implies that it is synonymous. But there are some forms of indiscipline that may not necessarily mean misconduct. Misconduct usually entails an act, deed, or commission resulting in indiscipline. But it should be noted that indiscipline can result from an omission.

We can see that the Nigerian Civil Service rules and regulation take a very narrow approach to the" perception of the concept of discipline. It is for this reason that so many disciplinary acts, deeds, or omissions are not usually handled by the Government machinery. Failure of a chief executive in a ministry or any government agency to submit or reply to audit queries is an omission which is indiscipline. Similarly, failure of the Director of Audit to submit regular audit report is an omission which is indiscipline. But it is not uncommon to find such officers going scot free while junior workers or less privilege staff is punished for carelessly or unskillfully handling of their jobs as a way of disciplinary procedure or action.

If discipline entails acting according to the rules of the game, then nobody in the organisation should be exempted from disciplinary procedures where necessary. Similarly, the concept of discipline or indiscipline should not be given narrow interpretations. Discipline, for example, should be interpreted to include doing the right thing at the right time and place; and the right people given the right jobs. Where these fail either by commission or omission, we can talk of indiscipline, and disciplinary proceedings can be instituted against the officials involved no matter how highly placed.

However, caution is to be taken to avoid frequent use of disciplinary proceedings for mere frivolous activities or behaviour of the workers, as this could be counterproductive. Taylor's disciplines or "Theory X Managers" are more vulnerable to habitual institution of disciplinary proceedings against their workers for such frivolous activities or behaviour that could only require counseling. Where this habit persists, discipline itself tends to lose its test of objectivity and productivity at the expense of both workers and management alike.

It should be noted that Douglas McGregor (Theory Y) and Professor Rensis Likert's submission that successful managers are those who shun the scientific management approach in favour of human relations and behaviouralism have a lot to offer in the quality of leadership or management style. Of course to the adherent to the scientific management, this does not make sense. For them, "the average worker" is naturally lazy and must be handled by the use of the stick not carrots, if he is to put in his best on this job. In fact, for these "stick approach" managers, discipline and disciplinary proceedings become the order of the day.

Disciplinary proceedings per se usually commence with a query in which the subordinate is required to explain in writing and "within 24 hours" why disciplinary action will not be taken against him. Failure by the subordinate officer to give a successful answer to the query leads to an unprecedented proceedings of disciplinary action by the superior officer. Such disciplinary action may take various forms ranging from warning to loss of salary increment, seniority, or even the job as one of the most serious forms.

But usually, where the subordinate officer successfully answers the query, the matter goes straight to the cooler, implying that only the subordinate errs and the almighty superiors doesn't. It should be noted however, that equity demands fairness in all human endeavors. Giving this, the subordinate official who successfully answers a query deserves a remedy. The remedy could take the form of material reward or counter-query to the superior for doing a bad job. This will take care of those unscrupulous superior officers whose doctrine is that good management is exhibited by a dozen of queries per annum. The lesson to be learned here is that frivolous activities should not be construed to be gross misconduct which is the "essence of indiscipline. Of course, this does not rule out the existence of acts of gross misconduct". An act of serious or gross misconduct itself may be subjective depending on the degree of honesty and caliber: of officers handling it.

## 3.3 Conducts that Constitute Indiscipline

As a general guidance however, the civil service rules provide that misconduct is defined as a specific act susceptible of investigation and proof. It includes:

i) Willful act or omission for general misconduct to the scandal of the public or to the prejudge of discipline and proper administration of the government, e.g. corruption, dishonesty, drunkenness, false claims against government, fouled language, failure to keep records, etc.
ii) Conviction for a criminal offence (other than a minor traffic or sanitary offence or the like: cases of doubt should be referred to the Public Service Commission for guidance.
iii) Financial embarrassment;
iv) Absence without leave
v) Engaging in political activities
vi) Engaging in trade or business without authority;
vii) Disobedience of lawful order, such as a refusal proceed on transfer or to accept posting,
viii) Disclosure of official information;
ix) Action prejudicial to the security of the state

In addition to these, there are some miscellaneous acts of misconduct which include money lending and borrowing among government officials.

It may be easier however, to identify and administer the act of misconduct quoted above than those involving money lending and borrowing. In fact the latter is a common phenomenon among workers in organisations, particularly in the public services. Workers themselves see nothing wrong with the practice of lending and borrowing of money among themselves because, as far as they are concerned, it goes with the notion or principle of “be your brother's keeper" in the African nation. Of course, the glaring cases of misconduct as quoted above are usually frowned at, and in most attract disciplinary actions.

## 3.4 Forms of Disciplinary Actions

When an alleged act of indiscipline has not been successfully defended a disciplinary action can be taken against the offender. The disciplinary action ranges from:

a) Drawing attention to shortcomings:
*b)* Formal Warning;
*c)* Suspension from duties;
d) Compulsory leave;
e) Interdiction.

The purpose of drawing attention to shortcomings is to give the officer an opportunity to improve on his performances or conduct, or both. This is also true of the formal warning even though the latter is more serious than the former.

Where a prima-facie case of gross misconduct is established against an officer, such an officer may be suspended, interdicted, asked to proceed on compulsory leave, either with full salary or half salary, or even without salary depending on the nature and gravity of the gross misconduct. The most essential reason of suspension or interdiction is to ensure that the officer does not have access to his former office for fear of distortion or disappearance of official records which might be relevant to the subject matter and other important issues.

In most cases, an officer on suspension is invited to appear before a Disciplinary Committee or Investigation Panel to answer charges and defend them if possible. This is also true of an officer asked to proceed on compulsory leave. The outcome of investigation may necessitate taking court action or internal disciplinary actions ranging from formal warning: loss of salary; or loss of salary increases and some fringe benefits; demotion; termination of appointment; compulsory retirement; or even in extreme and more serious cases, dismissal from the service. The officer may be exonerated where there is no strong evidence against him and the alleged act of misconduct. In such a situation, he deserves unreserved apology from the management.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Discipline can be a useful tool for behavior modification. It is employed as a corrective measure in organizations. It helps to promote efficiency and effectiveness in the performance of organizational functions.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have examined meaning of discipline, conducts that constitute indiscipline and forms of disciplinary actions.

## SELF -ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. When is disciplinary procedure instituted?
ii. List four disciplinary actions that can be taken against an offender.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Enumerate five acts that constitute indiscipline.

## 7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READINGS

Ngu. S. M. (1994). *Personnel Management in Nigeria: Principles and Practice*. Zaria: Ahmadu Bello University Press.