NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: BED312

COURSE TITLE: ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF VOCATION EDUCATION

BED 312: **ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION**

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INTRODUCTION

BED 312 : ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRRATTION OF TECHNICAL & VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

This course is designed to equip you with knowledge of the general principles of organization and management as applicable to Technical and Vocational Education (TVE)

WHAT YOU WILL LEARN

You will learn the organizational functions, structure and behaviour which characterize the administration of technical and vocational education.

COURSE AIMS

This course aims at producing competent organizers and managers of institutions of learning, including the instructional learning environment. In order to enable you meet the above aims, modules constituting of units have been produced for your study. Apart from meeting the aims of the course as a whole, each course unit consists of learning objectives which are intended to ensure your learning effectiveness.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

The course objectives are meant to enable you achieve/acquire the following:

1) Acquire understanding of the history and evolution of Organization and Administration from the ancient, through classical to the modern time.
2) Understanding of the structure and characteristic of organizations
3) Develop understanding and practical knowledge of human behaviour in organizations.
4) Understanding of the basic principles and functions of management
5) Knowledge of the general requirements for recruiting and development of employees in the teaching service.
6) Understanding of the basic principles and practice of administration in technical and vocational educational institutions.

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

You are required to thoroughly work through all the units in this course. There are five modules in all.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major components of this course are

1. Course Guide
2. Study units
3. Text books
4. CDS
5. Tutor
6. Assignment file
7. Presentation Schedule

STUDY UNITS

The breakdown of the five modules and 24 study units are as follows:

MODULE 1: HISTORICAL BASIS OF ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

Unit 1: Evolution of Management Thought
Unit 2: Classical Management Approach
Unit 3: Behavioural Management Approach
Unit 4: Quantitative Management Approach
Unit 5: Contemporary Management Theories

MODULE II: STRUCTURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONS
Unit 1: Concepts and terminologies
Unit 2: Types of organizations
Unit 3: Systems approach to the analysis TVE organizations
Unit 4: The organizing functions.
Unit 5: Terms relating to the understanding of the role of organization structure
Unit 6: Organization structure
Unit 7: Departmentalization: Traditional organization patterns

MODULE III: HUMAN BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANIZATIONS: TVE PERSPECTIVE
Unit 1: Determinants of human performance in organizations
Unit 2: Theories of motivation in technical college organization
Unit 3: Leadership and its characteristics

MODULE IV: EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND TERMS
Unit 1: Job description and job specifications
Unit 2: Interviews and job restructuring
Unit 3: Process of job finding
Unit 4: General conditions of service in TVE

MODULE 5: BASIC PRINCIPLES OF AND PRACTICE OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Unit 1: Organization structure and the management of TVE in Nigeria
Unit 2: Philosophy, goals and objectives of TVE institutions
Unit 3: Academic policies and regulations
Unit 4: Evaluation and accountability in technical and vocational education

REFERENCES AND OTHER RESOURCES

Every unit contains a list of references and further reading. Try as much as you can to get the listed books and further reading materials. You are also expected to approach the internet for further related reading materials. This is to widen as well as deepen the depth of understanding of this course.

ASSIGNMENT FILE

You will find in this file all the details of the assignments you must attempt and submit to your tutor for marking. The marks you obtain from these assignments will count towards your final course grade. You will find further information on the assignments in the assignment file which you will find later in the section on assignment in this course Guide.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The presentation schedule which is included in your course materials gives you the important dates for the completion of tutor-marked assignments and for attendance of tutorials. Remember, you are required to submit all your assignments on due dates. You should guard against falling behind in your work.

ASSESSMENT

Your assessment will be based on tutor-marked assignments (TMAs) and a final examination which you will write at the end of the course.

TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMA)

Every unit contains at least one or two assignments. You are advised to work through all the assignments and submit them for assessment. Your tutor will assess the assignments and select four, which will be marked and the best three will be selected which will constitute 30% of your final grade. The tutor-marked assignments may be presented to you in a separate file. Just know that for every unit there are some tutor-marked assignments for you. It is important you do them and submit for assessment.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

At the end of the course, you will write a final examination which will constitute 70% of your final grade. In the examination which shall last for two hours, you will be required to answer three questions out of at least five questions that may be given to you.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

This table shows how the actual course marking is broken down.

Assessment	**Marks**
Assignments	Four assignments. Best three marks of the four count as 30% of course marks
Final Examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course marks

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecture. In the same way a lecturer might give you some reading to do, the study units tell you when to read, and which are your text materials or set books. You are provided exercises to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you in-class an exercise. Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course. The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or from a Reading section. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor. **Remember that your tutor‘s job is to help you. When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.**

IN ADDITION TO THE FOLLOWING:

1. Read this course Guide thoroughly, it is your first assignment
2. Organize a study schedule. Design a ‘Course Overview’ to guide you through the Course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information, e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the Semester is available from the study centre. You need to gather all the information into one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit.
3. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it. The major reason that students fails is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please, let your tutor know before it is too late for help.
4. Turn to Unit 1, and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.
5. Work through the unit. As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.
6. Keep in touch with your study centre. Up-to-date course information will be continuously available there.
7. Assemble the materials. You will need your set books and the unit you are studying at any point in time.

8. Well before the relevant due dates (about 4 week before due dates); keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and,, therefore, will help you pass the examination. Submit all assignments not late than the due date.
9. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel that you are not sure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor.
10. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.
11. When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule.
When the Assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutor—marked assignment form and also the written comments on the ordinary assignments.
12. After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed in the Course Guide).

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

The dates, time and locations of these tutorials will be made available to you, together with the name, telephone number and the address of your tutor. Each assignment will be marked by your tutor. Pay close attention to the comments your tutor might make on your assignments as these will help in your progress. Make sure that assignments reach your tutor on or before the due date.

Your tutorials are important, therefore, try not to skip any. It is an opportunity to meet your tutor and your fellow students. It is also an opportunity to get the help of your tutor and discuss any difficulties you might have encountered during the course of your reading.

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MODULE 1: HISTORICAL BASIS OF ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

CONTENT

UNIT 1: EVOLUTION OF MANAGEMENT THOUGHT CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Organization and management, the field of study you are about to be introduced to is a rather vast discipline which cuts across all the activities that take place in formal organizations, including technical and vocational education (TVE). That is, if we see organization simply in terms of a group of people working together to achieve set objectives. Some of the things that go on in educational organizations include designing the structure of the organization, organizing and managing learning, and managing academic programmes and records. On the other hand the discipline seeks to explain those factors that tend to influence the behaviour of the workers within organizations in relation to their working conditions and organizational efficiency. With particular reference to TVE, organization and management seeks to examine and explain the organizational structure, the working environment, the behaviour of members of the organization, among others.

In order to provide you with a clear understanding of the discipline, we shall begin this study guide or book by examining the evolution of the field of organization and management, and try to draw useful lessons for effective management of TVE.

1.0 **OBJECTIVES**

Following the introduction above, at the end of this unit, you should be able to:
i) Understand the history and theory of management
ii) Develop basic understanding of how management ideas evolved in the ancient world.
iii) Know the precursors of modern management thought and practice.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 IMPORTANCE OF HISTORY AND THEORY OFANCIENT MANAGEMENT

There is a general assumption that some individuals are born with the ability and skills to organize and manage events or organizations. So it was claimed that individuals that had trait factors to manage situations, events or organizations, effectively did not require to be trained for the purpose. Consequently, the study of the history and theory of organization and management was neglected for a very long time. In fact even early writers on organization and management including Urwick (1958), Fayol (1949), Barnard (1938), Mayo (1949), and McGregor (1961), to mention a few, were mainly interested in developing new ideas instead of building from the ideas of those of ancient civilizations, some of who managed their states and economies very successfully.

In reality, the evolution of the human race from simple to family units to village communities and later to complex city states and large empires; from simple subsistent farming to complex commercial and industrial organizations, has at every stage involved some organization and management. A full appreciation of how these ancient empires, commercial and industrial organizations were managed justifies our studying their history and evolution (Ekpenyong, 2000). The importance of studying the history of management enables managers to learn from the mistakes of the past, while ancient theories of management may help them to organize information and to approach management problems systemically.

KEY CONCEPT

An understanding of the history and theory of ancient management enables modern managers to understand and appreciate current situations and developments and to predict future situations with reasonable accuracy.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Why would you study the history and development of ancient management?

3.2 EVOLUTION OF MANAGEMENT IDEAS AND PRACTICE

The study of organization and management in antiquity or ancient world is a rather vast area which expands across the ancient empires including the Mesopotamian Empire. You must remember that the area of the Middle East presently called Iraq was originally Mesopotamia, the latter which derived its name from the two rivers: Rivers Tigris and Euphrates. Within the fertile plain of that region are three ancient civilizations. These included Sumeria (5000-2500 BC), Babylon (1894 – 689BC), and Assyria (689-614BC).

3.3 THE SUMERIANS

The Sumerians were famous for their advances in building, agriculture, weaving and making of wheels from tree trunks. To have been able to accomplish all these successfully needed planning, organization as well as a conducive environment. Perhaps the greatest legacy which the Sumerians bequeathed to modern management was the invention of a wedge-shaped writing called CUNEIFORM, which enabled the Sumerians to learn the habit of keeping records about the dates of important events and transmission of information. We can not think of modern management where information is not important.

3.4 THE BABYLONIANS

The Babylonians were a highly creative people whose achievements have influenced marketing management and commerce, business law and personnel administration in modern times. They were among the first in the ancient world to use money for exchange instead of using barter. Cooles and Snellgrove (1970) have shown that lumps of silver of given weights were used to represent articles to be exchanged. **Hamumurabi:** The ascendance of Hamurabi as the King of Babylon (1792-1750BC) marked yet another era of achievement which modern managers have to learn a few facts about. As in modern times, Mesopotamian rulers were seen as managers and stewards, which called for managerial effectiveness, efficiency and accountability. Hamurabi aspired to meet these managerial expectations by setting on a pillar 3600 lines of 282 laws which also prescribed blessings and curses for offenders. Hammurabi's laws or principles covered all major aspects of human activities such as farming, land ownership and rent to be paid. Some of the laws such "an eye for an eye" (though later modified) were draconian, they no doubt provided a conception of how best a macro organization such a state or multi-national could be managed.

THE ASSYRIANS: With the sack of the City of Babylon in 689BC by the Assyrians, the City of Nineveh was built by King Senacherib.

Senacherib built 300 yard-long aqueduct which supplied water for farming. This outstanding accomplishment, coming at the time it did, showed that King Senacherib understood the principles of planning, organization, and coordination of the efforts of the people for goal accomplishment.

The use of groups for task accomplishment is still current as management practice, and Senacherib must have been versed in group dynamics to have succeeded so well in his administration.

3.5 THE EGYPTIAN EMPIRE (3500-341BC)

About 3500 BC, the ancient tribes of Egypt settled around the Nile River. In addition to the principle of irrigation, which they perfected, the Egyptians were famous in the building of pyramids.

The human and material resources, planning and organization involved in the complexity of building pyramids has marked Egypt out as being the first to use management ideas. While some of the pyramids were about 200ft high, others were much higher. According to the account of Crowder, Cootes and Snellgrove (1970), the pyramid at Giza by Khufu for King Snofru, his father stood 460 feet high, 755 feet long on each side and required 2 million blocks to build. This is by all standards engineering and human management fit which modern building engineers and managers would not want to do without.

According to Erman (1927), a record on management which looks something like a book of instruction referred to as "Ptah hitop" and written in about 2700BC, has been found. The book discusses issues relating to honesty by managers, value of staff advice, to managers and utilization of staff.

Other legacies which ancient Egypt left for modern managers include the practice of decentralization and delegation of authority.

3.6 THE GREEK EMPIRE (2000-300BC)

The political and military history of Greece from the time of Mincan Dynasty (2000BC) shows that the applications of management ideas were greatly instrumental to their successes.

The introduction of democratic government in Athens in 506 BC led to the division of the city into three sections for voting purposes (Note the division of states into senatorial districts in modern times).

It was the organizational and the managerial skill of the Greek military leaders such as Pericles and Alexander the Great that saw Greek's ascendance during their reigns. Pericles formed a league of City, States that saw Athenian influence extending to most of Greece except Sparta; and as far a field as Egypt and Cyprus. The institution was strengthened through the introduction of the Olympic Games.

Apart from the Greek military leaders, whose success in wars and statesmanship could easily be explained in terms of intuitive use of management principles, there were Greek philosophers and thinkers who made significant contributions which are relevant to modern management thought. These included Socrates, Plato, Xenophone and Cyrus. Socrates, for instance defined management as a skill, and differentiated it from technical knowledge and experience. Plato extended the examination of justice beyond that which affected only the individual, to that which affected the state as a whole. Socrates' definition of management and Plato's conception of justice as a foundation for a whole system of government and society have modern touch, when applied to modern management, particularly systems management

.

3.7 THE ROMAN EMPIRE (2000-750BC-AD500)

Comprehensive reports are lacking about the development of ancient Roman Empire; all the same, there were certain developments which demonstrated the use of practical application of management principles, particularly on the part of the Roman Catholic Church.

From records, during the reign of Emperor Diocletian (284-309AD), leadership by delegation was introduced, despite his hostility to Christians. Emperor Varo on his part emphasized the need to appropriately motivate people with appropriate physical characteristics for the right jobs.

The Roman Catholic Church exerted a major influence in the governance of the Roman Empire. As one of the oldest formal organization, the church devised a well-defined organizational hierarchy of authority. Authority and line functions were specialized.

The form of functional structure mentioned above is still very common in modern organizations including military and civil organizations. Max Weber must have been greatly influenced by this arrangement in his analysis of types of organizations, particularly bureaucratic organizations.

3.8 OTHER ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS:

Owing to space constraints, we would not go into further details on ancient societies whose management thoughts did have positive impact on modern management, but you may do so on your own.

The organizations that we have selected for mention include those of India (2500-170BC), Persia (900BC-331BC) China (221BC-1911AD). Among the best known empires in Africa that have legacy for modern management are those of Ghana (500-1260AD), Mali (900-1400AD), Songhai (1495-1570), Benin Kingdom (1570), and the Oyo Empire.

THE OYO EMPIRE: this empire emerged around the close of the 14th century, and made significant contribution to modern management thought. In his account of Oyo Empire's administration, Boahen (1966), concluded as follows:

If we considered the size, its arts the complexity of its religious system, its unwritten constitution, check and balances, and its economic… and trade with the north… on trade with the Europeans on the coast, it was certainly one of the most interesting of the empires that arose via West Africa (Boahen,1966:94)

The conclusion indicates clearly that modern management has a lot to learn not only from ancient Europe, but also other empires including Africa.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST Make a summary of all you have learned about the empires we have discussed and their contributions to modern management ideas.

3.9 THE PRECUSORS OF MODERN MANAGEMENT IDEAS.

It is common to find that many management writers start their writing from the era of scientific management. However, you must have noticed that the popularization of management as a profession had actually started from the ancient times, although its great impact only started to be noticeable around the 19th century. Some of the key 19th century management pioneers include James Watt, Jr., Matthew Boulton, Henry Towne, Robert Owen, Charles Babbage and Henry Poor. We will discuss the fist three of these pioneers. You may wish to consult Coontz and O'donnel (1980) and other relevant authors for a much fuller account of their contributions.

a) JAMES WATT (JR.) AND MATTHEW BAULTON:

James Watt Junior and Matthew Boulton, sons of the inventors of the steam engine were considered as the pioneer users of scientific management principle at the Soho engineering foundry which their fathers invented in 1796. Watt took charge of organization and administration while Boulton handled sales and other commercial activities.

In the course of time they developed a number of innovative management principles which are considered in present management circles to be unique. The principles included the following:

1) Management research and forecasting
2) Machine layout meant to enhance work flow.
3) Production planning
4) Setting production standards, and standardization of production components
5) Devising of an accounting procedure for determining the cost and product capacity of each machine produced.
6) Institution of executive and staff training.
7) Institution of work study for the purpose of determining appropriate incentive for their work.

As will be seen in the next unit, most of these principles were reflected in the scientific management practice of Frederick Taylor.

b) ROBERT OWEN: FATHER OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Robert Owen was another notable 19^{th} century management pioneer. Between 1800 and 1828 Owen carried out some novel experiments in a group of textile mills which he was managing in Scotland. He devised some innovative management approaches with the intention of improving the working conditions of his workers; in a period where factory owners paid no attention to the welfare of their workers, it is recorded that he put in place the following innovations in his factory:

1) Improved working conditions for his workers
2) Raised minimum working age for children
3) Reduced the working hours of his employees
4) Provided meals for his workers, and set up stores where they could buy their necessities at low cost.
5) He built houses in the communities where his workers lived: a kind of modern housing scheme, for workers.

We must note that in spite of his concern for his employees' welfare, Owen never compromised carelessness in the use of the machines.

It is on the basis of the concern for his workers' welfare, that Robert Owen has been described as the **FATHER OF MODERN PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT.**

c) HENRY TOWNE: MANAGEMENT PIONEER

Henry R Towne was the owner of Yale and Towne Manufacturing Company in the USA. He contributed enormously to the evolution of modern management. As remarked by Heyel (1973; 508):

If one desired to identify the spark that ignited the management movement in the United States of America, the presentation of Henry R. Towne's classic paper "The engineer as an economist" could be cited.

It was Henry Towne who during a meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers in 1886, initiated a movement which later gave rise to management development as separate from engineering. A part of his paper cited earlier stated as follows:

The matter of shop management is of equal importance with that of engineering… The management of work is unorganized, is almost without literature, has no organ or medium for inter-change of experiences and is without association or organization of any kind… the remedy must not be looked from those who are businessmen or clerks or accountants only, it should come from those whose training and experience has given them an understanding of both sides (mechanical and clerical) of the important questions involved.

Henry Towne's speech did indeed stimulate thoughts and reactions which led to what we have come to day to know as management.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT What would you remember about the Ideas of Henry Towne or that of James Watt Jr. and his associate, Boulton?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Reading through the experiences and the organizational practices of the ancient statesmen and administrators, and the three management pioneers and others like them, it can actually be said that they did provide the impetus and the foundation upon which modern management theories and practices are laid.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have given you the reasons why we need to study the history and development of management during the ancient civilizations, with a view to enabling modern managers of businesses to learn and/or assess their efforts in relation to those early practices.

We have discussed management ideas from the ancient empires of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Greece and Rome with a view to pointing out their legacies to the modern world. We also gave a brief discussion of ancient African empires of which Oyo in Nigeria was one, we also drew attention to their legacies to modern management.

In discussing the work of pioneers whose contributions preceded those of modern management, we particularly mentioned the contributions of James Watt Jr. and Matthew Boulton who devised a number of innovative management practices in their factory; Robert Owen whose work made him to be called the Father of Personnel Management, and lastly but, not the least, Henry Towne whose contributions and advocacies led to the birth of management as a profession, separate from engineering.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1) Discuss the importance of studying the history and theory of management of the ancient civilizations
2) Briefly discuss what the following were noted for in the organization and administration of their respective empires.
a) Hamurabi b) Pericles
c) Senacherib
3) What were the following precursors of modern management noted for:
a) James Watt and Matthew Boulton b) Robert Owen

7.0 REFERENCES

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Civilization. Routledge and Kegan Paul.

MODULE 1

UNIT 2: CLASSICAL MANAGEMENT APPROACH

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit I, we considered some of the important organizational practices that characterized the leadership of ancient empires. We also noted the deliberate initiation of organizational practices by the 19th century pre-scientific managers of industry, such as James Watt (Jr.) and Matthew Boulton, and Robert Owen. We particularly noted the advocacy of Henry Towne for separation of management from engineering. It remains now for us to see how these developments have come to shape the nature, theory and practice of management in the 20th century up to the present time.

2.0 OBJECTIVES:

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

1) Understand how classical school of management emerged.
2) Understand the place of F. Taylor in scientific management thought and practice
3) Evaluate the importance of Taylor's principles of scientific management
4) Evaluate Taylor's contributions to modern management
5) Understand the roles of the following in scientific management thought and practice:
- Frank and Lillian Gilbreth
- Henry Gantt.
6) Understand administrative approach to management
7) Understand the contributions of Henri Fayol to administrative management thought and practice
8) Evaluate the relevance of Fayol's 14 general principles of management
9) Evaluate Fayol's legacy to modern management
10) Understand Max Weber's contributions to the theory and practice of modern management.
11) Analyze the characteristics of bureaucracy
12) Discuss Weber's legacy to modern management.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 EMERGENCE OF CLASSICAL SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT

The classical school of management thought, as was hinted in the introduction, emerged at the turn of the 19th century. The term ‘classical’ is used to indicate the first and formally recorded ideas of management.

The classical school of management is divided into two main categories, namely, scientific management and administrative management. The major difference between the two sub-schools is that while scientific management ideas were focused on the work of individuals that of administrative management was concerned about how organizations should be built. Hence it drew from the views of individuals to do so.

3.2 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

3.2.1 F.W. Taylor (1956-1915)

The idea of scientific management, though not completely new, as we saw in unit 1, is largely credited to Frederick Wimslow Taylor, an industrial engineer and consultant, with strong interest in scientific approach to worker efficiency.

The account of Taylor’s work on scientific management of work process has been widely recorded in management literature (Helriegel and Slocum, 1992; Certo, 1986; Pugh, 1971; Aggarawal, 2002)

At his first job at the Midvale Steel Company in Philadelphia, USA, he observed a phenomenon referred to as ‘soldiering’, a process which the labourers decided to work at a rate below their productive capacity. In view of the fact that other managers were unaware of the phenomenon, Taylor decided to study each job and to determine the most efficient way to perform it. Following his findings, Taylor decided to install a piece rate system, which meant that each labourer was to be paid based on the amount of his daily production.

Taylor’s success at Midvale, which he eventually left for Sumond Rolling Machine Company and at the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, provided him opportunity for further experiments. From the results of his study at Sumond, Taylor introduced the following innovations:

1) redesign of jobs
2) introduction of rest breaks
3) introduction of piece rate system of pay

These steps were reported to have resulted in the raising of the workers’ morale and increased their productivity. Taylor’s best illustration of scientific method and management skill came with his description of how he modified the job of an employee whose responsibility was to use a shovel to load and unload rod rail-cars. What he did was to break the task into its smallest constituent movement, as he measured each movement with a stop-watch; he then redesigned the job by reducing the number of motions the worker had to make and to avoid any risk of error on its execution. By allowing for specific rest period after each set of performance and increasing the wage of the worker he was able to increase his output from 12 to 47 tons per day.

In another experiment, Taylor observed that the workers were using the same type of shovel, irrespective of the type of materials they were carrying. He accordingly reduced the sizes of the workers shovels to suit the type of materials they were carrying, thereby reducing the number of motions they had to make, and consequently increased their output.

Taylor's experience and assumptions about work, and how to achieve the best results from the workers became much clearer over time and resulted to what is generally known as scientific management.

3.2.1.1 TAYLOR'S PRINCIPLES OF SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

The following were the rationale behind the principles of scientific management:

1) That the practice of scientific management is based on four principles: (Taylor, 1947b):

a) The manager should develop a science for each element of the job; study the job, and determine how it should be done; this replaces the rules of thumb or opinion method that managers had been used to;

b) The manager should scientifically select, and then train, teach and develop workers;

c) The manager should cooperate with the workers to ensure that they are using the scientific steps already developed through proper monitoring to ensure that they adhere to the best way of doing the job.

d) The manager should assume all planning and organizing tasks as the workers perform the tasks.

KEY POINT

Scientific management principles are as follows:

1) ***Management is a science which seeks to discover one best way of performing organizational tasks***

2) ***The selection of the workers is a science***

3) ***Workers are to be developed through training;***

4) ***Scientific management requires the joint efforts of both the workers and the managers***

3.2.1.2 TAYLOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO MANAGEMENT

a) **Points For:** One major contribution which Taylor made to modern management which does not seem novel any more today, is his insistence on proper selection and training of workers as a means of ensuring the best output from them. Taylor's emphasis on "a fair day's pay for a fair day's work" has continued to remain a central labour and motivational issue in today's management.

Scientific management principle emphasized the importance of specialization. This is still relevant in modern management.

Again, the importance of goal setting and work measurement still remain part of the legacies that Taylor bequeathed to modern management.

b) **Points Against:** Opponents of scientific management make the following claims against it:

1) That it tends to reduce the role of the workers to that of rigid adherence to methods and procedures of which their personal input does not seen to count.
2) That the emphasis on division of labour tends to cause undue fragmentation of work.
3) That it seems to kill the initiative of the workers
4) That by making the level of output a condition for the amount of pay a worker can receive; tended to create bias in the area of worker motivation.

3.3 OTHER PROPONENTS OF SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

Along with Frederick Taylor, there were other workers who equally tried to show that scientific management was a worthy addition to management thought.

3.3.1 Frank Gilbreth (1868-1924) and Lillian Gilbreth (1878-1972):

The Gilbreths were two of the **notable** workers in scientific management movement who made important contributions to scientific management thought and practice. Their work was first popularized in a book and later in a movie titled" "Cheaper by the Dozen". The movie sought to portray how they applied scientific management practice in their family of twelve children (Mee, 1956).

Frank's specific contribution was in the area of brick laying. He did the following:

1) observed that the method of lay bricks even though an old profession was rather unorganized and tedious;
2) next went forward to standardize the number of steps involved in the process;

3) result: he was able to reduce the steps in laying bricks from 18 to 5 or by 70% and thereby causing brick layers to triple their outputs.

In the field of medicine, he worked on and stream-lined the operating room procedures, thereby greatly reduced the amount of time a patient had to spend on the operating table.

On her part, Lillian helped Frank in devising methods of improving workers welfare and industrial efficiency through time and motion study, a method which is still being used in modern work study.

3.3.2 Henry L. Gantt (1861-1919)

Henry Gantt, another important associate of Taylor in the field of scientific management was equally interested in increasing worker efficiency and also in ensuring that those who were exceptional in their production received bonuses for their efforts.

Gantt's position was that exact knowledge of what could be done should be substituted for opinion. In differentiating between the traditional management based on opinion and that based on scientific management, Gantt said:

The essential differences between the best system of today and those of the past are the manner in which tasks are scheduled; and the manner in which their performance is rewarded (Mee, 1956).

On the basis of the above statement or rationale, Gantt went forward to improve upon work organization procedure by innovative task scheduling and reward system through the development what is called the Gantt chart. The Gantt chart is a device for scheduling work over a period of time. This method of scheduling work is still in use today. The Gantt chart provides managers a summary and easy means of understanding what work was scheduled for a certain period of time and how much was actually completed. In terms of reward to the workers. Gantt wrote:

The task master (manager) of the past was practically a slave driver whose principal function was to force workmen to do that which they had no desire to do, or interest in doing. The task setter of today under any reputable system of management is not a driver when he asks the workmen to perform tasks, he makes it to their interests to accomplish them, and is careful not to ask what is impossible or unreasonable (Mee, 1956).

Consequent upon the above view he developed a system by which workers could earn bonuses in addition to the piece rate (which was established by Taylor) if they produced above their assigned production target.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

List all the important experiments that were conducted by Frederick Taylor Frank Giblreth, Lillian Gilbreth and Henry Gant in support of the scientific management movement.

3.4 ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT APPROACH

As we indicated earlier the second subset of classical school of management is called administrative management. The focus of administrative management is on how organizations should be structured. In other words, while Taylor's scientific management was focused on individual workers, mainly at the lower and supervisory levels of the organization, the administrative management theorists turned their attention to how they could apply their theories to the entire levels of the organization. Essentially, their work was centered on the entire range of managerial performance.

Among the theorists that made important contributions to administrative management were. Henry Fayol, Max Weber, Mary Parker Follet, Chester Barnard, Gulick and Lyndall Urwick, Mooney and AC Reiley (see Grusky and Miller, 1981; Pugh, 1985 Certo., 1986; Aggaraval, 2002).

In order for you to have a clear picture of the perspective of administrative management pioneers and their works only two of them will be discussed briefly here, namely Henri Fayol and Max Weber.

3.4.1 **HENRI FAYOL (1941-1925)**

Henri Fayol is generally referred to as the **Father of Modern Management** in view of his outstanding and pioneering contributions to administrative management. Indeed he is to administrative management what Taylor is to scientific management.

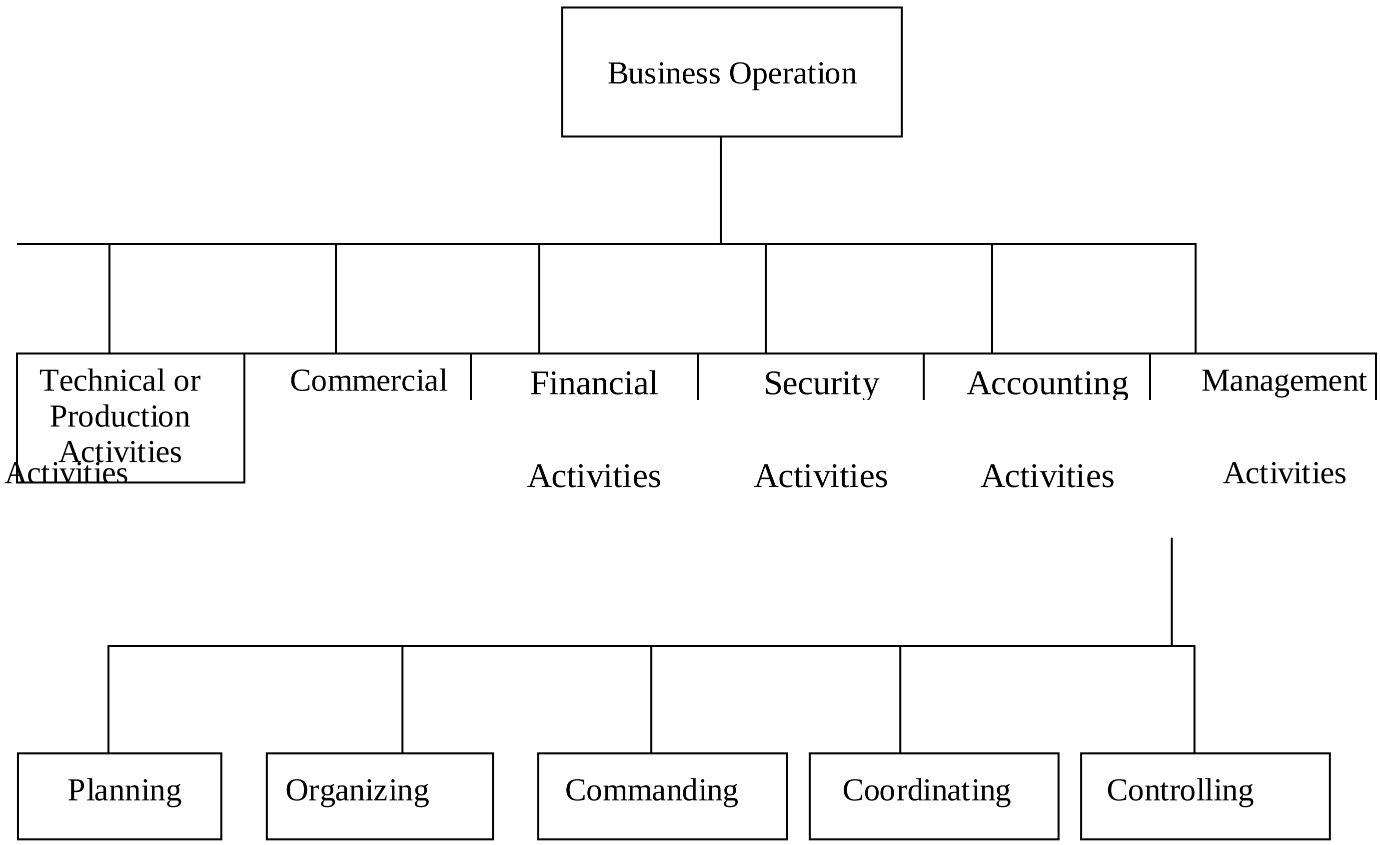
Specifically, Fayol, a Frenchman with over 50 years of industrial experience developed a 14-point framework for studying management. He identified six elements of management or management activities that would be expected in the operation of a business into the following:

1) Technical or production
2) Commercial (buying and selling)
3) Financial
4) Security (protection and safety)
5) Accounting activities
6) Managerial activities-these include

a – planning b – organizing
c – commanding d – coordinating e – controlling

To ease your understanding we have built the structure above into an organogram of a business operation.

Fig. M/1.1: FAYOL'S MODEL OF BUSINESS OPERATION



After identifying the six activities of organization, Fayol devoted a good proportion of his effort to defining those aspects that constitute managerial activities separate from the other five activities such as production and accounting. From his point of view, managerial activities are common to all human activities, be they in the public, private and even family situation.

3.4.2 FOURTEEN GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

His puzzling and thinking led Fayol to finally arrive at the following fourteen principles of management:

1) **Division of work:** The more people are specialized the more efficiently they can do their work. This principle underlies the success of those who work on the assembly lines of production factories.
2) **Authority:** Managers have the responsibility of giving order so that they can get things done. Fayol defined authority as the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience. Responsibility involves being

accountable for something, which implies that authority and responsibility go together because when an individual assumes authority, he/she also assumes responsibility.

3) **Discipline:** Members of an organization must respect the rules and agreements that govern the organization. Fayol considered that discipline would result from good leadership at all levels of the organization. Where penalties are applied they should be done judiciously to encourage the common effort.
4) **Unity of Command:** Each employee has to receive orders from only one person. It was Fayol's view that receiving orders from two or more supervisors on one operation, would lead to conflicting instruction and confusion in authority would occur.
5) **Unity of Direction:** the efforts of employees on organization should be directed only by one manager or superior so as to avoid different policies and procedures.
6) **Subordination of individual interest to the common good:** In any undertaking, the interest of one individual employee should not precede that of the organization as a whole.
7) **Remuneration:** The compensation for work done should be fair to both the employee and the employer
8) **Centralization:** Decreasing the role of subordinates in decision making is centralization while increasing their roles is decentralization. Fayol believed that managers should retain the responsibility over the extent of centralization they require, but they should give their subordinates the amount of authority that would enable them do their jobs properly.
9) **Scalar chain (hierarchy):** The line of authority in an organization follows a hierarchical order of rank beginning from the top to the bottom. That is, each manager from the first level supervisor, to the chief executive or president, possesses a certain amount of authority, with the highest authority resting with the chief executive officer.
10) **Order:** For the purpose of efficiency, and to reduce the problem of coordination to the barest minimum, all the people and materials that are released to a specific kind of work should be located within the same area within the organization.
11) **Equity:** Managers should be both far and friendly to their subordinates
12) **Stability of Tenure of staff:** Recruitment and retaining of employees should remain a high priority of management. A high turn-over rate is costly and detrimental to the progress of the organization.
13) **Initiative:** managers should encourage their subordinates to take initiative in the performance of their roles, even though they may make mistakes.
    Initiative may be seen as new or additional work activity which is undertaken through self-direction
14) **Esprit de Corps:** Promoting team spirit among the workers will bring about a sense of unity within the organization.
    From his experience, Fayol came to understand that abilities required by managers depend on their positions within the hierarchy. One may

possess certain technical skill, but to operate at a higher managerial level will demand that he possesses the abilities required by such managerial position. Again managers in large organizations require greater abilities than those in smaller organizations.

LEGACIES OF FAYOL: Many modern managers still see Fayol's principles of management as very relevant to their organizations. Again, his definition of management as including to plan and forecast, co-ordinate and control, is as important today as it was about 95 years ago. On the contrary some authorities consider that his theories are not as relevant today as they were before. On the other and, some of the theories and principles have been integrated with modern management practice.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
1a) List the six elements of management as put forward by Fayol
1b) Which of these do you consider to be very important today and why?

3.4.3 MAX WEBER (1864-1920)

Max Weber, a German sociologist was the first to describe three types of authority. These include:

- **Traditional authority:** Acceptance of those in authority is based on tradition and custom
- **Charismatic authority:** Acceptance derives from the leader's personal qualities and confidence subordinates have on him.
- **Legal Rational Authority:** The acceptance of legal-rational authority derives from the office or position of the person in authority as directed by the rules and procedures of the organization.

Legal-rational authority takes into account individual's position within the organization. Central to the understanding of legal-rational authority is the concept of bureaucracy which depicts how roles should be performed in an ideal organization.

KEY CONCEPT

Bureaucracy is an organizational design that attempts to make organization operate more efficiently through a clear hierarchy of an authority in which individuals are required to perform well defined roles impersonally.

In a bureaucratic organizational structure the following will be observed:

1) Each organizational member (employee) occupies a position with a clear definition of his/her role and limit of power and the amount of compensation due to him/her.
2) Positions within the organization are arranged hierarchically.

3) One's fitness to occupy a position is determined by one’s technical competence.
4) The organization is governed through established rules and regulations.

Note: Weber recognized the fact that the type of organization he was describing could at best be seen as the ideal type, since it would be difficult to find human organizations that operate strictly on the principles he was describing. It is rather the type of structure that most organizations should aspire to have.

SOME CHARACTERISTIS OF A BUREAUCRACY

1) There should be a high degree of functional specialization, ideally the task should be so divided that each worker is more competent at his/her subtask than anyone else in order to make the best of available resources.
2) There should be a comprehensive set of operating rules, (preferably written down.). Impersonal relationship (none interpersonal relationship) should obtain both between members of the organization and between them and those whom it serves.
4) Offices and positions shall be hierarchical, each with specified privileges and responsibilities, and each knowing to whom he/she is accountable.
5) Appointment shall be based on merit

You need to note that each of the characteristics of bureaucracy listed here has at least one limitation, which could make the strict application of bureaucratic principles in organizations difficult. For instance:

1) over specialization could make competence on the subtask to become boring to perform.
2) there is a possibility of slavish adherence to rules
3) an organization where interpersonal relationship is not allowed can only cause lack of empathy and frustration on the part of members
4) where individuals feel blocked, they could resort to wasteful procedures aimed at maintaining their boundaries, rather than bureaucracy.
5) emphasis on merit in appointment could turn out to be detrimental to the organization, since it is highly difficult to define ‘merit’ with a high degree of objectivity. (See Ekpenyong, 2000, for more detailed analysis on this subject).

3.4.4 WEBER’S LEGACY

In spite of some objections here and there, the usefulness of Weber’s model of modern organizations can hardly be denied. For instance, the adoption of bureaucratic type of management by most formal organizations has helped them to grow and expand into complex systems. Rules relating to various aspects of organizational life have remained common practice in most modern organizations.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
Observe how your faculty is organized in terms of personnel relationship, rules and regulations. To what extent does its structure agree with the bureaucratic model put forward by Max Weber?

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has been devoted to examining theories of pioneer workers in the field of scientific and administrative management. While scientific management pioneers concentrated their ideas and experiments on how to improve the performance of individuals and mode of operation within organizations the administrative management pioneers focused their attention an ideas and approaches which would result in effective management of the entire organization.

5.0 SUMMARY

The classical school of management comprises two sub-areas, namely, scientific management, and administrative management approaches.

Taylor's pioneering work was on job design by which he used time and motion study to improve the performance of individual labourers.

Based on his experiments, Taylor formulated four principles of scientific management, with emphasis on finding one best way of executing jobs. Taylor made very important contributions to management including work measurement and goal setting.

Frank and Lillian Gilbreth conducted experiments which reduced the steps in laying bricks from 18 to 5 and improved workers' welfare and industrial efficiency. Henry Gantt produced task scheduling device (the Gantt chart) which provided managers a summary and means of understanding what amount of work scheduled for a given period of time could actually accomplished. The Gantt chart is still in use today in some manufacturing companies.

Henri Fayol has been described or the father of modern management in view of his enormous contributions to the field. Apart from identifying six business operations, he particularly analyzed management as a major organizational function.

He listed and described 14 management principles most of which are still applicable to modern managers.

Max Weber described three types of legitimate authority, namely, traditional, charismatic and legal-rational authority. Legal-Rational authority is suitable in a bureaucratic organization. Bureaucracy is based on a system of formal rules and regulations, hierarchical arrangement of positions, specialization and impersonal relationship. Various formal organizations are still based on bureaucratic structure.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1a. What do you see as the main difference between scientific and administrative management.

b. How relevant is Frederick Taylor's principle of 'a fair day's pay for a fair day's work in modern management?

2. Briefly discuss the contributions of the following to modern

   Frank Gilbreth
   Lilian Gilbreth
   Henri Gantt
   Henri Fayol
   Max Weber

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MODULE 1
UNIT 3: BEHAVIOURAL MANAGEMENT APPROACH

CONTENT

1. Introduction
2. Objective
3. Main content
4. Conclusion
5. Summary
6. Tutor-marked assignment
7. References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You would recall that we made you to understand the contributions of the two sub-schools of classical management. The scientific management movement led by Frederick Taylor, emphasized the importance of "one best way" of ensuring that individual employees made their best contributions to justify the wages they were paid. Administrative management group, emphasized organization structure as a means of ensuring organizational effectiveness. However, the human angle, that is how the individual workers felt as members in a work group, was not taken into consideration by them. This new line of thinking, which was based on some research findings, led to the emergence of another school of management thought generally referred to as the Behavioural School.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1) Understand the Behavioural approach to management
2) Assess the impact of Hawthorne studies on the emergence of Behavioural approach to management.
3) Appraise the contributions of Human Relations Movement to individual behaviour in organizations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH

It is not an exaggeration that as a school of thought, administrative management generally ignored the impact of human behaviour in an enterprise. However, some notable pioneers in the administrative management school actually recognized the potential importance of the individual workers. These included Mary Parker Follet and Hugo Munsterberg, a German psychologist Hugo Munsterberg published in 1913 what was to become a major reference source in industrial psychology.

KEY CONCEPT
The Behavioural school of management is focused on the potential importance of the individuals in the place of work

You should note at this point that what actually gave birth to the Behavioural School of thought was the series of experiments which were conducted at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company in Chicago USA between 1927 and 1932. The series of studies which were conducted at the plant are commonly referred to as the Hawthorne studies.

3.2 THE HAWTHORNE STUDIES

There were series of experiments that were conducted at the Hawthorne plant at the time. However, it is only two very important ones that have often been cited in management literature namely, the Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment; and the "Bank wiring observation Room Experiment".

a) The Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment

The purpose of Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment was to determine the extent to which intensity of lighting affected the efficiency of the workers as measured by the workers' output.

Two groups of 13 female workers were involved in the experiment. One set was the experimental group, while the other was the control group. The conditions of work for the experimental group were manipulated by the researchers, while the control group was allowed to work under the normal conditions of the company. Specifically the intensity of light for the experimental group was varied while that of the control group was not so manipulated.

OBSERVATION: Observations from the two groups showed that whatever new conditions were introduced, their productivity improved on equal basis. In fact the difference in the production levels of the two groups was nil. It was only at the point where the intensity of lighting was reduced to the point where they could no longer see that the production levels of the group ceased to improve.

Series of interviews were conducted to find explanations as to why production in the two groups continued to increase. The summary of the reasons given were as follows:

i. That the workers found the work in the test room enjoyable.
ii. That the cordial relationship between the supervisor and the women during the experiment made them to work freely, without fear of being intimidated.
iii. That the employees realized that they were privileged to be a part of an important experiment.
iv. That the workers developed strong interpersonal relationship as a group in the course of the experiment.

The research team which was led by Mayor (1949) arrived at the conclusion that human factors within the organization could have had effective influence production. It was on this account that the team decided that more research was needed to establish the impact of human factor within the organization. A key experiment in this direction was that of bank wiring room.

b) **The Bank wiring observation Room Experiment**:

The purpose of this experiment was to determine the impact of relationship in a group of workers. The study consequently centred on nine men who were placed on a group work incentive scheme and assigned to assemble terminal banks for use in telephone exchanges.

The assumption behind the study was that if workers were motivated only by money or pay each of the nine men would work as hard as possible to reach a target that would enable him to receive as much higher pay as possible. However, what the researchers discovered was that the group as a whole established their own acceptable standard of performance. Thus any member who produced below group standard was called a 'Chiseler' and pressured to produce in line with the group standard. In the same vein those who produced above the group standard were called "Rate Busters" and made to produce according to the group standard.

As in the first experiment, the researchers concluded that a series of social factors which managers did not know before were critical to the workers' productivity level. They did not only recognize the importance of social relationship in a work group, they also became aware that social or informal group pressure could affect workers' productivity level.

3.3 HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT

The findings from the Hawthorne studies brought about new ways of thinking about the workers; which in the process brought about the **Human Relations School** otherwise referred to as Movement. According to the Movement, classical schools of thought paid more attention to individual performance and productivity than to 'Human Relations' which recognized individuals as having their respective needs and motives which they take to the place of work. Thus when workers' needs are satisfied within the organization, their response to the organization becomes positive. This implies employee satisfaction and high productivity.

The Human relations school of thought recognizes the task context of work, the supervisor and other related factors, and finally the social context of work which the employee experiences. These include membership of the work group which the employee belongs, the satisfaction of his and other social needs, such as the need to be accepted and to be loved. The availability of these factors in their right proportions enables the workers to be satisfied and be productive. Writers who have been associated with human relations school include Chester Barnard (1981), Abraham Maslow and Douglas McGregor, whom we shall discuss under a different unit.

You have to note one of Chester Barnard's instructions that although people come together in organization to achieve those things they could not achieve alone, yet their personal goals must be satisfied by the organization. Handy (1981) and Rose (1975) have made critical discussions on Human Relations school; reading their contributions should be of interest to you.

CONTRIBUTIONS

As we have already indicated, the Human Relations School of management has made useful contributions to management today. For instance, while the classical management school saw employees as machines, the Human Relations School made managers to realize that they would gain more from their employees if those employees were treated as individuals that have needs that the organization has to provide. One of such needs is a conducive social working environment otherwise referred to as the social context of work.

Again the Movement brought to the awareness of managers that organizations have, in addition to formal work groups, informal group structures which often emerge where the social and other needs of the workers are not met.

On the negative side, the early Human Relations School has been criticized for overemphasizing the psychological context of work; and for paying too much attention to individual workers needs than to the task and other needs of the organization. At the time of its formulation, the Human Relations School's ideas excluded the role of industrial unions in trying to meet the individual and corporate needs of workers. In fact Elton Mayor, one of the leaders of Hawthorne studies has been criticized for assuming that unions might not be necessary if managements performed its administrative roles effectively,

Whatever may be said in the end, the fact remains that behavioural theories did open the way to the depth of understanding we have today about management of organizations.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT

i) What findings were made from the Relay Assembly Test Room and from Bank wiring Room experiments.

ii) How did the Human Relations Movement come about?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In view of the findings that were made at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company in Chicago, USA, in the early 1930s, it has become clear that recognizing the needs of the workers by management and giving them opportunity to use their initiatives can be very beneficial not only to their personal satisfaction but also to the organizational productivity.

5.0 SUMMARY

We started by stating that the concern of the Behavioural School of management is that the potential of the individuals are recognized and rewarded at the place of work.

Two of the many experiments that were conducted at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in America were to determine the effect of illumination on work performance. However, the findings turned out to show the importance of human relations and the influence of informal group relationship on individual's work performance.

The results of the findings at the Hawthorne plant gave rise to Human relations School of thought which came to emphasize the importance of human relationships in work groups. Among some of the best known pioneers were Maslow, Chester Barnard and McGregor. The work of Human Relations group has made modern behavioural management theorists to become more aware of the role of individual behaviour towards organizational effectiveness, and managers to strive to meet the needs of their employees. In fact contemporary or existing behavioural science takes a move complex view of determinants of job satisfaction and productivity. Really apart from the social context of work, we now know the role motivation and ability can play in determining human behaviour at work.

We also know now that what motivates individual may vary from person to person depending on their circumstances. Thus what motivates a top management staff may be different from that of a clerical officer. Salary will definitely rank first on the motivational scale of a Nigerian electrical officer, than it would be for a top executive

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED TESTS

1) How relevant is the issue of human relations to the management of Nigerian technical education institutions?
2a) Discuss the contributions of the Human Relations Movement to modern business organizations.
b) Are there any aspects of Human Relations School that are not in conformity with modern personnel management practice?

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MODULE: 1
UNIT 4: QUANTITATIVE SCHOOL

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The two schools of management thought we have so far treated rely mainly on theory and simple experiments as means of understanding, explaining or solving organizational and management problems. The school of thought we are concerned with in this unit relies mostly on using mathematical models in solving organizational and management problems, hence the term "quantitative school of management".

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1) List and discuss the branches of quantitative management thought
2) Discuss the purpose and context of management science
3) Explain the purpose and application of operations management
4) Explain the purpose of management information systems (MIS)

3.0 QUANTITATIVE SCHOOL

The quantitative school of management thought uses quantitative techniques that are mathematical calculations and concepts to solve management problems. The beginning of this school can be traced to the 2nd world war, when it became necessary to use scientific and mathematics models to solve military problems.
There are three branches of quantitative school of management. These are:

i) Management science
ii) Operations management; and
iii) Management information systems.

3.1 MANAGEMENT SCIENCE APPROACH

Management science or operations management has to do with the use of sophisticated mathematical and scientific tools and techniques to solve management problems and thereby enhance operational efficiency.

KEY CONCEPT

Management science or operations management involves the application of the scientific method to problems arising in the operation of a system, and the solving of these problems by applying mathematical equations representing the system.

Churchman, Ackoff and Ackoff

As the definition in the box shows, the purpose of adopting management science approach, for instance, by a manager is for him to decide how large a new plant might be. Such a model usually involves a number of equations relating to aspects such as projected production volume of the plant, construction cost per square meter, utility costs for plants of difference sizes. Solutions for these and similar issues would therefore, provide the manager with useful guidelines in deciding on the size of the plant he really requires.

Management science approach can be traced to the World War II when leading scientists were invited by the Allied Forces, to help solve complex operational problems that existed in the military. The scientists who were arranged in groups were eventually called Operation Research (OR) groups.

3.2 METHOD: Management science method involves the following:

i) Systematic observation of the system that its behaviour must be explained to solve the existing problem.

ii) Use of these specific methods to construct a generalized framework or model that would be consistent with the specific observations and which the consequences of changing the system can be predicted.

iii) Use of the model to establish how the system would behave under conditions that have not been observed, but could be observed if the changes were made.

iv) Testing the model by performing an experiment on the actual system to find out if the effects of the predicted changes using the model would actually occur when the changes are made.

3.3 APPLICATION OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCE

Since the end of the World War II, indications are that management science approach has been applied in many organizational and industrial settings (Aggarawal, 2002, Schumacher, 1997) to arrive at some important decisions or solve problems.

Management science has been used in analyzing large number of variables dealing with complex economic decisions. On the other hand it has been used in developing

mathematical very much enhanced by the use of the computer. In fact the use of personal computers has enhanced managers' interest in the use of tools and techniques of management science in their practice.
In specific terms, management science approach have been used by many companies to and applied to various management problems including production scheduling, product marketing. Organizations such as Delta Airlines and American Airlines use management science models to plan their flight schedules, to establish rate structure and maintenance periods.

Again, managers are known to use network models, probability and inventory models to aid their operational process. However these management science applications are yet to find a place in the management of TVE in Nigeria.

3.4 OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT

Operations management is more like, or extension of management science. This is because its main focus is on the various operations or processes that on organization use to transform its resources into finished products, goods or services.

Operations management decisions may involve the following:
1) Where a plant should be cited
2) How it should be arranged
3) The amount of inventory it should carry; and
4) How the finished products should be distributed.

A number of American-based multi-national organizations such as IBM, Black and Decker, as will as General motors are reputed to have successfully used operations management in their organizations.

3.5 MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM

Management Information System (MIS) represents the third-tier of the quantitative school of management. Management information system may be defined as an integrated manual and/or computer system that provides information to support the operations management and decision making functions of an organization (Appleby, 1994) institution of MIS in an organization involves planning to gather information from both internal and external sources and ensuring that before any such information is put into the MIS data base its usefulness has been reasonably evaluated.

All useful information is put in the machine in a readable form in order for files to be created, updated and manipulated by the computer.

Since it is not always possible to fully integrate all areas of organizational functions such as finance, marketing, human resource management and manufacturing into an MIS, separate planning models are usually recommended for each functional area, and to see that each of those functional areas use a common database, whenever it is possible to do so.

Available information shows that financial applications usually dominate the MIS usage in the USA. These include the following:

i) Cash flow analysis: Financial forecasting
ii) Balance sheet preparation: Profit planning
iii) iii) Long-term forecasts: Budgeting
iv) Sales forecast: Investment analysis
v) Financial analysis

You should note that the use of MIS in planning allows us to do the following;
i) Evaluate alternative long and short-term planning
ii) Effect financial projections and decision making; and
iii) Prepare reports and analyze relevant data methods that are available for manipulating data include mathematical models, linear programming, and econometrics, gave theory and cost benefit analysis.

3.6 MIS DATA AND TVE

The data areas which can easily be included in MIS data base include finance, student admission, examinations and graduation records. Personnel records including human resource management. However, while these records are available, their integration into the MIS is yet to be adopted by most Nigerian universities, polytechnics and colleges of education. A few institutions such as the university of Benin that have attempted in integrated student academic records are yet to achieve any significant success in the area.

3.7 IMPLICATIONS OF QUANTITATIVE APPROACH TO TVE

From what we have learned so far, the quantitative approach to management has made enormous impact in organizational planning and control, and in decision making. Most large organizations have come to rely on management science as important approach to capital budgeting, product scheduling, and marketing scheduling. In Nigeria quantitative approach is yet to find its place in the management of education generally and TVE in particular.

This situation arises because managers of academic institutions do not seem to very seriously pay attention to quantitative techniques in their management practice. A more plausible reason for not using quantitative techniques is that academic institutions are not profit oriented and therefore do not seem to have need to compete for their inputs (students).

However, one area where there is a strong need for academic institutions strive towards, the institution of MIS, in view of the impact of information and communication technology is beginning to have in tertiary education institutions and the need to efficiently deal with the various academic and personnel records that are regularly generated by these institutions.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
List the main points you have learnt about the three sub areas of quantitative school of management.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The quantitative school or management thought present a rather challenging but interesting perspective of managerial problem solving. In view of the fact that its application covers those complex organizational problems such as project planning, and forecasting of market and business trends, its usefulness as a management tool, can hardly be ignored.

5.0 SUMMARY

The quantitative school of management thought has three main branches, namely, management science, operations management and management information systems. Management science involves the application of the scientific method to solve problems which arise in the operation of a system, and the solving of such problems through the use of mathematical equations. Management science provides managers useful tool for solving problems which involve plant, construction cost, production scheduling, and forecasting of profit and decision making.

Operations management focuses on various operations or processes which an organization uses to transform its resources into finished goods.

Management information system is useful for the storage and making required inform available to various levels of management and for making management decisions.

6.0 TEACHER MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1a. What historical factor led to the emergence of quantitative approach to management?

b. List the areas of management that quantitative technique could be used in solving organizational problems?

2a. Explain why MIS is not popular in Nigerian TVE institutions?

b. Discuss the areas which MIS could be introduced in the Nigerian technical education institutions?

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MODULE: 1

UNIT 5: CONTEMPORARY MANAGEMENT THEORIES CONTENT

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objective
3.0 Main contents
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-marked assignment
7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The continuous search for more new approaches to understanding organizations, and clarifying issues relating to organization and management of enterprises have resulted in formulation of assorted assumptions and theories about management. Since these assumptions and theories are yet to attain the level of being rated as schools of thought they can only be rated as theories. In the field of management, the two most significant ones are the Systems Theory and Contingency Theory. Other less significant ones are Theory Z, and Management Excellence. As a student of organization and administration, acquiring knowledge of these theories, will provide you a sound background of the discipline as a whole, and how to apply same to technical and vocational education.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1) Understand the meaning and context of systems theory.
2) Understand the meaning and context of contingency theory
3) Understand the emerging trends in organization and management theories.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

As we mentioned in the introduction, several perspectives of management theories have emerged. However the ones to be discussed here include systems approach Contingency approach, Theory Z, and Management Excellence.

3.1 SYSTEMS APPROACH

The systems approach to management takes its origin from the general system theory. As reported by Ekpenyong (1997), Ludwig von Bertalanffy a physical scientist who worked on the areas of physics and biology is said to be the founder of general system theory. According to the theory, to understand the system as a whole one needs to understand the interdependence of its parts. Interdependence implies that it is the parts that make the whole and each part is related or dependent on the other.

One important point to note is that general system theory is built upon a combination of ideas that are drawn from various specialized areas of study so that the system as a whole could be easily understood.

Types of systems:

Systems theorists identify two types of system, namely, closed and open system.

A closed system is one which does not interact or which is not influenced by its environment with no staff position.

Some small schools, though rare now are where the proprietors or heads are solely in charge of administration, with no responsible role assigned to the teachers. Such organizations exemplify a closed system. An open system, on the other hand, is one with line and staff positions and the environment. In the education system, a school is constantly influenced by its environment for instance, the ministries of education, examining bodies, and the community.

A system consists of three components; namely, input, process and output. This will be discussed in more detail in another unit.

3.2 THE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

As is characteristic of all whole systems, a management system is composed a number of parts that function together in an interdependent basis.

The main components of a management system include:
a) Organizational input (resources)
b) Organizational production process c) Organizational output

Environmental factors such as government regulations, prospective students, and competitors (other educational institutions), employers of labour (customers), can have significant influence on the sub-system or the system as a whole.

3.3 CONTRIBUTIONS

The system theories have had important influence on the way modern organizations such as education may be analyzed. It is easy to determine the impact of environmental factors on any component or components of an organization. Again it is easy to determine the effect of quality or type of organizational resources on the production process, and the type or quality of output.

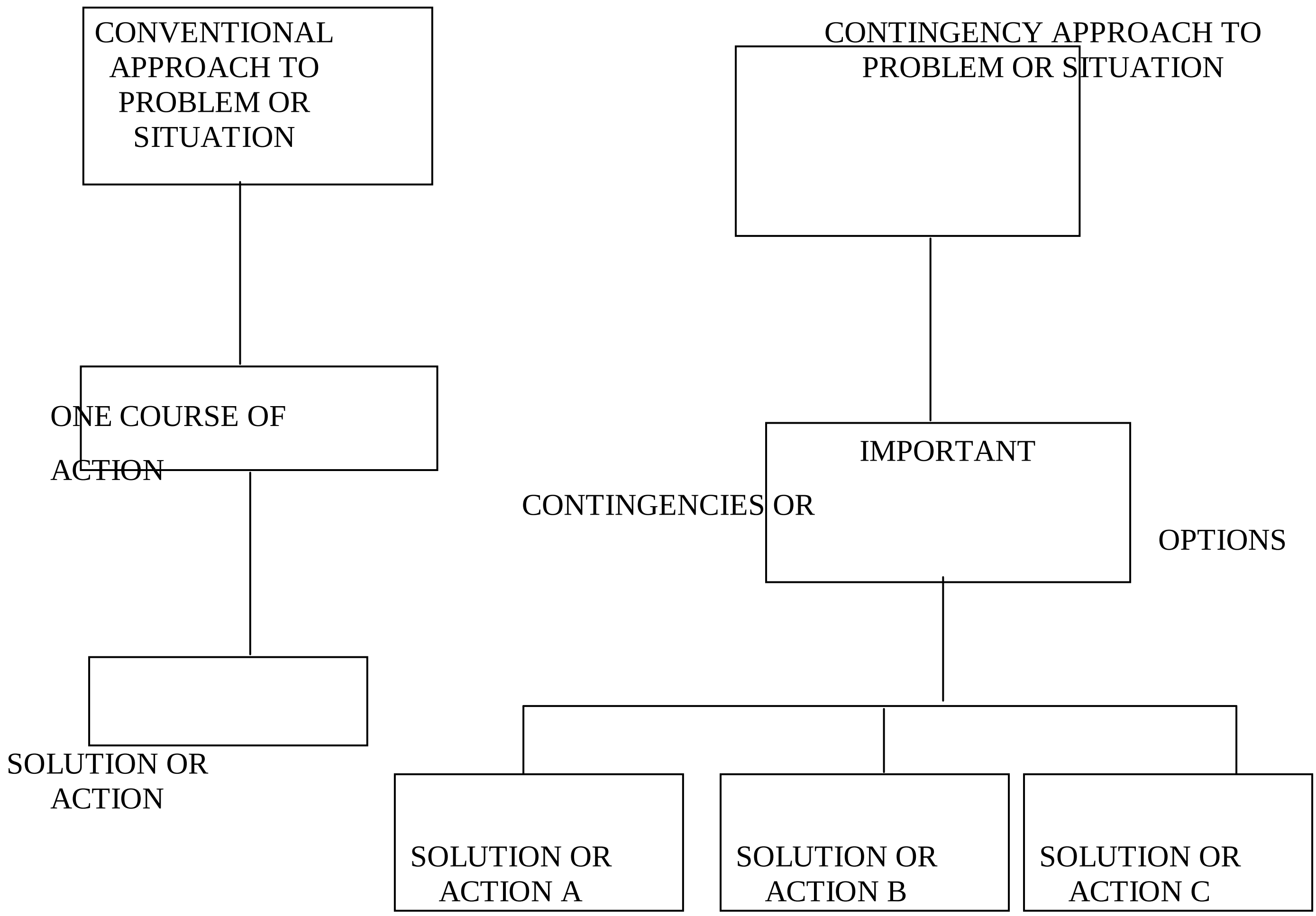
3.4 CONTINGENCY APPROACH

The contingency or situational approach to management appeared in the mid 1960s. Unlike the other management approaches which seek universal solutions to problems, the contingency approach looks for appropriate managerial answers to the problem.

KEY CONCEPT
Contingency theory maintains the position that appropriate managerial action in a situation is contingent or dependent upon certain major elements of the situation.

The conventional approach to problem situation relies on one best approach to the solution. On the other hand, the contingency approach generates options from which the most appropriate one to the solution of the problem or toward arresting the situation is adopted. The difference between the conventional and contingency approach is shown in the figure below.

FIG.M1/5.1: CONVENTIONAL AND CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO PROBLEM SOLVING



Contingency theory does not rule out the principle of “one best way”
of doing thing or solving problems, but is of the view that instances where only one best way is available for solving or approaching a problem could be very few indeed.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
What do you understand by a supra-and a sub system? What differentiates a system from a sub-system?

3.4.1 IMPORTANCE OF CONTINGENCY THEORY TO TVE

Contingency approach has been built into management and problem solving approach of several organizations. In general, as in technical education institutions a situations often arise which approaching their solutions based on established traditions could be detrimental to the image of the institution. For instance a sudden attack of severe illness on student would certainly not require the conventional approach to handling such case. To put it briefly, most emergency and unusual developments in an institution would require contingency or situational, rather than conventional solution approaches.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
From your experience which type of problem do think can be solved using the contingency approach

3.5 THEORY Z

Theory Z is one of the very new theories of management; it is regarded as a blend of the Japanese and American approach as to management. The theory was made popular in the early 1980s by Ouchi (1981).

Based on his observation of the Japanese success in business, Ouchi decided to study some American business organizations such as Hewlett-Packard, Kodak, and Proctor and Gamble, and to compare them with one Japanese companies.

Ouchi found from his study that most American firms followed a set of business practices which he referred to as Type A, the letter standing for American. He also found that the Japanese companies follow a set of business practices which he called type Z. (Z=Japanese).

The features of American firms include:
i) Short-term employment

ii) Individual responsibility for work iii) Specialized career path

For the Japanese companies he found the following features:

1) Life-time employment
2) Collective responsibility, and
3) Non-specialized career path.

Ouchi, however, found that most American firms did not use the common American approaches, but rather used modified approaches that picked the best approaches of the Japanese model (J) as well as aspects of American (A) where cultural factors determined the practice of these firms, which included long term employment, individual responsibility together with collective decision making.

In view of his findings, Ouchi recommended that both the Japanese and American models would lead to sound competition and successful business.

IMPORTANCE OF THEORY Z

Theory Z has gained some ground among organizational experts and business managers for example, Chrysler and Mead Merchants of America.

However, theory Z has not been emphasized in TVE management literature in Nigeria. One way of introducing theory Z to TVE in particular and tertiary and educational institutions, generally, is to study the best practices in education outside Nigeria and integrate such practices in our curricula.

The general reservation about theory Z is that in spite of its popularity, the research method used by Ouchi stands generally questioned (Certo, 1986).

SELF ASSESSMENT TESTS
1. *Summarise Ouch's theory Z*
2. *How did he arrive at this theory*

3.6 MANAGEMENT EXCELLENCE

Management excellence is another theory which was propounded in the 1980s by Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman. Their concern was based on the assumption that if a manager was to be effective, he/she must understand how the four management functions, namely, planning, organizing, influencing and controlling, must be practiced, and not just how they should be defined.

The two studied a number of American organizations such as Frito-Lay, Digital Equipment, 1BM and Walt Disney productions for several years.

They eventually concluded from their studies that the managers of those organizations had eight attributes in common. The eight attributes which are listed below can be found in their book "**In Search of Excellence** (1982) are produced below:

	ATTRIBUTES	**EXPLANATIONS**
1	A bias for action	A preference for doing something rather than sending questions through several cycles of analyses and committee reports.
2	Staying close to the customer	Breaking the corporation into small companies and encouraging them to think independently and competitively
3	Autonomy and entrepreneurship	Learning the customer's preferences and catering for them
4	Productivity through people	Creating in all employees the awareness that their best efforts are essential and that they will share in the rewards of the company's success.
5	Hands-on value drive	Insisting that executives keep in touch with the firm's essential business
6	Slick to the knitting	Remaining with the business the company knows best
7	Simple arm lean staff	Few administrative layers, few people at the upper levels
8	Simultaneous loose-tight properties	Fostering a climate where there is dedication to central values of the company combined with tolerance of all employees who do not accept those values.

Source: Courtesy of Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman. Jr (1982). In search of excellence Harper and Row Pub.

3.6.1 APPLICATION OF MANAGEMENT EXCELLENCE IN TVE

A close analysis of the concept of management excellence shows that it offers managers another opportunity or alternative way of assessing their organizations, particularly with reference to their structure and styles of administering them.

The application of the principles and attributes of management excellence can especially be adapted to technical and vocational institutions, but the difference in terms of the nature of its input, process and output that the manager of TVE institution is concerned with must be taken into consideration. On the other hand since management excellence has not really been proven through independent research as a 'grounded' theory, its application must be undertaken with care.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT
Summarise your view on management excellence as put forward by Peters and Waterman.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has provided you the different perspectives by which contemporary management theories have been conceived, namely, in terms of system, contingency theory, theory Z and management excellence. The conclusion to be drawn from all these theories is that no one theoretical perspective can provide a 'fool-proof' approach to the study and understanding of organizations and the best approach to managing them.

5.0 SUMMARY

We started the unit by identifying two types of systems, namely a closed system which, unlike the open system, does not receive input from its environment, and the open system. Every system has interdependent systems. A system comprises the input, operation and output processes. The systems theory presents managers alternative approach to organizational analysis.

Contingency theory considers that the approach to a problem or situation depends on which alternative to its solution is most appropriate in a given circumstance.

Theory Z seeks to combine the best practices of both the Japanese and America approaches with a view to adopting a much more ideal system of management.

Management excellence is based on the need to identify and select the best attributes that would enhance managerial efficiency.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1a. Differentiate between an open and a closed system, drawing your examples from modern technical colleges in Nigeria.

b. What are the main features of a management system.

2a. Differentiate between the conventional approach and contingency approach to problem solving

b. Which approach would you use in solving student riot in your college and why?

3. Assess the strengths and weaknesses of:

a) Theory Z;

b) Management excellence

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MODULE 2: STRUCTURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONS

UNIT 1: CONCEPTS AND TERMINOLOGIES CONTENT

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objective
3.0 Main contents
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-marked assignment
7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Achieving success in the study of organizations requires a clear understanding of some basic and essential concepts and terminologies. This unit seeks to expose you to those concepts and terminologies, which it is hoped will enhance your understanding of not only this unit, but the course as a whole.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1) erstand the contexts and features of organization
2) Understand what constitutes social boundary in organizations
3) Understand organizations and their relevant nomenclatures
4) Understand and appreciate the interrelatedness of the terms 'administration' and 'management'
5) Differentiate between purpose and objectives of organization
6) Understand the difference between educational and organizational objectives
7) Understand and appreciate the importance of organizational objectives

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 ORGANIZATION:

Writers on organization and organizational behaviour tend to present different definitions of the term 'organization'. However to simplify matters for you, let us give you two typical examples of situations that will enable you to understand and also be able to define or explain the term with ease, using two hypothetical situations.

3.2.1 SITUATION I

Take your mind back to one or two social occasions during which you or someone you know took part in arranging one or two events or activities to welcome new members, or to prepare an end of year party for the members. The effort to achieve the objective of the event or occasion must have involved the selection, and assignment of responsibilities to some individuals.

3.2.2 SITUATION II

Let use suppose that you have set up a small retail business with the name "Honey Well Ventures" of which you buy goods in bulk and sell in small quantities to your local consumers, for profit.

To meet the objective of the business you also go ahead to appoint a person who will be in charge of the day to day running of the business, and one or two others who will be in charge of keeping the accounts of the business, purchases and customer service.

3.3 EXPLAINING THE SITUATIONS

What you have done in each situation is that you have simply created an arrangement (or structure) and assigned responsibilities in a manner that would enable the persons concerned, in each case, to carryout their tasks effectively.

What the above illustrations show generally is that an organization is set up in order to bring about an arrangement of positions and responsibilities through which a group, an enterprise or an institution can carry out its work.

Following the illustrations above, we may define organization as follows: ***An arrangement or framework of the management process which is formed by defining the responsibilities by means of which the activities of an enterprise or institution are assigned among the members (personnel) that are employed by the enterprise or institution***

The members or personnel referred to in the definition may include various categories of staff comprising top and middle management, supervisory staff and operatives

An organization may also be seen as a framework of the management process for establishing formal interrelationship among the employees by virtue of their respective responsibilities (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996).

3.4 SOCIAL BOUNDARY

We may ask the question: What differentiates College A and College B?

The simple answer to this is their respective social boundaries. So one important point you need to bear in mind always about organizations is that every one of them has a social boundary (or membership) which gives it its individual identity. This explains why it is easy to differentiate between College A, and College B, even if they are located in the same area or premises. Aggarawal (2002:293) has tried to bring out this aspect in his definition of organizations. He states as follows:

An organization is a consciously coordinated social identify with a relatively identifiable boundary that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set objectives.

The term "socially coordinated" is used to mean that an organization is managed and controlled while "social identity" implies that an organization is made up of people or a group of people who interact with each other.

"Relatively identifiable boundary" indicates the existence of a boundary or artificial unseen dividing line which differentiates members and non-members, the organization and other organizations. Finally, the term" continuing bond", implies that so long as they remain employees of the organization, individuals in the organization continue to participate in the work of the organization.

3.5 ORGANIZATION AND NOMENCLATURE

Enterprises such as banks and government establishments are sometimes referred to as organizations. Educational and reformative establishments (e.g., prisons) are commonly referred to as institution (Etzioni, 1975). These nomenclatures come about because most formal organizations have common framework or mode of arrangement. We shall use the term organization as substitute for the actual names of the establishments referred to in the text - when it is convenient to do so.

3.6 ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

The term **administration** may be understood in two ways:

i) As activities of those in the higher level of management who determine major aims and policies, for example, top government officials, such as permanent secretaries and others of comparable ranks.
ii) As the control of the day to day running of an organization. This definition is used in a more restricted sense than the first.

A more applicable definition of administration is that it is that part of management process which is concerned with the institution and carrying out of rules or procedures by which the programme is laid down and communicated, and progress of activities is regulated and checked against target or plan (see Appleby, 1994).

The term **management** on the other hand may be understood as:

i) Those at the top level of organization who direct and control conduct of the organizational activities.
ii) The profession or body of knowledge concerned with the theory and practice of managing
iii) The process of combining human efforts and material resources to achieve defined goals.

In other words, management is a process which human effort (e.g., that of a manager, vice chancellor, provost or rector) is used to achieve organizational goals. In simple terms therefore, management involves the process of deciding what to do, how to do it, who to do it, and when to do it (Coontz and O'donnel, 1980).

While administration generally involves following rules and procedures, which is also what management entails, management efforts fall within the following four areas:

Planning: Choosing tasks that have to be performed to attain organizational goals, outlining how the tasks are to be performed.
Organizing: The process of assigning tasks that were developed during planning process to different groups or members of the organization. By organizing we create mechanisms by which plans are put into action.
Influencing: This is a process of guiding the activities of members of a group or organization to perform their task effectively by leading and directing their activities using appropriate motivational techniques.
Controlling: Controlling involves gathering information that is needed to measure recent performance within the organization, comparing present performance in relation to pre-established standard; and deciding whether the previous performance standard should be altered or modified. Controlling is normally seen as a manager's continuing or on-going management process (Certo, 19, 94, Carnall, 1990).

It might be interesting to note too that Mintzberg (1973) outlines administrative functions to include planning, organizing, influencing, and controlling, among others.

Going by the definitions and explanations we have made in respect of administration and management, and a further literature search (for example, Ifedili, 2004) the dividing line between the two concepts appears rather narrow. However the use of the term 'management' is becoming more popular in management literature than the former. For our purpose, while ‘administration’ will be used in specific cases the term ‘management’ will be used more frequently in this book.

3.7 PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

Two terms which are often used in relation to organizations are purpose and objective.

Purpose: This defines the general intention of an organization. For instance, the purpose of a polytechnic may be to provide high quality technological education to the students. Whether the purpose will be achieved or not depends on various factors such as:

a) Availability of high quality dedicated and well motivated staff
b) Availability of the required physical structures and instructional facilities.

On the basis of the above conditions, organizational purpose may be defined as what the organization sets out to do.

KEY CONCEPT Purpose defines what an organization sets out to do

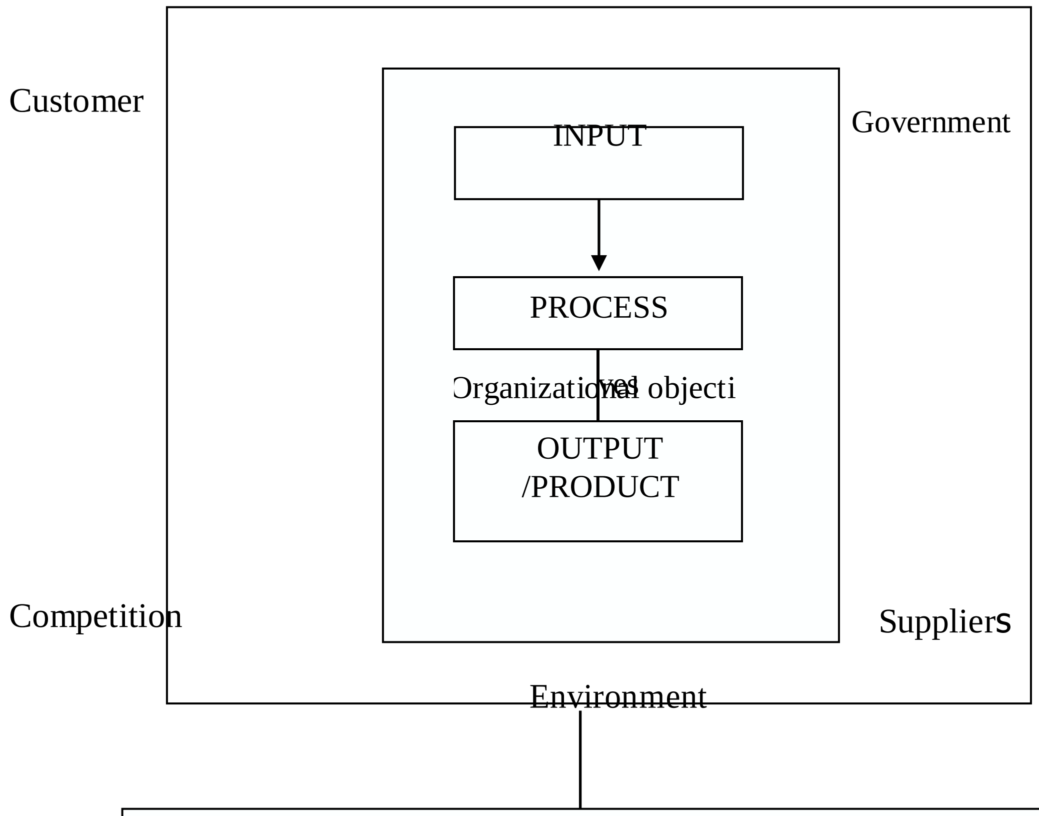
3.8 OBJECTIVES:

In education discipline the attainment of instructional or learning objectives is determined by the proper arrangement of contingencies or factors of learning, namely, appropriate instructional plan, human resource (teacher, technologist, demonstrator), and material resources (teaching aids).

In general management of organizations, as in education, organizational objectives are sometimes interchanged with goals, that is, targets toward which input (raw materials, skills etc), process or operational process (conversion) and output or product exists meet the stated organizational objectives.

The following illustration should make the point clearer to you. In other words inputs must be processed to bring about the output, and that the quality, type or quantity of output determines the level of objective or goal achievement (fig. M2/1).

Fig. M2/1: INPUT, THROUGHPUT AND OUTPUT OF GOAL ACHIVEMENT



Fixing your objectives is the identifying of the North Star - sight your compass on it and then use it as the means of getting back on track when you go astray.
Marshall E. Dimock

Source: Courtesy Certo, S.C. Principles of Modern Management William. C. Brown Pub., 1986

You must not forget that every organization such as the National Open University of Nigeria is set up to achieve certain goals. The University is established to provide knowledge and skills to the students in various disciplines. Business organizations exist to provide various types of goods and services to their customers and clients.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
As a TVE teacher, what would Dimock's statement mean to you, when you are assigned three or more tasks which you are to deliver before the end of office hours?

3.9 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Whether as a student leader or as a prospective teacher, school or business manager, it is important to note that organizational objectives can provide you an invaluable guidance in the following areas:

- decision making
- increase in personnel and work efficiency
- making performance evaluation which is useful in personal and organizational improvement.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The following conclusion is drawn about this unit: that a clear understanding of the concepts of organization and management, purpose and objectives, should enable you the student to develop interest in the course as a whole.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have explained that people or groups of people set up organizations in order to create an arrangement of positions and responsibilities through which their enterprises or institutions can carry on their work. We have defined the concepts of administration and management and decided that the two terms will somehow be used interchangeably in this book.

We defined organizational purpose as what an organization sets out to do, given certain conditions. Thus if such organizations are not available, the purpose of the organization may not be achieved. Organizational objectives have been defined as the targets (or goals) towards which inputs, operation process and outputs are directed.

Finally, organizational objectives derive from organizational purpose.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. How would you illustrate what is meant by organization to a non-management student in your college?
2. Why is it difficult to show a distinction between the terms administration and administration?
3. Differentiate between purpose and objectives of organization?

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MODULE 2

UNIT 2: TYPES OF ORGANIZATION CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Writers on organization are not agreed on a single way of classifying organizations. For instance one of America's renowned sociologists and writers on organizations, Amitai Etzioni, divides organizations into three types, each according to the structure of authority as power it has on its members. The three types of organizational author or power include the following:

1) **Coercive Authority:** This is the type of authority used in prisons and detention camps to secure the compliance of occupants to rules.
2) **Utilitarian Authority:** This type of authority is used in industrial and business enterprises to achieve compliance of member. Compliance of members is achieved through rewards, incentives and sometimes through legal action.
3) **Normative Authority:** This form of authority is said to apply to organizations such as universities and churches; for example, compliance of members is based on appeal power and moral suasion (Etzioni, 1961; Argyle, 1969).

In view of the rather complex nature of classification and analysis of organization by Etzioni, a more simplified classification is being presented in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1) Differentiate between business and non-business organizations
2) Differentiate between formal and non-formal (or informal) organizations

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Organizational functions may involve business and non-business activities

3.1 BUSINESS RELATED ORGANIZATION

Business or business related organizations are established primarily to make profit by their owners. In other words, the establishment of a business organization, be it a sole proprietorship, partnership, or public, is driven by the motive to make profit and of course to create wealth in a nation. Government establishments can also be described as business, but their main focus is to offer service some of which may be relatively free to the citizens. Such services include water, electricity, health, education, and so on. The business of government establishments largely involves offering service to the public; hence these establishments are generally classified under public sector organizations. Private organizations, whether they are corporate, partnership or privately owned, fall under what is normally referred to as private sector organizations.

3.2 NON-BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS:

Usually referred to as Non-Governmental organizations (NGO), non-business organizations are created to offer a variety of services to the communities, particularly in those areas where government effort is limited or non-existent. In other words, the main objective of NGOs is to provide service in specific areas of concern which governmental organizations do not or can only provide partial assistance to those in need. Such services may be by way of civil, educational or health assistance or economic empowerment, among others.

Some notable civil organizations in Nigeria include the Red Cross Society, Boys Scouts and the Boys Brigade. Some of the international NGOs which have made significant contributions to the educational, social and economic development of Nigeria through financial donations and human resource development include the British council, UNESCO, United States Agency for International Development (USAID). There are also some local NGOs in Nigeria, some of which include Environmental Watch, Friends of the Earth, Civil Liberty Organization and similar organizations whose concerns are on environmental and human right issues. Apart from the ones mentioned here, the impact of other local NGOs is not as widespread as the international ones.

It is important to note that traditionally NGOs are not profit, but service oriented. They usually rely on grants from philanthropists and donor agencies to fund their activities.

The organization structure of non-business organizations is not usually as complex as those of business organizations. Some of them have governing boards or board of trustees which provide policy direction for meeting their respective goals.

3.3 FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

A formal organization is one which is based on a formally created arrangement or structure of jobs and positions with clearly defined functions and relations.

A formal organization is the type which job positions and responsibilities are arranged hierarchically and with clearly defined roles and relationships. Another aspect of the definition cited by Aggarawal (2002:296) states that a formal organization is:

A system of coordinated activities of a group of people working towards a common goal under authority and leadership.

Characteristically, the activities of members are deliberately coordinated through recognized levels of leadership, for the purpose of achieving stated objectives. You may wish to note that all government, corporate and educational establishments fall under formal organization; consequently, a technical college is established to impart knowledge and technical skills to its students. Such a college, like other formal organizations, has to develop a formal structure of administrative staff, and faculties with well defined roles and activities to be performed by them, if it must achieve its goals.

3.4 FEATURES OF A FORMAL ORGANIZATION

Formal organizations are identifiable through the following features:

1) They are consciously designed,
2) They provide for the specialization of members
3) Their functions are based on delegation of authority
4) The relationship of members of formal organizations is expected to be an ideal type, with the authority, responsibility and accountability of each level clearly defined.
5) Formal organizations are based on the principle of unity of command which is expected to be observed by members;
6) Relationship in formal organizations is expected to be impersonal;
7) Roles and relationship are guided by organizational chart

It should be noted that most of the role expectations of formal organizations, such as impersonal relationship, do not generally apply in practice (Ekpenyong, 2000).

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Do you agree with the view that impersonal relationship is difficult to maintain in a formal organization?
Comment

3.5 NON-FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

Non-formal organizations are usually associated with work groups and are sometimes referred to as informal organizations.

Before we continue to explain further, read the case study in the box below.

A class prefect assigned some manual work to his class which he broke into two groups, A, and B. The work was to be completed in 40 minutes.
In group A, the students worked without any complaint, and the work was completed on schedule.

In group B, two influential students got up and told the group members why they should not spend their energy in finishing the work on schedule. Their advice was embraced by the group so the work could not be completed on schedule.

It happened that whenever assignment or issues arose, the student were always ready to stand by or take the advice of the two students rather than that of their class prefect.

Explanation: What can be observed in group B is that two of the peers have emerged as informal leaders and the students are more ready to take instruction from them rather than from their class prefect. In the process of working and relating closely with one another, the students in group B tend to have developed a culture and social structure which have given rise to social cohesion among them.

By culture is meant those organizationally relevant norms and values that are shared by most members of say, employees or work groups.

Social structure on the other hand refers to the existing relationships among groups or employees. These may include areas such as affiliation, trust and power.

From the above illustration and explanations, **an informal organization may be defined as a network of groups which emerge as evidence of human aspect of an organization.**

There is a general saying that beneath the surface of every formal relationship in every institution, there exists a more complex system of social relationship: this is what constitutes an informal organization.

Informal organizations are identifiable through the following features:

1) The organization arises spontaneously.
2) It is based on personal attitudes, emotions, likes and dislikes that are used to create group norms
3) It is a means of desiring social satisfaction by the members.
4) Non-formal organization remains an integral part of the total organization; management cannot eliminate it.
5) It has no place on the organizational chart
6) It is an important network of personal and social relations
7) It has its own rules, norms and traditions
8) It is indefinite, hence it has no structure.

As an integral part of the total organization, the existence of information should not be taken for granted by managers. It should rather be used to enhance organizational effectiveness. This could be done by ensuring that job satisfaction and complaints of staff are given prompt and adequate attention. Again, where the existence of the informal group is evident in an organization, management can tap from their resources to improve communication flow, and other activities of the establishment.

The adoption of consultation approach becomes very important here, because where the power of the informal groups is not properly channeled towards the efficiency of the formal organization, it may cause disruption to the smooth running of the organization, thereby resulting in high operational cost.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Having gone through the content of this unit, what can be said in conclusion is classification of an organization into its functional areas is a useful approach to categorizing organizations.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has presented to you four types of organizations namely, business, non-business (or nongovernmental) formal and non-formal organizations.

Business organizations are usually established for profit making purpose.
Non-business or non-government organizations are those organizations which are established for the purpose of offering humanitarian service, usually to the less privileged groups. NGOs usually fund their programmes through grants and donations from government, local and international agencies.

Formal organizations: These are based on formally created arrangement or structure and positions with clearly defined functions and relationships. Formal organizations have a number of features which, among others, include consciously structured jobs and responsibilities, impersonal relationship and delegation of authority.

Non-formal organizations are those social relationships, culture and norms that develop outside the formal organizational rules and standards. Non-formal organizations develop spontaneously. Some of the features of non-formal organization include building of social networks among group members, development of rules of work and work behaviour outside that of the formal organization. Consultation and positive relation between the formal and the informal organization is needed to foster harmony within the system.

6.0

TUTOR MARKED ASSESSMENT

1a) Differentiate between formal and informal organization

b) Show the main differences between business and non business organizations

2) How may harmony be brought about between the formal and informal organization of a business education department of a college of education?

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MODULE 2

UNIT 3 SYSTEMS APPROACH TO THE ANALYSIS OF TVE ORGANIZATIONS

CONTENT

1.0 **INTRODUCTION**

In Unit 4 of Module 1, you were introduced to the systems theory which can be described as interrelated elements that function as a whole. You also learned that a system always receives four types of inputs which include human, physical, financial and informational resources. We also drew a sample model which demonstrates what constitutes input, process and output. This was to prepare your mind towards using the systems model for organizational analysis.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

The objective of this unit is to use the systems approach for analyzing educational institutions with particular reference to Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) organizations.

3.0 **MAIN CONTENT**

3.1 DEFINING TVE AND LEVELS OF TVE INSTITUTIONS For your clear understanding of the educational system, we are about to analyze, using the systems approach. It is pertinent to define it. According to Ekpenyong (2005:20):

Technical and Vocational Education is a comprehensive term which refers to the educational process, when it involves in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life.

Technical and Vocational Education is offered at three levels namely:

1) Prevocational (JSS) level: The intention is to introduce the learners to the general or broad-based field of technology and business.
2) Vocational Level: TVE at this level is purely vocational and it is intended to train artisans and students who may wish to further their education in TVE disciplines. This form of education is tenable in technical colleges and institutions of similar status and purpose.
3) Technical Level: TVE at this level is technically referred to as **'Technical Education'**, and is offered at two levels, namely, middle level at which the purpose is to prepare technicians and middle management. The level of award is the National Diploma or equivalent qualifications. TVE at the higher level e.g. degree or HND level is intended to produce engineers, technologists and equivalent higher level management personnel.

3.2 WHY SYSTEMS APPROACH:

An important question to answer is why we use systems approach to analyze TVE organizations. It should be emphasized that every management system, be it government or educational organization, is composed of a number of interdependent parts that function together for the purpose of achieving defined or set goals. Every management system has organizational inputs, process (throughput) and outputs. As was discussed in Unit 2; these parts include relevant resources, production process and output (Certo, 1994; Luthans, 1986; Huse, 1980).

From the above explanation, the system approach is an attempt to provide managers of TVE, like those of other educational organizations, a way of looking at itself as a complete whole.

In practical terms, you may wish to perceive TVE organization as a chain with linking pins. Thus, any part of the chain where the link is broken, affects the organization as a whole.

Theoretical Basis of Systems

As indicated by Ekpenyong (1997: 276) two groups of social thinkers referred to as functionalists and system theorists are recorded as having influenced the way we understand what a system is.

The functionalists led by Boulding (1956), differentiate between biological and social systems. They argue that social organizations seek to satisfy their survival and adaptation needs through a pattern of interdependence between their parts.

The general system theorists, among whom the best known is Von Bertalanffy (1950), emphasize the similarities which occur in different types of relationships, whether it is a machine or organization.

The open systems theorists' most important idea is that which suggests that the relation between systems is best expressed in terms of inputs, throughput (operation) and output.

In an attempt to bring together the two theoretical perspectives of systems, the term social system is generally used to describe the organizations. A further dimension to the definition of a social system is provided by Kast and Rosenberg (1979):

***An organized, unitary whole composed of two or more independent parts, components or subsystems and delineated by identifiable boundaries from its environmental supra-system*.**

A supra-system is the macro or largest aspect of a system and consists of a series of interrelated and interdependent systems.

Example of a Supra System: Taken generally, all secondary schools in Nigeria may be described as a supra-system. However, all the secondary level educational institutions in Nigeria can be identified as senior and junior secondary schools, or technical schools. Each of these has departments, sections, units, e.t.c.

KEY CONCEPT

In systems thinking, an organization can be seen as a chain with pins to link up the different segments. Any part of the chain of which the pin is broken will automatically affect the entire chain.

3.3 KATZ AND KHAN'S APPROACH

As a student of business education or organization behaviour, you may be called upon to analyze an organization such as TVE. To do so, you will need to know that other approaches also exist for analyzing organizations as systems. This is apart from using the

INPUT→THROUGHPUT→OUTPUT APPROACH

One such approach was developed by Katz and Khan (1978). However, you need to understand the principles, which govern their approach to system analysis. The principles are that:

i) an organization is an energetic input-output system that is usually open in its interaction with the environment.
ii) All open systems are characterized by the following:
a) an input of energy from the environment;

b) a throughput or transformation of the imported energy into some product form;
c) an output through which the product is exported back into the environment;
d) a re-energizing of the system from sources in the environment;
e) negative entropy which helps the system to survive by importing more energy from the environment that is expended.

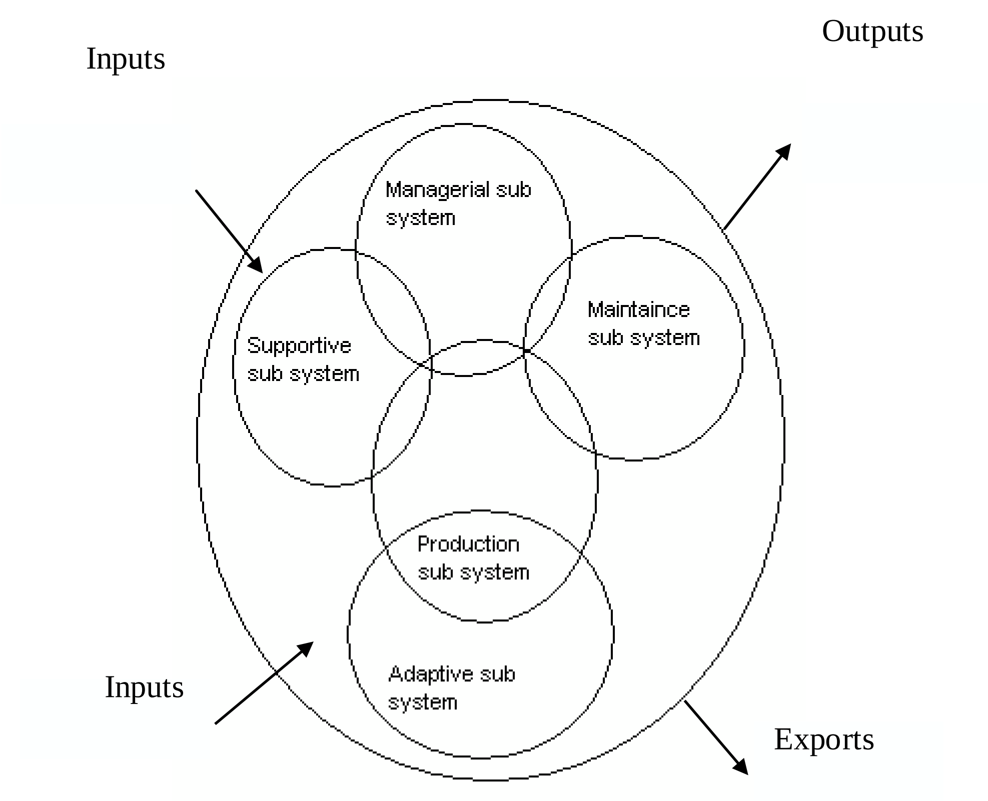
3.4 KATZ AND KHAN'S SYSTEMS MODEL

In line with their systems' principles, Katz and Khan (1978) have developed a model, which consists of five different interrelated subsystems, which exist within a larger environment or suprasystem. These include the following:

- product or technical subsystems;
- supportive subsystems;
- maintenance subsystems;
- adaptive subsystems;
- managerial subsystems.

The model is shown in the Figure M3/2.1

]Fig.M3/2.1: **KATZANDKHANMODELOF A SYSTEM (Generic Subsystems of a larger system)**



Source: Courtesy, Katz and Khan

SELF-ASSESSMENT

From the key thought in the box above, which aspects of the chain can be described as: a) whole; b) system or subsystem?

3.5 PRODUCTION OR TECHNICAL SUBSYSTEMS

The production subsystems involve the operation transformations, which are the major functions of the systems such as manufacturing, education and health. TVE, which is a subsystem within the educational systems, has responsibility of receiving inputs such as teachers, expertise, instructional materials such as books and other resources for the purpose of transforming (e.g. teaching) in order to produce the graduates from the system.

3.6 SUPPORTIVE SUBSYSTEMS

Supportive subsystems construct their transactions with the environment by either obtaining the inputs or disposing the outputs of the system. In VTE such supportive subsystems include the parents/guardians' funding or other agencies, which are responsible for providing the infrastructure and other resources necessary for transformational activities of the systems. Supportive subsystems also include employers of labour or other agencies that normally take part in the utilization of the products of the system.

3.7 MAINTENANCE SYSTEMS

While not directly concerned with transformational activities, maintenance subsystems provide the support for getting the work done. Maintenance subsystems in TVE would normally include proprietors of the system, for instance, government and governmental agencies, ministries and boards that are responsible for examination, entry and certification of the products of the system. Examples include JAMB, WEAC, NECO and NABTEB.

3.8 ADAPTIVE SUBSYSTEMS

Like other organizations, educational institutions seek to survive in their changing environments by seeking ways to adapt to these environments. In TVE, such adaptive subsystems would include boards and committees such as disciplinary committees, the Parents/Teachers Associations and related adaptive subsystems which are intended to ensure that the conducts of students and staff conform to what is prescribed by the organization.

3.9 MANAGERIAL SUBSYSTEMS

All the organized and official activities meant to control, coordinate and direct the system is governed by the managerial subsystems. Managerial subsystems of formal organizations in VTE would include all the mechanisms meant to maintain the organizational structure and regulate the functions of the system. The regulating mechanisms may include policies on student admission, channels of communication and personnel matters such as staff salaries and conditions. In the polytechnics for instance, the academic boards are essential part of the managerial subsystems.

3.10 ADVANTAGES OF THE MODEL

Some of the advantages of the Katz and Khan model are that it is easy to identify the roles of each of the five subsystems and how their roles interact and influence those of the other subsystems and affect the system as a whole.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Try to list the five subsystems and assess how useful they could be if you were to adopt them to analyze your local technical college.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The conclusion to be drawn from this unit is that unlike the classical and behavioural science approaches, the systems approach provides a unique means of assessing the effectiveness of organizational activities through the feedback that can be got from the input, transformation and the output stages.

5.0 SUMMARY

In order to achieve the objective of the unit, we started by defining TVE comprehensively and then more restrictively. In systems context, TVE systems seek to satisfy their survival and adaptation needs, through the process of interdependence. The general systems theorists state that the relationship between systems is best expressed in terms of input, throughput and output.

Katz and Khan (1978) state that based on the characteristics of systems an organization can be said to have five interrelated subsystems, namely, product or technical subsystems, supportive subsystems, maintenance subsystems, adaptive subsystems and managerial subsystems. TVE systems can, therefore, be analyzed using the five-subsystem model.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Show how the training of students could be explained by means of inputs, process and output systems.
2. Explain how the open systems approach may be used to show the relationship between a technical school system and the supra-system.

7.0 REFERENCES

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MODULE 2

UNIT 4: THE ORGANIZING FUNCTIONS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objective
3.0 Main Content
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assessment
7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit, we defined and discussed the features and relevance of systems theory to the analysis of organizations, particularly, technical and vocational education. The systems theory has provided you the opportunity to understand the interrelationship between systems and subsystems of organizations. However, the mode of organizing and how organizations are structured to achieve set goals are yet to be explained in details.

As a follow-up to what you have learned in the previous unit, this unit is to provide you the opportunity to learn about the organizing functions.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Understand the nature of organizing function
2. Understand the process of organizing
3. Discuss the relevance and process of delegation
4. Apply the principles of delegation
5. Understand the conditions for effective delegation
6. Assess the obstacles to effective delegation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZING

Whether in your youth organization, young farmers club or any similar organization, some organizing activities must have gone on there to enable you achieve the goal of the group. However, if I were to ask what organizing means, each and every one of you would probably come up with different definitions or explanations.

For the purpose of this unit, let me present two related definitions of organizing to you.

1. Organizing is a means of creating the structure of relationship among individuals in order to make the best use of the organization's best resources to achieve set goals (Appleby, 1994; Aggarawal, 2002).
2. Organizing may also be defined as the process of establishing orderly use of all resources within management system (Certo, 1985).

The point that you should note about the definitions is that they emphasize the need to organize groups such as teachers or the workers for the purpose of making judicious use of organization's resources because resources (e.g. money, equipment) are investments which management must make returns. For example, you cannot establish a new polytechnic and recruit staff without adopting a process for assigning them to relevant responsibilities within the system and its subsystems. Organizing can be done using five or more steps. Certo lists five steps which organizing function can be handled as follows:

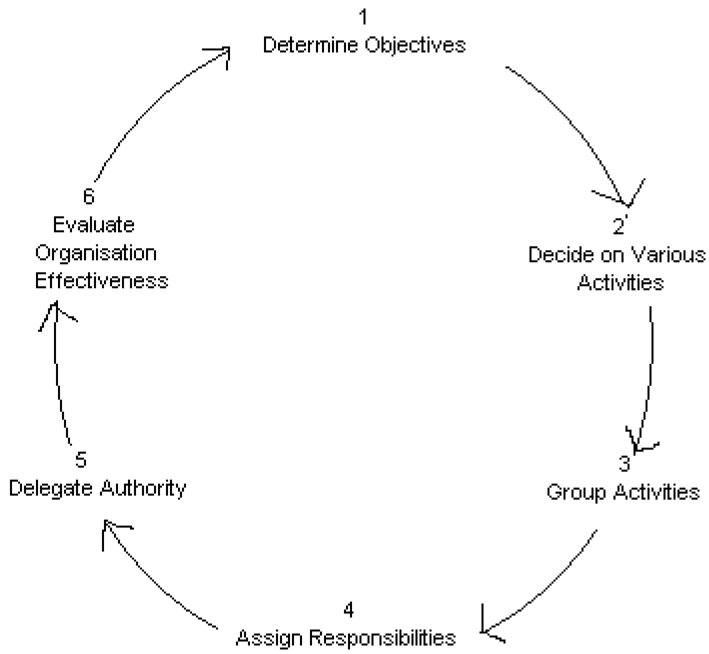
i. Reflecting on the plans and objectives of organizing ii. Establishing major tasks.
iii. Dividing major tasks into sub-tasks.
iv. Allocating resources for sub-tasks;
v. Evaluating the results of the implementation of organizing strategy.

You may also adopt the following steps for organizing your system. Let us further outline the steps:

1) **Determine Objectives**: Clarify why the organization has been set up and then decide on the nature of work to be accomplished through the organization;
2) **Decide on Various Activities**: To achieve the objectives, divide the process of organizing into functions and the specific functions to be performed by individuals. The division of work or job functions may be based on specialization, experience, special ability or any other consideration.
3) **Group Activities:** Group work on the basis of similarity or relatedness under relevant departments, divisions, sections or units. You may group activities on the basis of organizational policy, coordination or use, as the case may be.
4) **Assign Responsibilities:** Assign specific job responsibilities to specific persons or subordinates to ensure effective performance and accountability. The principle of the right person for the right job should be followed.
5) **Delegate Authority:** The responsibility given to a subordinate should be backed up with appropriate authority in order to enable the occupant discharge his/her duty without hindrance or ambiguity.
6) **Evaluate Effectiveness:** Evaluate effectiveness of the organization through effective monitoring of performance. This allows for possible adjustment where necessary.

Effective organizing requires that the environment of work and the facilities needed for the purpose are duly provided. The six-step process is illustrated on the Fig M2/4.1 below:

Fig. M2/4.1: SIX STEPS TO ORGANIZING



SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Explain what would have happened if there were to be a difference between the goals of your school club and your personal goal, during the organizing process?

ORGANIZING AS a SUB-SYSTEM: Note that organizing function can be described as a sub-system. This idea is derived from the understanding that the purpose of the organizing system is to enhance the goal attainment of the general management system. You may wish to refer to the unit on systems theory to refresh you memory.

3.2 THE PROCESS OF DELEGAION

In view of its relevance, let us elaborate more on the principles and process of delegation. It is obvious that chief executives of various organizations are usually saddled with enormous responsibilities for task accomplishment. In order for them to meet targets and goals, they have to delegate, that is, assign some of their responsibilities to their subordinates. This then allows managers to concentrate on more pressing or important management tasks.

PERSONAL ASSIGNMENT

Suppose you are a class teacher and your head teacher calls and assigns you the task of handling student disciplinary matters on a quarterly basis. If a class of students embarks on class boy-cut because of what they consider as high-handedness by one of the staff:

a) Would you consider it necessary to handle the case yourself or to report to the head teacher?

b) Why would you consider either of the alternatives?

From the explanation so far made, we can define delegation of authority in relation to defined functions or tasks from a superior to a subordinate. It entails the empowerment of an employee or subordinate to act for the superior or manager. Note that in all cases of delegation of authority, it is the officer or manager who effected the delegation of authority that is to take responsibility for the outcome of such delegation and not the subordinate. By way of a simple definition, therefore, delegation of authority is the downward transfer of authority in relation to defined functions or tasks from a superior to a subordinate. It entails the empowerment of an employee to act for his/her superior or manager, while the delegator takes responsibility for the outcome arising from the subordinate's action on the assigned functions or tasks.

3.3 THE DELEGATION PRINCIPLES

Two principles govern delegation. The first concerns the nature of task to be delegated. The second is concerned with the person to whom the function or task is to be delegated.

NB: It is not all tasks that are to be delegated, but the manager has to decide who is to perform a particular task. However, the guidelines or key points for effective delegation of authority are provided in the Box below.

KEY POINTS DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

1) Delegate those tasks that the subordinates can perform better than others.
2) Delegate tasks that are not critical to the manager or superior's performance.
3) Delegate tasks that can provide valuable experience to the subordinate.
4) Delegate tasks that the subordinate shares the same set of values with you.
5) Delegate tasks that the subordinates have the relevant information and experience to perform.
6) Delegate authority to dependable subordinates.

3.4 .CONDITIONS FOR DELEGATION

The following conditions are to be met to allow for effective delegation of authority:

1. The scope of delegation must be clearly defined. That is, the scope of the subordinate's responsibility, authority and accountability together with the expected result must be clearly spelt out. In addition, goals and deadlines are to be stated.
2. As soon as it has been established whom the delegation of tasks is to be assigned; the relevant sections of the organization should be duly informed. This leaves staff in no doubt as to who has been so delegated.
3. To encourage commitment on the part of the staff at the lower level of organization, most aspects of the job should be delegated to the deserving ones among this level of workers.
4. To avoid frustration on the part of those to whom authority has been delegated, the position should not be taken away from them or re-assigned to others, except where it is absolutely necessary.
5. Assignment of authority should go with commensurate responsibility. In other words, managers should ensure that their subordinates take responsibility and accountability for their actions. Where responsibility is not emphasized, it becomes difficult to hold the subordinate for his action.
6. Managers should give their subordinates freedom to use their initiatives and creativity in solving problems. Too much control can inhibit the subordinate's effort in discharging their delegated authority.
7. To ensure the success of the subordinate, the manager and the subordinate should from time to time evaluate the rate of success of the delegation and to set goals.

Finally, it is advisable for managers and all those who delegate authority to reward their subordinates when the latter produce positive results.

3.5 OBSTACLES TO EFFECTIVE DELEGATION

You would recall that I said in the preceding section that when a subordinate has been delegated authority, it should not be taken away from him/her except where it is absolutely necessary to do so. The implication of the statement is that a number of obstacles tend to inhibit smooth implementation of delegated authority.

Generally, infringement could come from the executives, who might want to take over the implementation of the authority they had earlier delegated, simply because the matter in question happens to affect their favourite staff members. Sometimes, managers think they can do the work faster than their subordinates. Occasionally too, some managers develop **'no one can do it better than me'** syndrome, and so would infringe on the authority they have delegated. Essentially, delegation involves risk-taking. Owing to the fact that the ultimate responsibility and accountability lies with the boss. These accounts for occasional infringement by the managers who fear their reputation could be at stake if they do not 'take charge of things'.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The conclusion to be drawn from this unit is that organizing function requires the mastery of and following the due process. So the success of organizing depends on the manager's ability to follow the process as set out in this unit. However, where he/she wants to take another alternative process he/she has to be consistent with its steps.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have given two definitions of organizing as a process, which contributes to the achievement of the overall management objective or indeed organizational goal. One process of organizing follows the steps set down below:

1) Determination of objectives
2) Decision on various tasks or activities
3) Grouping of activities
4) Assigning of responsibilities
5) Delegation of authority
6) Evaluation of the effectiveness of the process

We have discussed the process of delegation and the steps necessary to ensure effective delegation by managers of public organizations. This also has implication for heads of various organizations including technical and vocational education.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe your preferred organizing process and explain why it is important to the effective management of TVE institutions?
2. Describe the principles of delegation, pointing out why the ultimate responsibility lies with the person who delegates the authority?

7.0 REFERENCES

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MODULE 2

UNIT 5
SOME BASIC CONCEPTS USED IN DESCRIBING THE STRUCTURE OF ORGANIZATIONS

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 2 of Module 2, we described the common types of organizations such as business and non-business organizations; informal and formal organizations. We defined a formal organization as one, which is based on a formally created arrangement (or structure) of jobs and positions with clearly defined functions and relationships. However, we did not go further to describe or clearly define the term ‘organizational structure’ or discuss the concepts that are essential to their understanding them.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

As has been highlighted in our introduction, at the end of this unit, you should be able to achieve the following:

1) Analyze the concept of structure of organizations in the context of TVE
2) Describe the factors that are likely to influence structure
3) List and describe the basic dynamics of authority and the reasons for these in the structure of organizations
4) Understand the general structure of TVE in Nigeria
5) Understand the structure of TVE at the federal level
6) Understand the structure and organization of TVE at the state and private levels
7) Demonstrate the different models of TVE institutions.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 BASIC CONCEPTS USED IN DESCRIBING THE STRUCTURE OF AN ORGANIZATION

In order to have a clear understanding of what constitutes an organization structure, you need to acquaint yourself with some of the relevant or key concepts as presented below:

Authority: According to Ekpenyong (1995), authority is a concept which is basic to human behaviour and to man's relationship with another individual. It implies the power or right to require and receive submission, respect or obedience. It is authority that enables a child to submit to the will of the parents. The central element in authority is legitimacy, which in turn is based on the right to seek compliance. What determines right is obligation and responsibility. In strict organizational term, 'authority' refers to the rights that are inherent or go with managerial or leadership position in order for the holder of the position to be able to give orders and to expect compliance by the subordinate. To each management position is attached certain rights and privileges which the holder of the position acquires in view of his/her status. When an employee vacates the position he/she was occupying, he/she no longer enjoys the rights attached to the position. For instance, when the appointment of a person who holds the position of a school head terminates, he can no longer exercise the rights and privileges associated with position.

3.2 **RESPONSIBILITY**

The term 'responsibility' conveys two perspectives of usage namely, organizational and individual. Employees have responsibility to be efficient and committed to their work. On the other hand, there is the organization's responsibility, which involves the obligation to cater for conditions of service and welfare of the employees. From all indications, therefore authority and responsibility are closely related, as people must have authority to carry out their responsibilities either as management or employees.

KEY CONCEPT

Authority can be delegated, but responsibility cannot

3.3 **ACCOUNTABILITY**

Accountability refers to an individual's answerability for his/her action or inaction. The basic principle of accountability is that one must be held answerable for what he/she does and accepts responsibility for it, whether positive or negative. Thus, a head of department can be accountable for his/her subordinates' performance through proper supervision and delegation, to mention just a few.

KEY CONCEPT

It is important to note that when you have authority and responsibility, your performance is not going to be necessarily measured. However, your performance would often be measured in terms of the standards or goals that result in some positive and/or negative consequences (Aggrarawal, 2004).

Three forms of authority may be identified in work organizations including educational institutions. These are:

a) line authority
b) staff authority; and c) functional authority

a) Line Authority: This is the type of authority, which a head of an organization (e.g. manager, rector, provost or principal) has to direct the work of the subordinates. This form of authority may rightly be described as super-ordinate and subordinate authority relationship.
Line authority usually extends from the top through the lower level of organizations. This usually follows the chain of command.

b. Staff Authority: In large organizations, it is usually difficult for managers to accomplish their tasks, some of which may require special expertise or resource without additional personnel support. To facilitate the work of line managers or officers, staff officers are usually appointed to give advice or to assist the line managers. The authority given to staff officers is usually limited.

Staff authority can therefore be defined as the authority which is given to a member of staff to advise a line manager or to supervise certain aspects of work in an organization. Specifically the role of a staff supervisor is to help line departments take decisions on what to do in certain aspects of work and how to do them, but they cannot take decisions by themselves.

In higher technical education institutions for instance, the rector or provost may appoint lecturers or administrators as staff supervisors on academic, financial, student or technical matters of the institution. These categories of staff, therefore, provide technical assistance or advice to all other advisors who may include academic, research, accounting, technical and those in charge of student welfare.

CATEGORIES OF STAFF

Before rounding our discussion on staff authority, we need to differentiate among the following categories of staff in TVE and other modern formal organizations, namely, personal staff, specialist staff and general staff.

i. **<u>Personal Staff</u>**: This is a staff that is attached to individual line officers. The personal staff, usually private secretaries, form the personal staff of line managers. Their role is to assist their line managers as much as possible particularly in the areas of routine duties and meetings, planning and traveling schedules.

ii. **<u>Specialist Staff</u>**: These are technically qualified persons who are appointed to assist line and other staff in planning, organizing and co- coordinating their work. In the universities, polytechnics, legal advisers are appointed to assist in the coordination of all legal and litigation maters of the institutions.

iii. **<u>General Staff</u>**: General staff are persons that are attached to key executives. Generally, they have the same background by way of qualification or experience as their chief executives. These officers serve as deputies. At the tertiary level of education, academic and administrative deputies are usually appointed among the senior academic staff to assist the chief executives- vice chancellors, rectors and provosts. Similar situations also apply at the lower level of education where principals and head teachers usually appoint deputies to assist them in their duties.

c. Functional Authority: This is the authority which is delegated to a staff manager over specific aspects of functions which although fall within the overall direct authority of line managers, yet are controlled by the staff manager, for example, heading a committee on certain projects e.g. housing, e.t.c.

KEY POINTS

Line managers have line authority. In other words, they can make decisions and issue directives that relate to the organizational goals.

Staff managers do not normally have authority, but usually have either advisory authority or functional authority.

Functional authority is that which is delegated to a staff manager over specific aspects of functions, which though falling within the overall direct authority of line management, but controlled by staff managers.

3.4 BOUNDARY CONFLICTS IN LINE AND STAFF RELATIONSHIP

The idea of staff officers was evolved as a management strategy to provide support to line managers. However, status conflicts between the two sometimes arise in view of the perception that either party is over-stepping the bounds of his/her authority. One claim is that staff officers often try to encroach on line authority by trying to tell them how to do their work. Staff officers with higher academic qualifications often feel disappointed when their advice is not accepted by line managers. Staff officers refuse to give appropriate advice to line managers since they do not see themselves accountable for any negative result arising from the action of line managers.

Staff managers sometimes feel superior to line managers in view of their higher qualifications. On the other hand, staff specialists feel aggrieved for working while the line managers receive the credit. It is not unusual for unclear roles to lead to conflict between line managers and staff officers.

In fact, there could be far more reasons than what are discussed above for conflicts between line and staff officers. Differences in perception seem to form the central issue in line/staff conflict in organizations.

One solution to line and staff conflict lies in clear definition of roles. On the other hand, where there is mutual understanding and interdependence in the conduct of organizational functions, the line/ staff conflict could be reasonably minimized. Management, therefore, has important role in ensuring mutual trust between line staff groups.

PRACTICAL QUESTION
How would you describe the role of an
officer who is authorized to sign an official document and the role of the officer who countersigns it?

POWER

The term 'power' is an elaborate concept, the impact of which cuts across various areas of human endeavour including politics and organizations. In other words, power and influence go hand in hand. When the two terms are used compositely, they may convey different impressions to different persons. For example, when a police officer uses power as a means of enforcing compliance by a citizen to a given command or order, the citizen to whom power is being used on is influenced. If we are to understand the nature of power and influence and their interacting effect in the functioning of organizations, then it becomes necessary to do so with some definitions.

According to Ekpenyong (1995), **power connotes the ability to get an individual or group to do something; to get a person or group to change in some way.** On the other hand, he defines power and influence **as the capacity that 'A' has to influence the behaviour of 'B', so that B does something he/she would not otherwise do.** Other related definitions of the terms are proffered by authorities such as Handy and Robbins (1989).

Different types of power can be found in the literature. A few of these are listed below:

1) **Reward Power**: This is a situation by which an individual, say a manager, is able to control and dispense benefits to others. A supervisor's ability to control the subordinate's behaviour depends on his/her ability to control and dispense the benefits or resources under his control.
2) **Political Power**: This derives from election or appointment to a board or corporation or committee or any similar position a group or organization. Other types of power include the following:

- **Associational Power**: This derives from relationship with some key individuals in say, group or organization.
- **Procedural Power:** This is based on control over procedures by which decisions are made.
- **Moral Power:** This is seen in one's ability to appeal to widely held values.
- **Nuisance Power**: Based on one's tendency to cause confusion or become nuissant.

Other sources of power and influence are discussed by notable authors such as French and Raven (1959), Ouchi and Johnson (1978). It is worth noting that the formal right (authority) that goes with a person's position is just one way of exercising power.

KEY POINTS

- Authority connotes the legitimate right that is attached to or inherent in a person's position in an organization.
- Power refers to an individual's capacity to influence individual's or group's decisions.
- *Authority can be perceived as one part of the larger context of* ***power.***

4.0 CONCLUSION

Having defined and explained some of the basic concepts related to the structure of organization, it is expected that you will have no difficulty in understanding the different ideas relating to the structures of organizations.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has defined authority as the right to assume and receive submission or expect obedience from other persons. The concept, responsibility has two connotations, namely, the obligation which the staff has to the organization and that which organization has to the employees in terms of meeting their conditions of service. Accountability is a term used to measure the extent to which the staff or organization takes responsibility for his/its actions. Authority in organization may be classified under three main types, namely, line, staff and functional. Organizational staff fall under three areas namely, personal,, specialist and general. Boundary conflict occurs when line managers perceive line officers as encroaching on their authority and vice versa.

The concept of power and the types of power usually observed in organizations include, reward, political and procedural power, among others.
Highlights of key points are shown in the boxes and you are expected to study them closely.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. **Differentiate between the three types of authority discussed in this unit.**
2. **Identify five dominant power types in educational organizations**
3. **Outline why the study of organizational power is important**.

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MODULE 2
UNIT 6
ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In module 2 unit 2, we described the common types of business and non-business, informal and formal organizations; we defined a formal organization as one, which is based on a formally created arrangement (or structure) of jobs and positions with clearly defined functions and relationships. In Unit 5, we restricted ourselves to some of the key concepts that are essential to a clear understanding of organization structure. We shall go beyond those aspects in this unit

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1. Explain the term 'structure' and how it is used in relation to organizations
2. Understand the importance of organizational chart and its relevance for describing the structure of organizations
3. Appreciate the importance of identifying the elements of an organization structure
4. Describe the factors which determine the way organizations are structured
5. Describe the two ways by which organizations are differentiated
6. Apply the principles of organizational interdependence
7. Describe the approaches that can be used in the coordination of divided work.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The term, 'organization structure', is defined differently by some authorities. In an attempt to clarify what constitutes organization structure, Certo (1994) first of all defines structure as a term, which refers to the designated relation among the resources of an organization or a management system. From the above definition, and in line with our definition in Unit 2, organization structure may be seen as an arrangement of positions in a set up such as a school, a commercial firm or government establishment.

Taking a school organization as an example, each position, namely, that of the principal, heads of department or classroom teachers has a set of responsibilities, tasks and authority (Aggrarrawal, 2002, Certo, 1994, Appleby, 1994). Tasks are interrelated and the collective performance of tasks by the different position holders such as those listed above lead to the attainment of organizational goals.

3.2 ORGANIZATION CHART

Organization structure is often represented using a graphic illustration referred to as organization chart or organogram. Characteristically, organization chart is often constructed in the form of a pyramid, with individuals or role holders at the top of the pyramid and having more authority and responsibilities than those at the lower range of the pyramid. A typical organization chart may take the following forms:

Fig. M2/6.1a: SIMPLE ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE WITH NO STAFF POSITION

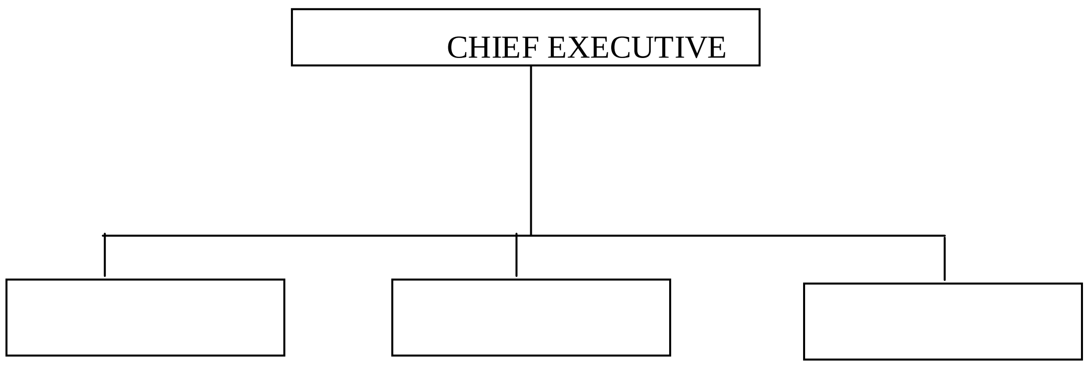
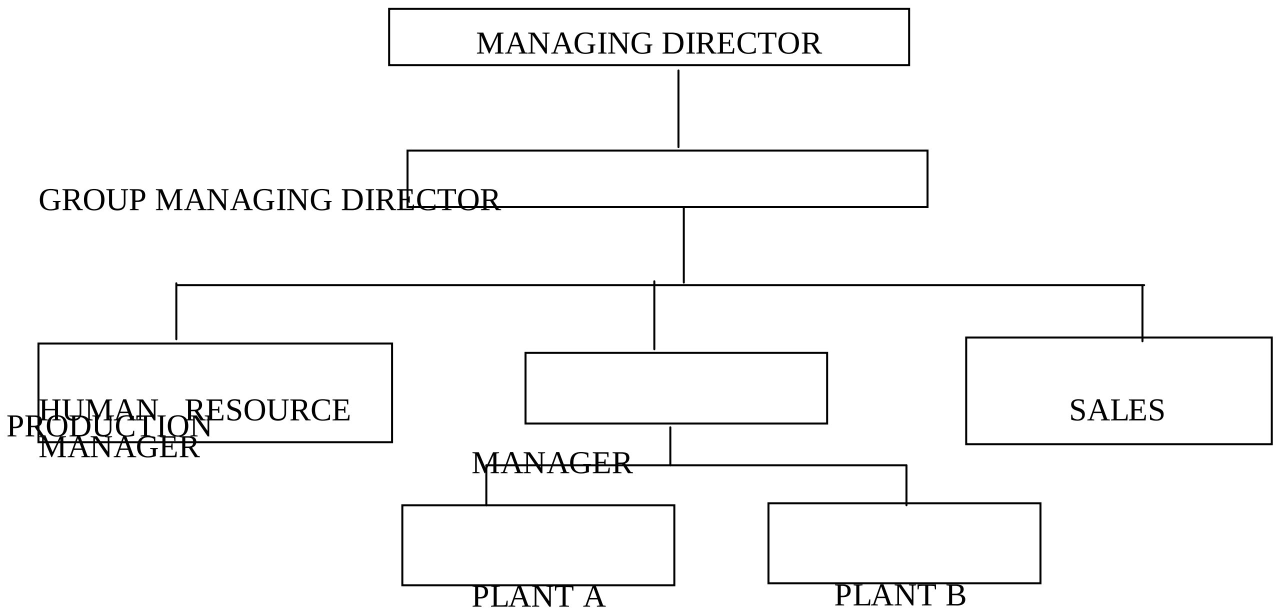


Fig. M2.6.1b: ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE WITH STAFF POSITION



NB: The first diagram depicts a typical line organization structure with no staff positions. The second depicts a structure of a typical line and staff organization.

3.3 ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

A typical organization structure seeks to determine the following:

- the number of organizational divisions, departments or units;
- the major roles within the organization;
- the responsibilities that go with those roles;
- the authority that is attached to each role;
- clarity of job description associated with each role;
- span of control by each supervisor, that is, the number of staff each supervisor is responsible for;
- the acceptable layers or levels that the organization should have;
- the extent of clarity of the chain of command, that is, line of responsibility.

STUDENT ACTIVITY

Summarize the points you have read so far in this section.

3.4 BASIC ELEMENTS IN STRUCTURING ORGANIZATIONS

For the purpose of helping you to understand the organization process, in other words, what informs how organizations are structured; two relevant concepts will be discussed here. They are: a) differentiation, and b) integration. Differentiation and Integration form the major parameters of the organization process.

a. Differentiation: As applied to formal organizations, differentiation implies the measure or extent of difference existing among departments or units with reference to structure, task and management orientation. The sum total of the above statement is that differentiation involves division of work and how this affects organization and task structure as well as management orientation. Normally, differentiation occurs under four main dimensions as follows: i) Formality of structure; ii) Interpersonal orientation; iii) Time orientation; iv) Goal Orientation. Try to master these concepts as explained in the Box.

KEY POINTS

i) *Formality of Structure: This depicts the extent to which an organization submits to or exhibits difference in rules, procedures and other controlling processes;*

ii) *Interpersonal Orientation refers to the extent of concern about people as opposed to tasks or task accomplishment.*

iii) Time Orientation implies concern for results. For example, some sections of a business organization e.g. sales and production often deal with problems which seek to provide immediate feedback and have shorter time orientation than say, Research and Development (R & D) department which may take much longer time to get feedback or result.

iv) *Goal Orientation: In terms of goal orientation, different units of an organization have different goal orientations.*

Manufacturing units of firms are often concerned with production of quality goods while those of marketing are often primarily concerned with sales promotion and profit maximization.

b) Integration: Integration is the measure of similarity among various departments with respect to an organization's structure and goal (Hellriegel, 1992). It is the quality of state of collaboration that exists among departments that is required to achieve unity of effort by the demands of the environment (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967, Robbins, 1989, Ekpenyong, 2001). As further explained by Huse (1980), integration depicts the following:

i) level of interdepartmental relationship, that is, relationship between various departments;

ii) process by which integration is achieved; and

iii) the different organizational devices that are used to achieve it.

A few interesting facts that have since been established (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) are that:

i) departments in companies which operate in stable environments, for example, manufacturing companies, are designed differently from the same departments in companies operating in unstable environments, namely, plastic firms.

ii) departments in the same organization would not be affected at the same degree by the organization's environment.

iii) departments such as production would be more mechanically structured than say, sales or finance department.

What you have to note from the above explanation is that integration would not be expected to be as strong in educational organizations as would be the case in a business firm, owing to the specialist characteristics of members of the former.

3.5 DIFFERENTIATION OF ORGANIZTIONAL ACTIVITIES

Even though I have outlined four ways in which differentiation may occur in organization, there is need to specify the two ways by which organizational activities may be differentiated vertically and horizontally.

a) **Vertical Differentiation**: This is normally effected through the hierarchical or top-down arrangement of positions and roles in an organization, that is, from the position of the chief executive to those of operatives. It is in this way that major differences in functions and statuses are made possible.
b) **Horizontal Differentiation**: Departmentalization can be seen as the product of horizontal differentiation of organizational activities. In small organizations, differentiation of activities may be informal and guided by either the natural interest or skills of the individual workers. However, in large organizations, differentiation is considered necessary owing to the need to perform particular functions effectively and efficiently.

IMPORTANT NOTE: I need to emphasize that vertical differentiation establishes the managerial structure, while horizontal differentiation provides the basis for departmentalization; and it is on these two forms of differentiation that the formal structures of organizations are established.

3.6 INTERDEPENDENCE

Apart from the attempt to foster differentiation and integration, organizations are also designed to ensure interdependence among the different units and members within them. Interdependence is usually central to the determination of the level of coordination between individuals or different units of organization.

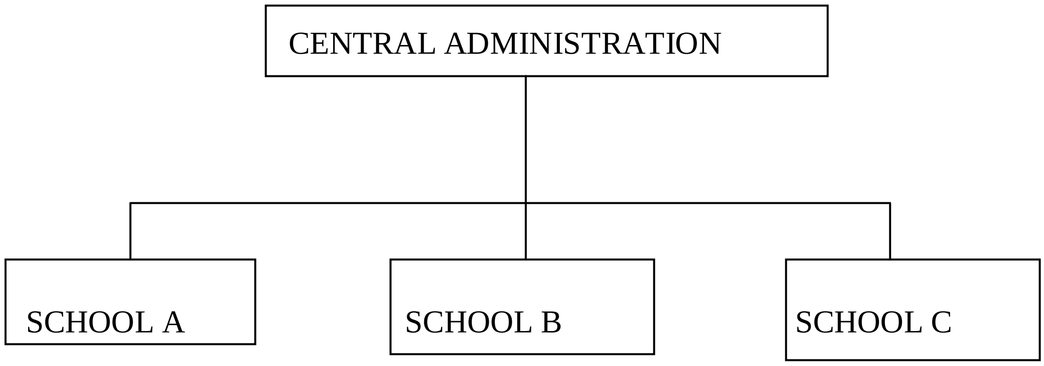
KEY CONCEPT
Interdependence refers to the degree of coordination required between individuals, departments or units to transform information and/or raw materials into finished goods or products.

You should note very closely that the pattern of interdependence can be affected by the level of differentiation and indeed the level of integration and vice versa. As indicated earlier, differentiation may be brought about in educational organizations through formality of structure, that is, how each unit or department formulates its rules, procedures and control process and those orientations I have earlier listed.

3.7 STRUCTURES OF INTERDEPENDENCE

Three structures of interdependence can be identifiable in educational and related organizations. The first is pooled interdependence. Pooled interdependence in the organization structure of a polytechnic can be illustrated as follows:

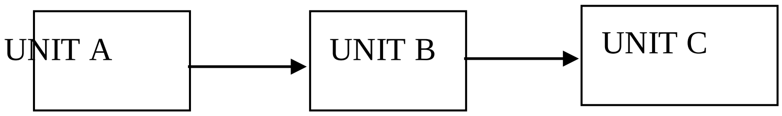
Fig. M2/6.2a: Pooled Interdependence



As we can see from the diagram above, each school of the polytechnic maintains interdependent relationship with the central organ of the institution, namely, the Registry and Rectory (i.e., rector's office).
The attainment of the polytechnic's academic goal depends on each school's level of task accomplishment as required by the central administration, just as it depends on the support it gives to them

Sequential Interdependence: Sequential interdependence takes place when one unit must perform its task before another can accomplish its own task. This is illustrated below.

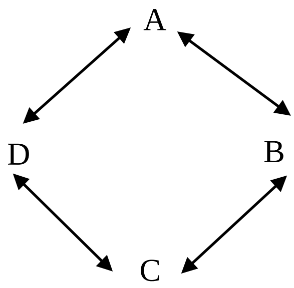
Fig.M2/6.2b: Sequential Interdependence



As illustrated above, the output from Unit A becomes input for Unit B while the output from Unit B becomes input for Unit C. By implication, interdependence becomes pooled on the one hand and serial on the other hand. The process of pooled interdependence can be illustrated with the faculty examinations where the process necessarily begins with the teachers who must grade their examination scripts before the final compilation and the release of examination results by the academic board can take place.

Reciprocal Interdependence: Reciprocal interdependence occurs when output of each unit becomes the input for the others. What distinguishes reciprocal interdependence is that each unit or section is easily penetrated by the others, with each of them posing contingencies for one another. This is illustrated in Fig. 3

Fig. M2/6.2c: Reciprocal Interdependence.



Reciprocal interdependence tends to feature prominently in marketing, R & D and manufacturing departments of business and industrial organizations. At the tertiary level of technical education, reciprocal interdependence occurs in the area of course servicing.

STUDENT SELF-ASSESSMNT TEST
Differentiate between sequential interdependence and reciprocal interdependence?

3.8 COORDINATION OF DIVIDED WORK

Two major approaches are used to assist in the coordination of divided work. These include departmentalization and administrative hierarchy. The points could be further clarified as follows :

1) Departmentalization is used to group similar tasks or activities and form horizontal units within organization.
2) Administrative hierarchy is used to group the management and control activities at different levels and form vertical units within the organization.
   Essentially, it is these approaches or mechanisms that are used to foster integration in the organizations

The span of management or the number of workers which a line officer has to control, usually determines the number of administrative levels, thereby making the coordination and control of overall activities of the organization to be as efficient as possible.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The conclusion to be drawn in this unit is that understanding the structure of an organization can play important role in goal achievement. This is because the specification of roles and responsibilities in each stratum of the organization enables the workers to channel their energies towards task accomplishment at that level specifically, and to the entire organization generally.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have provided definitions and explanations of what constitute organization, namely, as a hierarchy of authority which specifies how tasks are allocated in terms of how tasks are allocated to various levels of members. We also showed that the structure of an organization may be represented by a chart. Organization charts are of different types, but essentially depict the hierarchical management of the workers, beginning with those at the bottom of the hierarchy.

A typical organization structure seeks to determine a number of factors which include the number of divisions, departments or units, the major roles within the organization, among others. Two relevant concepts are used to explain how organizations are structured. They include differentiation and integration. Differentiation may be effected vertically and horizontally. Integration, which measures the level of similarity among various departments, depicts the level of interdependence between people and departments.

Three forms of interdependence were discussed namely, pooled, sequential and reciprocal interdependence. Finally, we showed that two major approaches may be used to guide how work is divided. They include departmentalization and administrative hierarchy.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSESSMENT

1 a) Provide a general definition of organization structure.
b) With the help of an organization chart, show the various structures of two different types of formal organizations: i) technical college; ii) a small firm.
2) Differentiate in organizational context among the following terms: a) differentiation; b) integration; c) interdependence

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MODULE 2

UNIT 7
DEPARTMENTALIZATION: TRADITONAL ORGANIZATION PATTERNS

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

As you walk into a business organization you would observe that some of the workers are located in a general office while some others are located in private ones. What you may not easily understand or be aware of is that the activities which the workers perform differ according to their ranks and or specializations. What you may not easily notice is that the activities which the employees perform are determined by the way their functions are patterned within the organization. Some of the employees would certainly be doing line functions while others will be performing staff functions.
These terms are used to describe the traditional approach to departmentalization. The organizational patterns which can result from the traditional method of departmentalizing include: i) line organization ii) Line and staff organization and iii) Functional organization

OBJECTIVES:

At the end of learning this unit, you should be able do the following:
i) List and explain with illustration the following traditional organization patterns:
ii) Line organization
iii) Line and staff organization iv) Functional organization
2) Outline and discuss the merits and demerits of traditional organization patterns

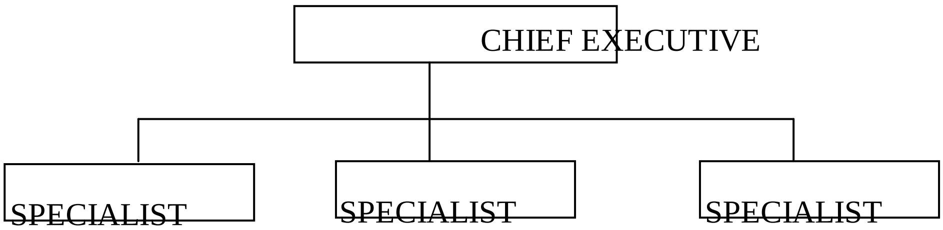
3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The organizational patterns we want to discuss here are normally referred to as the traditional type.

3.1. **LINE ORGANIZATIONS**

A line organization has the typical (Weberian ideal type) bureaucratic structure of which orders radiate from the chief executive (boss) down to the bottom of the hierarchy, and of which every subordinate is responsible to him/her. The organizational structure is characterized by direct line of authority with no staff advisory or auxiliary officer. It is also based on rational, goal-directed hierarchy with impersonal decision-making and formal control. See fig M2/7.1. below.

TABLE M2/7. 1: LINE ORGANIZATION



As the figure depicts, a line organization emphasizes managerial position and specialization of labour.

ADVANTAGES

The following merits are claimed for the organization.
1). The lines of authority and responsibility are clearly defined, therefore no overlapping of authority and doubts over the role of each individual.
2). The line of authority is simple and easy to understand
3). It is easy to maintain effective control over subordinates
4). Decision-making process is simple

DISAVANTAGES

i) The rigidity of line organization does not allow for functional specialization by departmental managers
ii) Few managers hold absolute authority; if any of them leaves, the organization may be adversely affected.
iii) There is too much emphasis on discipline, which tends to make changes in the organization difficult.

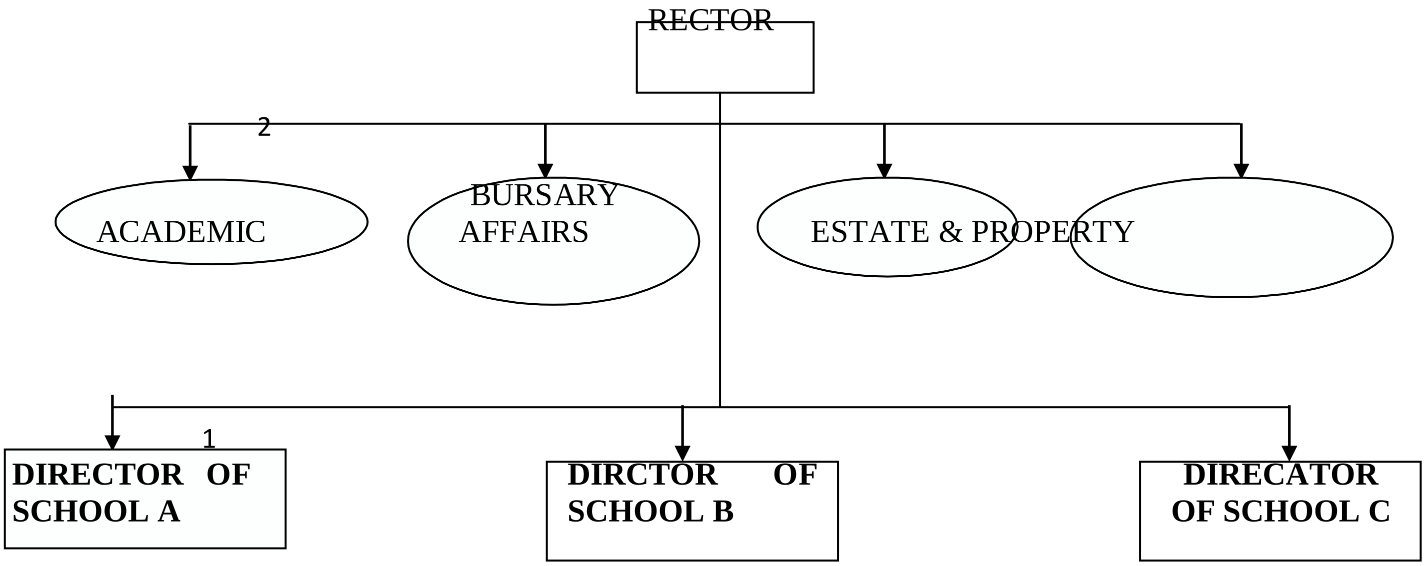
3.3 LINE AND STAFF ORGANIZATION

The line and staff organization pattern is more common than the line type. You need to note that the main difference between this and the line organization pattern is that it has both advisory and staff positions that are not usually “links” in the chain of command. As was discussed in Unit 6, line officers are given the privilege of taking operational decisions in relation to the work of the organization.

Staff officers cannot give orders directly to any of the line officers, but can only make recommendations to them.

Fig, M2/7.2 depicts a typical line and staff organization structure. The squares show the chain of command while the circled section shows the staff relationship.

Fig. M2/7.2: LINE AND STAFF ORGANIZATION OF A MEDIUM SIZE POLYTECHNIC



KEY:
1. 1=Square =chain of command
2. Circle = Staff relationship

MERITS OF LINE AND STAFF ORGANIZATION

1) It is based on planned specialization
2) Clear-cut division of authority and responsibility guaranteed
3) Discipline can be effectively maintained
4) It makes for orderly administration, communication ad control
5) It creates room for greater stability.

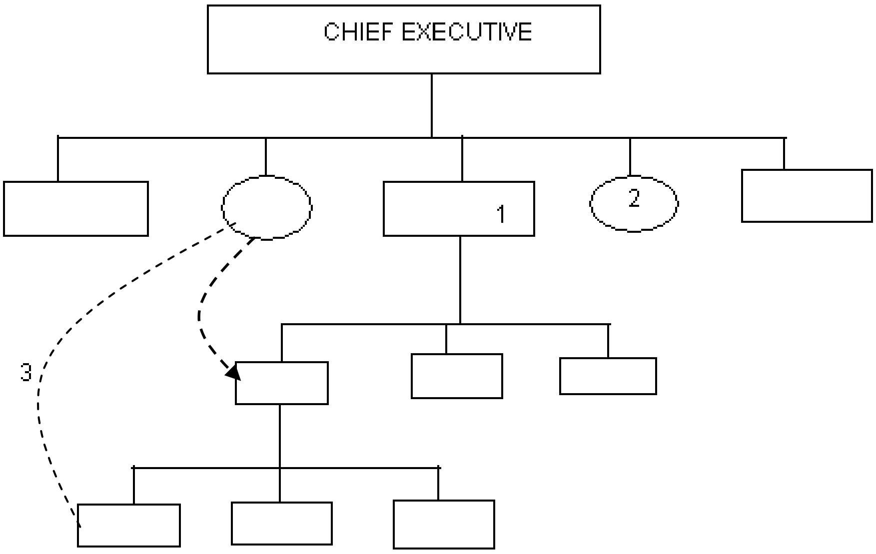
DEMERITS

Among the demerits of this organizational pattern are:

1) Where allocation of authority and responsibility is not clear, members at the lower level may be confused owing to various line orders and staff advisers.
2) Separation of planning from execution may weaken the organization as some of the line officers may wish to escape their responsibilities.

FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION PATTERN

The idea of functional organization derives from Frederick W. Taylor's principles of scientific managements. Taylor listed ten attributes which a foreman must possess, for example a good education, technical knowledge, manual dexterity, tact and common sense. He suggested a plan for functional organization that would reinforce role ambiguity; and also that work of the same type should be grouped together, brought under one department and managed by experts. This explains the modern idea of departmentalization by enterprise functions. A functional organization pattern is shown in Fig. M2/7.3 below.



NOTE: 1. denotes line authority
2. Denotes staff officers
3. Denotes functional staff authority

The Merits of Functional Organization

1. It allows and makes for the use of the specialized knowledge of the different functional heads
2. It makes room for the standardization of operations, methods and equipment.
3. Higher efficiency is assured as each manager and his staff performs a limited range of functions.
4. Policy consistency is assured due to the input of the functional specialists.

Demerits

1) There is a tendency to de-emphasize line position in favour of staff positions.
2) Problems sometimes occur owing to the complexity of the interaction variable as well as frequent role ambiguity or overlapping.
3) Coordinating the functions of various work units under the same functional

head could be difficult

4) Sometimes decisions requiring the consideration or action by different functional areas may be delayed.

You need to understand that functional organization pattern is the line and staff organization with a difference. So note the key points in the box:

KEY POINT
The main difference between functional organization and line and staff organization is that functional specialists (line officers) at the lower level report primarily or partly to staff specialists in higher levels rather than reporting to the next line.

Most tertiary educational institutions adopt the functional organization pattern. Usually, a head of department of a lower rank would not report to the professor in his department but rather to the dean of the faculty.

SELF ASSESSMENT
Walk into a medium-size organization that you know and try to identify members that perform line functions and those that perform staff functions.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The conclusion to be drawn from this unit is that the traditional organizational pattern has a long history as it shows how division of work was thought of in terms of line and staff functions. In other words, it shows the distinction between supervisory (line) and staff (subordinate) functions just as it provides a very simple way of dividing work.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have listed three types of traditional organization patterns. These are: line organization; line and staff organization and functional organization. You were also made to be aware that line organizations are characterized by direct line of auxiliary officers. The unit also indicated that line and staff organizations have both advisory and staff positions, which are not found in line organization.

Functional organizations are an extension of line and staff organization, that is, in terms of their size and function. The difference between line and staff and functional organizations is that in the latter, functional specialists or line officers at the lower level report primarily to the staff specialists at the higher level.
The merits and demerits of each of the three organizational patterns have been duly outlined.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

2 State the main features of the following organization patterns :
i. line organization
ii. line and staff organization c) Functional organization
3 With appropriate illustration, show the difference between a line and functional organization.
4 Outline the merits and demerits of line and staff organizations.

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MODULE 2
UNIT 8
FORMS OF DEPARTMENTALIZATION: MODERN CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Suppose you went to visit a friend of yours who works in a polytechnic, what type of information would you need to locate him/her? Obviously, you would need to have information about: a) his/her correct name; b) his/her faculty; c) his/her department and program of study.

The reason why you would need the listed information is that academic institutions like other formal organizations are organized in divisions such as school, faculty and department or other similar names. This is why the term, 'departmentalization' is used to denote the grouping of similar activities and to form horizontal units within an organization such as a firm or academic institution.

2.0 OBJECTIIVES

At the end of learning this unit, you should be able to:
1) List and explain with illustration the following modern methods of departmentalization:
i) Departmentalization by enterprise functions. ii) Departmentalization by territory.
iii) Departmentalization by product line. iv) Project organization.
v) Matrix organization
2) Outline and discuss the merits and demerits of each form of departmentalization.

3.0 MODERN FORMS OF DEPARTMENTALIZATION

The organizational pattern, which may result from modern methods of departmentalization or grouping work, among others, include:
i) Departmentalization by enterprise functions. ii) Departmentalization by territory.

iii) Departmentalization by enterprise functions. iv) Project organization.
v) Matrix organization.

Some organizations are large and, therefore, have varying functions. Others are small and consequently have limited functions:

SELF-ASSESSMENT
List some of the large and small organizations that you know in Nigeria.

You should at this point understand that the type of departmentalization adopted or to be adopted by an organization would, largely, be determined by its size and type of business.

KEY POINT

Departmentalization or grouping of work is a process through which work of employees are grouped into related and manageable units.

3.1 DEPARTMENTALIZATION BY ENTERPRISE FUNCTIONS

A very common way of grouping activities is by its functions, that is, what the enterprise or organization mainly does. Such activities may include production, which involves creation of utility, goods or services, selling- which may involve finding customers, patients, clients or students who are likely to accept the gods or services at a given price; financing - which may include raising and collecting, safeguarding and expending funds of the enterprise.

Major Functional Departments: The term “Major department” is used to describe a department with large budgets and large work force. Major functional departments are those, which perform the characteristic activities, namely, <u>production</u>, <u>selling</u> and <u>finance</u>- creating wealth (See Box)

KEY CONCEPT

Every organization is involved in creating utility in goods or services, exchanging this wealth at price, purchasing and managing the cash flow, which results from these activities. Every organization therefore performs production, sales and financing functions, though not all the organizations would use these terms (i.e., production, sales and financing).

A school system is engaged in the production of educational services; it attracts students and finances its operations. A medical practitioner offers services to hi/her patient; an accountant offers services at a price. The fact that these services are not classified under the three traditional functional departments listed above does not mean that they are strictly different from those of large business enterprises.

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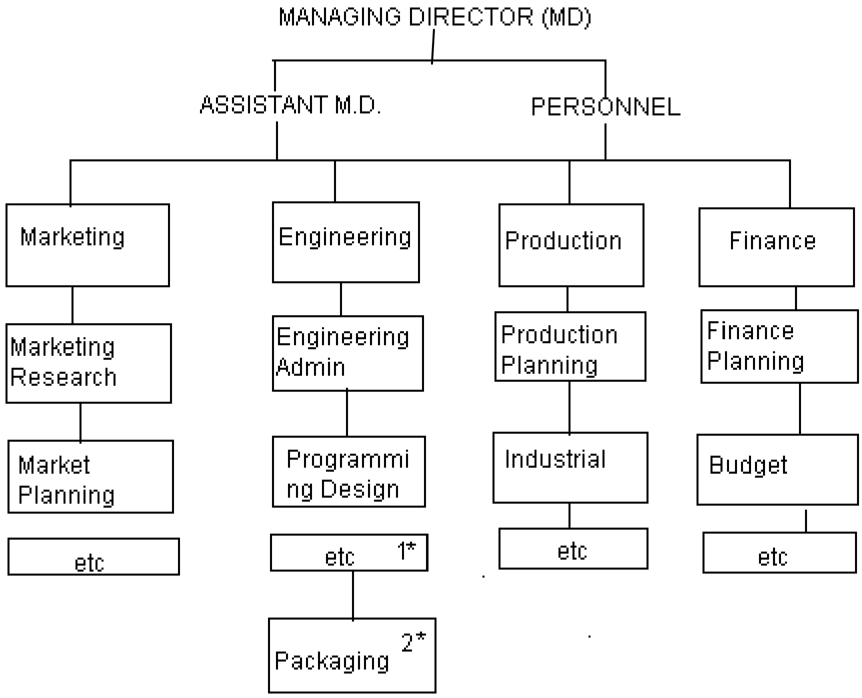
Derivational Enterprise Department: Sometimes, the heads of major functional departments find that their span of management is too broad. If a production unit, which has been controlled by one major department, is assigned an additional responsibility as a result of expansion, an aspect of its functions such as purchase may be exercised and handed over to a purchasing agent. This new unit would be carrying out the duties under what we call **DERIVATIVE FUNCTIONAL DEPARTMENT**. The chart below illustrates a typical enterprise functions department with derivative enterprise Department or Unit..

Fig.M2/8.1: Departmentalization By Enterprise Functions



NB: 2* -

1* - Indicates additional departments down the line. Deri vative Enterprise Departments

ADVANTAGES OF DEPARTMENTALIZATION BY ENTERPRISE FUNCTIONS

Note the following advantages of Enterprise Functions Departments:
1) Logical reflection of functions
2) It follows the principle of occupational specialization
3) Maintains power and prestige of major functions
4) Simplified training
5) Means of tight control at the top

DISADVANTAGES

1) Responsibility for profits at the top only
2) Over-specialization and narrowing of view points of personnel
3) Creation of limitation in the development of general managers
4) Reduction in coordination between functions
5) Economic growth of a company as a system could be difficult

3.3 DEPARTMENTALIZTION BY TERRITORY

In large enterprises, departmentalization by territory can be taken as a logical approach. Territorial departmentalization is a process whereby large organizations create outposts or territories as a means of decentralizing its activities for the purpose of organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Essentially, the operating principle behind this method of organizing is that all activities in a given area or territory should be grouped together and assigned to a territorial, or area manager or controller.

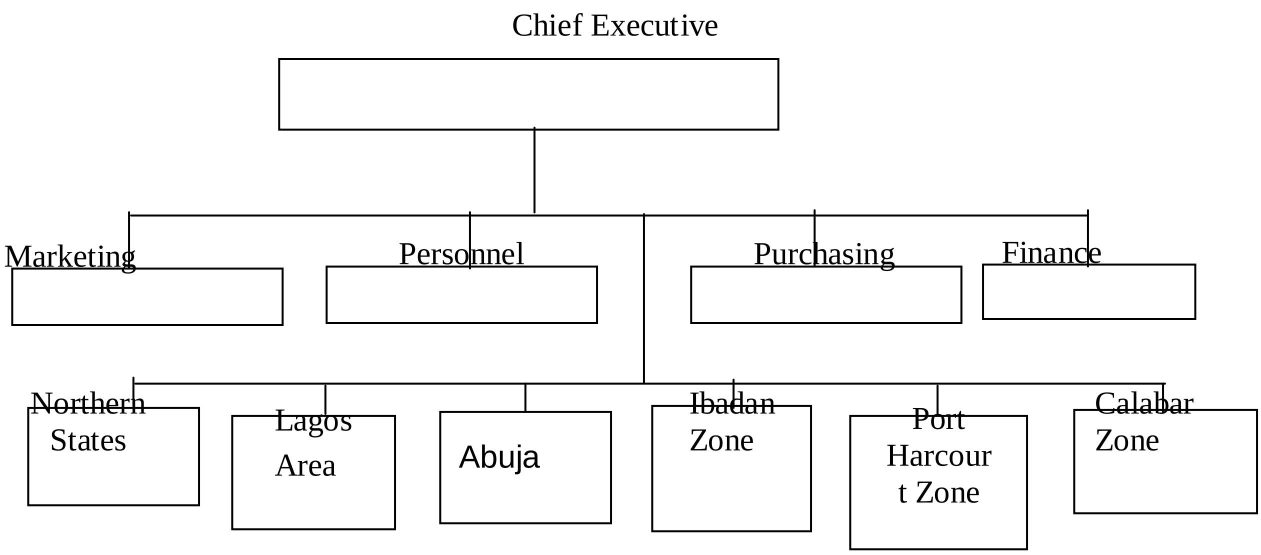
In Nigeria, a number of enterprises such as the NTA, Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN), NITEL, NIPOST, Nigeria Police, e.t.c. adopt this departmentalization system. Large departmental stores for example, UAC (Nigeria) fall among organizations that operate territorial departmentalization.

Reasons for Territorial Departmentalization: There are some reasons for adopting departmentalization by territory or area grouping. The following are the major ones:

1) The need for prompt action calls for territorial departmentalization. In other words, local officers will be prompt in taking decisions on matters that affect their local branches. It is not unusual for action or decisions on matters affecting branches to be delayed at the central office.
2) When an enterprise is grouped on area basis, and the different organization methods are used, the difference in approach can create management problem to the enterprise as a whole.

3) Territorial departmentalization becomes appropriate if the intention is to encourage local participation in decision-making and to take advantage of localized operation.
4) Territorial departmentalization becomes advisable where a company derives some of its essential product lines or makes a huge profit from a particular locality. Examples can be found in the banking industry, where centres with huge profits are constituted into territories for handling businesses within their zones.
5) Area grouping may be adopted where a company wants to employ local wok force for its business. For example, in sales and marketing business, managers would tend to prefer local employees who know the locality where their operations are being carried out than non-indigenes of the area.
6) Area grouping enables local employees to direct their complaints to their local managers rather than to the remote head office manager who may no readily understand the peculiar problems of the employees.
7) Area grouping may be adopted for economic if not political reasons. This explains why the headquarters of NNPC and other oil firms are either in Abuja or Port Harcourt.
8) Area grouping may be done purely for political reasons as in the citing of university campuses of state universities in different zones of the states, in spite of the huge expenses involved.
9) Area grouping becomes important as it provides a good training ground for managers.

Fig. M2/8.2. Organization Structure Based on Territorial Departmentalization (A Marketing Firm).



ADVANTAGES

The following advantages are claimed for territorial departmentalization or area grouping of business:

1) Area grouping enables responsibility to be placed at the lower level of the enterprise.
2) It enables emphasis to be placed on local markets and problems.
3) It allows an enterprise to take advantage of local operations.
4) It makes for effective coordination in a state or locality.
5) Area grouping allows for quick, better and direct contact with the local interests.
6) It acts as the best starting training ground for young managers and employees.

DISADVANTAGES

Area grouping tends to have the following disadvantages:

1. This form of structuring an enterprise requires more persons with general managerial abilities.
2. It tends to make maintenance of economical control of services difficult.
3. It can create problem of top management control and effectiveness.

3.3 DEPARTMENTAIZATION BY PRODUCT LINE

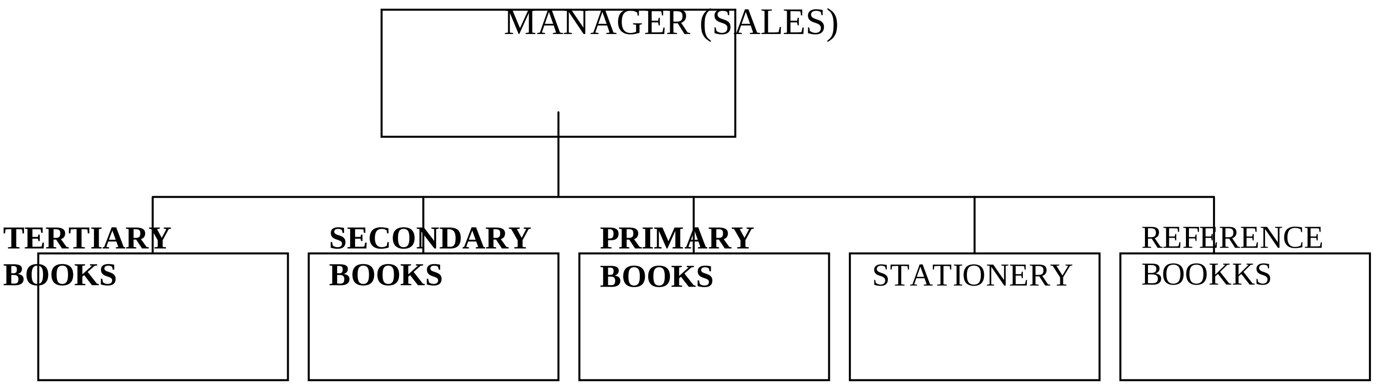
To appreciate the structure of departmentalization by product line, let us say this. Suppose as a stranger, you went to a shopping complex in say, Abuja or Lagos, to buy some cosmetic products. You would observe that the line which cosmetic products are sold is different from those of other product lines.

Departmentalization or grouping by product line is like the different product lines in a shopping complex, except for the fact that the products in different sections of the shopping complex are owned by individual traders and dealers. In product grouping, the company is usually large but all the sections operate under one general manager. To enhance effectiveness, divisions or departments are established, each of which is devoted to one product or a group of products. Divisional managers are appointed and are responsible for making all functions that are needed to make each product line effective. Essentially organizing along product lines enables top management to delegate divisional executives with extensive authority over their relevant divisions such as manufacturing, engineering, sales and other services that are relevant to each division. Many car-manufacturing companies organize along product lines. For instance, American General Motors has the following divisions: Chevrolet, Buick, Pontiac and Cadillac.

Employment in Functional Area: Using product line or a major product in grouping activities can be successful in all functional areas except industrial relations and finance. It is often found useful to deal with one central, especially with its national officers. and to allow experienced officers to negotiate with the unions, if common ground must be found in trade matters. On the other hand, centralization of authority over finance enables top managers to apply economy in the use of scarce resources and in so doing, hold the enterprise together.

One interesting thing about grouping by product lines is that it makes it easy for customers to identify each division by what they produce. For instance, organizations that produce educational products may be easily identified by those products, e.g. Higher education books section, secondary or primary education stationery, e.t.c.

Fig. M2/8.3:DEPARTMENTALIZTION BY PRODUCT LINE



ADVANTAGES

The following advantages are adduced in favour of grouping by products:

1. Attention and effort are placed on product line.
2. Responsibility for profits is placed at the divisional level.
3. It is easy to improve the coordination of different functions of the units within the enterprise.
4. It provides a convenient training ground for managers.
5. It allows for growth and diversity of products and services.

DISADVANTAGES

1. This method of grouping requires more persons with general managerial abilities.
2. It tends to make maintenance of economical central service difficult.

3.4 PROJECT ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

In the class, a teacher may wish to assign some mini project work which may involve research or prose writing to a selected group of students. Unlike other regular school subjects, as soon as the group finishes its project assignment, it is disbanded, except the teacher wishes to assign another similar project to the same group. In the same vain, in a construction firm, management may wish to assign some specific tasks (projects) to a selected group of workers. The group is assigned a given time to accomplish its task. However, the group may be kept permanently, if similar projects are available on regular basis.

POINTS TO NOTE
A project organization is designed for specific projects. Consequently, different project managers are provided with separate resources to complete their respective projects or tasks.

This form of organization is often used by civil engineering and construction firms, as they sometimes find it necessary to form project teams for each contract.

Prerequisites: In selecting a project team, firms are advised to consider the following:

1. The state of the project.
2. The degree of technological uncertainty.
3. The relevance of time in relation to cost goals.
4. The uniqueness of the project.

ADVANTAGES OF PROJECT ORGANIATION

Project organizations are considered to have many advantages, which are listed below:

1. Project managers are able to exercise maximum control over resources.
2. It allows independent systems to be constituted on a project-by-project basis.
3. Conflict and interface problems are minimized on the projects.
4. It allows for the development of a technical base.
5. It increases team responsibility while accountability for results can easily be established.
6. It is easy to manage cost and time of performance trade off.
7. It is easy to cope with unstable environment.
8. Individuals' expertise is fully tapped.
9. It makes it possible to deal directly with the customers.

DISADVANTAGES
Project organizations have the following disadvantages:

1. Owing to the fact that projects are organized differently, resources are duplicated.
2. Project team members do no belong to any specific division or department, consequently, they stand the chance of being disbanded at the completion of their projects

3. Project organizations have loose structure, and this is capable of resulting in unclear lines of responsibility, authority and communication.

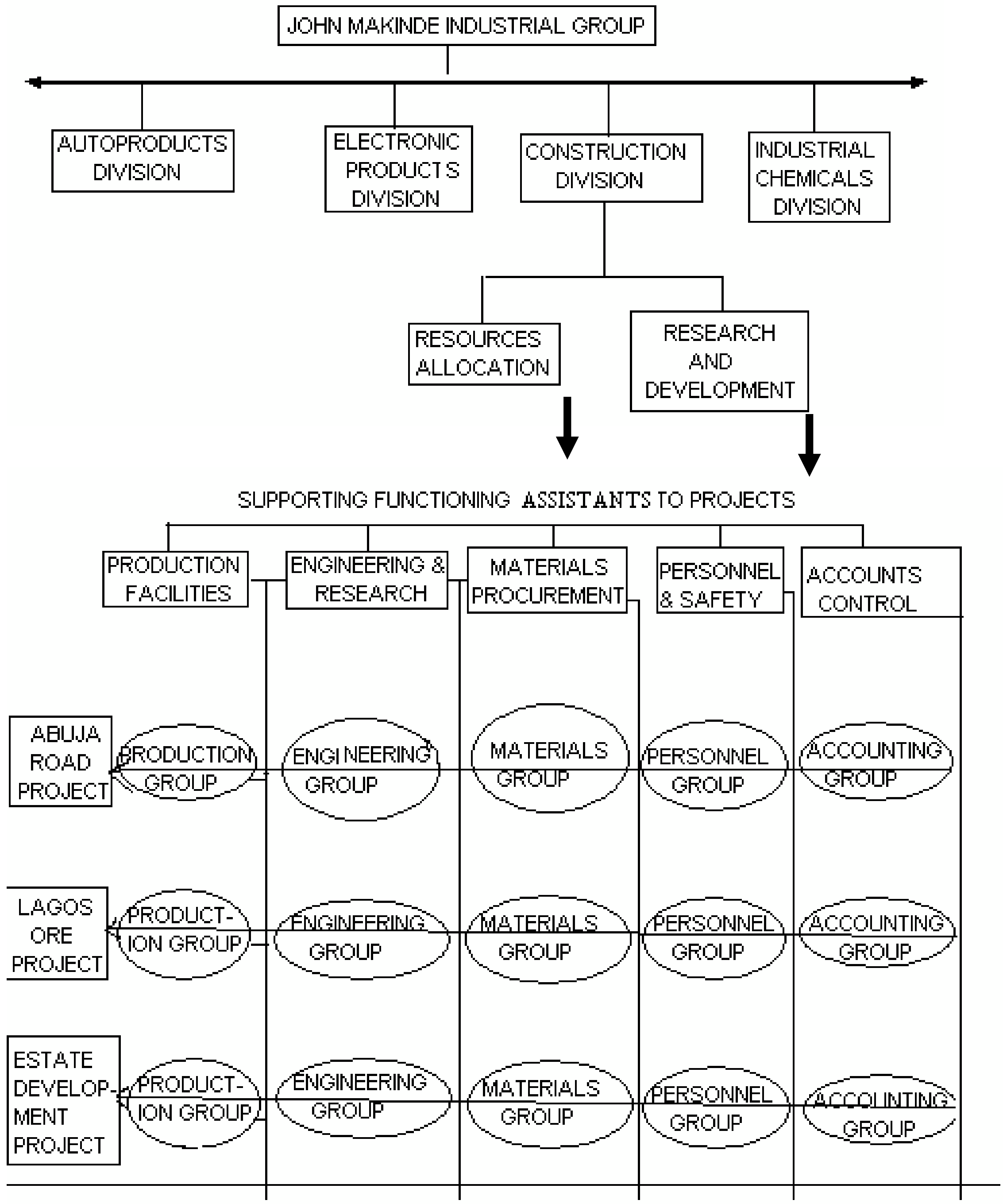
3.5 MATRIX ORGANIZATION

Meaning, Origin and Structure: To understand the concept of matrix organization, cast your mind back to your mathematics class where you were told that a matrix is an array of vertical columns and horizontal rows. Applied to organizations therefore, we can define it as follows:

A matrix organization refers to the two directional organizational structures, where a person may
work under vertical as well as horizontal lines of command.

In other words, a matrix organization combines two forms of departmentalization, functional and project (Ekpenyong, 2003; Certo, 1986; Koontz and O'ddonnel, 1985; Aggarawal, 2002). The project teams draw their personnel from the functional departments. The team members are assigned to a given project and when their assignments are completed, they return to their functional departments.
Matrix organization, which is sometimes referred to as 'grid', or mistakenly, regarded as 'project organization', is designed to establish a flexible and adaptable system of resources and procedures to achieve a series of project objectives. This mode of organization actually evolved from the development of aerospace technology. Areas of industry where matrix organization has been used include aerospace firms, advertising agencies, government agencies, universities, management consulting firms, hospitals and entertainment firms. A simplified structure of matrix organization is provided below:

Fig. M2/8.4 MATRIX ORGANIZATION



NB:

1. Horizontal lines show operational flow of work performance
2. The Matrix organization shows projects in the Construction Division
3. As the figure shows, the experts, relevant personnel and facilities needed to accomplish each construction project are drawn from all the functional divisions of the organization. On completion of each project, the team members are sent back to their functional divisions or departments.

As you can see from the figure, and as I pointed out earlier, matrix horizontal design is used to establish a flexible and adaptable system of resources and procedures for achieving a series of project objectives.

3.5 MAIN FEATURES OF MATRIX ORANIZATION

Having learnt what a matrix organization is, you may now wish to note its main features:

1. Matrix organization is a coordinated system of relationship among the functional units of the organization.
2. In the traditional type of organization, the flow of work progresses among individuals or autonomous functional units of a specific division and the divisional manager is responsible for the total program of work involving the product of the division.

Again, when work, which is performed by an operating division, is of a routine nature or is a standardized product or service with high volume, it would not be necessary to adopt a matrix organization design since the process is more or less routinized; the total work can flow through the divisions with each functional unit or group adding its value as well as enhancing the smooth completion of the work process.

However, where the work performed or to be performed is for specific project contract, a matrix organization can be applied effectively. The emphasis is usually on the scheduled completion of specific projects.
New projects may be added as a result of new contracts by say, Engineering group. When a project is completed, it is deleted from the organization. This explains why matrix organization is regarded as a fluid organization.
The project manager is given authority, responsibility and accountability for the completion of the project in line with the time, cost, quality and quantity as specified in the project contract.

The project manager is assigned a number of personnel with essential qualifications from the functional departments for the duration of the operating project. Thus, in a matrix organization, a project is served by both the manager and functional personnel groups. Since the project manager has the authority and responsibility for the successful execution of the contract or project to which he/she is assigned, he/she equally has authority to discipline and reward the team by way of promotions, salary increases and other incentives.

The functional group personnel normally return to their functional departments for re-assignment or transfer to other divisions. The project manager may be reassigned by the functional manager or the chief executive.

VARIATIONS

There could be some variations in the way matrix organization could be managed, as the following cases would show:

1. In some instances, the project or product manger may not have the authority to tell any functional department to do anything. They may only act as information gatherers on the progress of the project, and report same to top management.
2. In some other cases, a matrix organization may be drawn showing managers who are in charge of projects or products. This approach seeks to convey the position of a dual command. The defect in this structure is that if there are problems in the system who to hold accountable becomes difficult.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Summarize in one paragraph, what you have learnt about each of the five types of departmentalization.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Following the presentation and discussion of the different forms of departmentalization, we can conclude that the knowledge you have so acquired has enhanced your ability in dividing or grouping people and work into manageable units in various organizations including technical education.

5.0 SUMMARY

The summary of what you have learnt in this unit includes types of departmentalization, namely, departmentalization by enterprise functions, the key concepts related to it, its merits and demerits; and departmentalization by territory. The last form of grouping work called matrix organization combines two forms of departmentalization, namely, the existing functioning departments to form project work groups. It is designed to provide a flexible and adaptable system of resources to achieve a series of project objectives. The features of matrix organization, including strengths and weaknesses have been carefully explained. This involves a process by which large organizations seek to decentralize their functions by creating outposts with a view to enhancing their effectiveness and efficiency.

Departmentalization or grouping of work by product lines is intended to enhance efficiency as top management can delegate authority to respective divisional executives over their respective product lines. You have also learnt about project organizations as the type of grouping which workers, mostly experts, are assigned to specific projects, and disbanded at the completion of the project.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSESSMENT

1 a) Outline the five modern forms of departmentalization.
b) Discuss the characteristics of derivative enterprise department.
2) Explain a) the reasons for, and b) the merits and demerits of territorial departmentalization.
3) What are the advantages and disadvantages of departmentalization by product line?
4) Differentiate between project organizations and matrix organization.

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MODULE 3: HUMAN BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANIZATIONS: TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PERSPECTIVE

UNIT I: DETERMINANT OF HUMAN PERFORMANCE CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

As rightly observed by authorities such as Edgar Schein, one of the persistent problems of organizational psychology is how to develop a concept of human nature which can provide managers choices on how to recruit, select and manage people in order to obtain required level of productivity for the organization and provide optimal level of satisfaction for the employees.

Several theories have been put forward by notable authorities in the field of organizational psychology, with a view to explaining human behaviour in organizations. Some of these theories seem to show that human beings seek to establish their identity through their work environments. Others seek to isolate personality factors, and behavioural traits that are likely to provide "closeness of fit" or match between individual goals and the goals of the organization to the extent that the end result will be of mutual benefit to both the employers and the employees.

The study of organizational behaviour mainly involves the study of individual and group behaviour within the context of the organization, which they are members.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

On the basis of the above introduction, it is expected that at the end of this unit you should be able to:

1. Understand the constituents of personality
2. Identify and describe personality trait factors
3. Describe some basic "self" theories
4. Understand life cycle and identity theories
5. Describe what constitutes role behaviour
6. Explain the concept of "perception"
7. Explain what constitutes psychological contract

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Constituents of Personality

For a start we shall define personality simply as:

The sum total of the ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others within his/her environment.

Personality Determinants: From the review of the relevant literature, it is not really easy to come to a consensus as to the determinants of human personality in view of the fact that cognitive and psychological processes as well as other intervening variables or factors also play some roles in shaping personality. However, factors, which constitute personality, are for the purpose of your easy understanding listed under the following five categories and briefly discussed.

1. **Biological**: Those who study biological contributions to personality consider heredity, the brain, biofeedback (study of brain wave patterns, gastric secretion, fluctuation in blood pressure, and skin pressure) are major determinants of personality.

2. **Cultural Contributions**: Experts on the study of the contributions of culture argue that cultural factors are more important than the biological factors. They argue that culture remains a key concept of what we learn or know and would learn.

3. **Family Contributions**: The central point here is that parental upbringing and those of the family members have strong influence on people's development of personality.

4. **The Impact of Socialization**: Socialization has to do with the process by which people acquire their personality from the wide range of behaviour potentials they pick from the environment, which they found themselves. By implication the socialization which individuals imbibe not only from their families, but also social and work groups and organizations tend to influence personality

5. **Situational Impact**: Studies have shown that the situation an individual is exposed to e.g. severe punishment, immediate change in fortune, e.g. extreme poverty or wealth, can change that person's personality, although personality of an individual is generally stable over time.

Implication: The implication of studying personality determinants is that the knowledge can help managers in dealing with individual personality differences at work.

The subsequent sections of the unit will provide further details on personality and other factors that influence behaviour in organizations such as technical and vocational education.

3.2 PERSONALITY TRAIT THEORIES

Personality trait theories derive from the psychoanalytic field of psychology of which Sigmund Freud was the chief proponent. According to Gordon Allport, personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his/her unique adjustments to his/her environment. In fact, hundreds of trait factors have been shown to affect individual performance at work, for example leadership factor. Central to the trait theory is that certain personality types can best be adapted to certain jobs. John Holland (1971) a major proponent of trait theory emphasizes the essence of matching of individuals' abilities to particular jobs. His six personality types include the following:

1. Realistic;
2. Investigative;
3. Artistic;
4. Social;
5. Enterprising; and
6. Conventional

The argument here is that individuals seek job environments that are consistent with their personality characteristics. Conventional individuals would be more suited to bureaucratic organizations, while the social type would be more comfortable with the outdoor careers. Some of Holland's theories have received research support.

Another point to note is that matching individuals with jobs through occupational inventories which are intended to isolate individual job or career interest have been in use with success for several decades now. You may have taken one such test if you went for a competitive interview in a big company, such as Chevron, Leventis, and UAC. However, in view of the rigor and technicality associated with psychological tests, most organizations prefer to use application forms and oral interviews in their recruitment exercise.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Describe your experience in one or two selection interviews that you attended anytime in the past

Why do you think you were short-listed for the interview?

3.2 SELF THEORIES

The work place can be seen as a learning system. As proposed in Carl Rogers' learning theory, there are two types of self:

The `I' and the `me'. The 'I' represents the personal self, that is the self we believe to be and strive to become.

The 'I' self consists of individual's psychological process; that is, the way we perceive the world around us. It may also be referred to as 'perceptual self'. It also covers the way we learn and are motivated. These processes or elements of the 'I' self in combination bring out uniqueness in each of us, and in turn, the way we see and relate to employers and other employees.

The 'me' self in us represents the social self: that is the way each of us appears to others, and the way we think we appear to others. The me aspect of the self is closely related to the expectations which others have of us, particularly with reference to our job roles within the organization. The implication of the self theory is that both the employee and the employer will receive mutual benefit if the way the employee perceives his roles is in line with organization's expectation. The concepts of perception and role expectation will be discussed more fully later in the unit.

SELF ASSESSMENT

Summarize in two sentences, what you have understood from this section

3.3 THE LIFE CYCLE AND IDENTITY THEORIES

(a) **Context of Self Identity:** There is a general understanding that work provides an individual with self identity, which is a factor in the development of self-image. The development of a person's identity may come about through learning, and in the context of organizations, self identity may be brought about through identifying and internalizing the best practices (roles) as prescribed by the organization, or by modeling the role behaviours of the best performers.

Based on the above explanation, we can define role identification as follows:

Behavioural attributes which occur when one or more models are provided in the environment. Models are exceptional individuals or performers whom we can learn new behaviour patterns by imitating them and trying to be like them.

With reference to modeling, internalization of behaviour occurs when a person (e.g. a new employee) is placed in a situation where a new behaviour is demanded of him, and he is able to operate successfully in and be identified with that situation or role. You can see, then that identification and internalization of certain distinctive behaviours, which an individual may be identified with, tend to go hand in hand. (See Michael Argyle, 1973; Hersey and Blanchard, 1996).

(b) LIFE CYCLE THEORY

In analyzing one's career life cycle, Ekpenyong (2005) points to Erik H. Erikson, a major psychoanalyst's remedy to personality conflict which could arise when an individual is unable to adjust positively in his developmental or career life. He categorized human life cycle into eight stages in the context of their positive and negative effects as follows:

i. Basic Trust	versus	basic mistrust
ii. Autonomy	versus	shame and doubt
iii. Initiative	versus	guilt
iv.Industry	versus	inferiority
v. Identity	versus	role confusion
vi. Intimacy	versus	isolation
vii.Generativity	versus	stagnation
viii. Ego Identity	versus	despair

In fact, a close analysis of all these elements of life cycle shows that each of them has implication for one's adjustment capability in one's career and development.
The fourth stage of the cycle: industry (work or career progress) and inferiority (inability or lack of self confidence in achieving one's career goals) points to the crises that one may face if one cannot cope with the challenges of life: particularly that which has to do with one's career development. Erikson, consequently advises as follows:

Each youth must forge for himself some central perspective and direction, some working unity, out of the effective remnants of his anticipated adulthood. (Ekpenyong, 2005: 215).

In view of his concern for successful career life of the young ,Erikson directs that a young person must find relationship between what he perceives in himself, that is, what he really is, what he thinks he is, and what his “sharpened awareness tells him others judge and accept him to be. As indicated earlier the implication of being able to adjust oneself to the organizational rules and norms can be the key to success as a member of an organization.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Look at the eight organizational life cycles listed in this section. Assess the aspects in which you are weak, and suggest how you can adjust to the positive end of your life cycle.

3.4 **ROLE BEHAVIOUR**

Before reading this section, think of the school club or youth organization in which you were assigned to carry out certain tasks or functions. What you did there was to play a role. A role may be defined as**: a set of expected behaviour patterns, which are attributed to someone who occupies a certain position in a social unit.**

Every work group can be described as a social unit since each member plays certain prescribed roles. You can best understand role behaviour if you choose a role and play it out regularly and consistently. In deed, there are certain attitudes and actual behaviours, which are consistent with a role. These are what create role identity. If you consistently show exemplary conduct in your class, you will always be associated with such behaviour.

KEY CONCEPT

Role identity is constituted of all those behaviours and attitudes that are consistent with a role played by an individual

Roles are changeable, consequently, when a role is unclear or ambiguous, the individual (role player) may shift or change to another role or set of roles. In strict organizational terms, the concept implies that every role is specifically a set of behaviour expectations. One of the secrets for enhancing members' role performance is to take them through a process of socialization.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Outline some of the key roles you have played in your social or academ ic life.

KEY CONCEPT SOCIALIZATION:

Socialization refers to the process of teaching new recruits (employees), how to get along in the organization, e.g. what the key norms and rules of conduct are, and how to behave with respect to others in the organization – what is often referred to as learning a role.

Courtesy Edger Schein (1988) Organizational Psychology. PrenticeH Hall Inc.

Role Conflict: Divergent expectations from an employee or a member of a group can lead to role conflict. Role conflict is a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations.

Complying with one role requirement, for instance, may make it difficult for a person to comply with another role. For instance, asking a teacher to treat a disciplinary case, which involves the son of the head teacher in the same school, can constitute a serious role conflict to the teacher. Role conflicts occur in various situations, whether in formal or non-formal organizations where an individual is faced with the challenge of playing two or more contending roles.

3.5 PERCEPTION

The term perception is a rather complex information processing or cognitive process that tends to present a unique picture of the world, which in actual fact might be different from what is real. Really what we sometimes receive to be correct may not be so after all. Luthan (1985) draws attention to the fact that recognition of the difference between perceptual world and the world of reality is vital to understanding human behaviour in organizations. This is really important because as a prospective technical teacher and member of the teaching profession or perhaps any other organization, how you perceive your role may be different from the way you are expected to play the role.

As a student-teacher you need to understand too, that the way you perceive your role in organization can affect your productivity and satisfaction level, either positively or negatively.

This brings us to the issue of role expectation. **Role expectation can be defined as an individual's view of how he/she is expected to act (i.e. play a role) in a given situation. Role expectation also refers to how others believe a person (role player) should act in a given situation. As** we saw earlier, perceptual conflict may arise, say in a school organization if a teacher's performance happens to fall below what is expected by management.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Differentiate between perception and expectation.

Recall three occasions when your performance in your class fell below your personal expectation.

KEY CONCEPT

Y: This may be defined as the characteristic, feelings, beliefs or features, which distinguish people from others.

Role Identity is the characteristic feature which identifies one's role

from the others or which identifies one role player from the others.

3.6 PSYCHOLGICAL CONTRACT

Role expectation as defined earlier may be understood in the context of psychological contract particularly at the place of work. Psychological contract can be looked upon as an unwritten agreement that sets out what management expects from employees. Kolb, Ruben and McIntyre (1979) have argued that psychological contract is implicitly formed between the individual and the organization of which he/she is a member, that is, as soon as he/she accepts to work for the former. While the employer is expected to treat the employees justly and provide acceptable working conditions, commensurable with the amount of contribution or work done, the employees on their part, are expected to adopt the right attitude, and keep to the rules of the game by making reciprocal contribution to the growth of the enterprise.

EY CONCEPT

UALITY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

The dynamic quality of the psychological contract imply that an ndividual's and the company's expectations; and the individual's and the ompany's contributions mutually influence one another. High expectation on ne partofthe company can produce increased individual's ontributions, and great contributions will likewise raise the individual's xpectations.

olb, D. Ruben and McIntyre (1985)

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CRITICAL QUESTIONS

A critical analysis of the attitudes of managers of enterprises and those of the employees regarding their expectations of each other can be explained within the context of some vital questions: For instance, management may wish to ask:

1. How best can we manage our employees in order for us to maximize their individual contributions?
2. How best can we socialize our employees so that they can readily accept our rules, norms and expectations to be legitimate?

An employee, could on his/her part, ask:

2. How can I get the satisfaction and rewards that I want from this organization?
3. How best can I manage my own career so that my socialization takes place in organizational atmosphere that can enhance my

personal growth and development?

Honest response to these questions, and adoption of the solutions that could emanate from them should certainly bring about a valid psychological contract between management and their employers.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
What do you see as implications of the above questions to you as a prospective employee or employer?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have learned about a number of psychological factors that tend to influence the way individuals behave in relation to the work they do. Some of these factors include their personality traits, their self identity, and self perception and role expectations. A careful analysis of these behavioural variable shows that the expectations and contributions of an employee, on the one hand, and those of the employer on the other, mutually influence each other.

5.0 SUMMARY

A summary of what you have learned in this unit is given below.
With reference to personality trait factors, we indicated that what is needed to bear in mind is that certain personality types can be matched with certain jobs, as shown by the work of John Holland. Occupational Inventories and psychological tests have been used for the purpose.
It was also shown that there are two types of self, the ‘I’ and ‘me’. The ‘I’ self consists of the way we perceive the world, while the ‘me’ self represents the way we appear to others. In other words, for effective functioning as employees, our perceptions and expectations should be in congruence with those of the employers.
Organization constitutes one system which an individual can establish his/her self identity as defined by his/her roles. The concept of life cycle has been explained

as that which requires positive adjustment. The ability to adjust psychologically enables a person to grow and develop through his/her career life.

The concept of role performance and role identity has been emphasized. Role identity, which enforces self identity consists of all those behaviours that are consistent with certain roles.

Perception has been defined as a cognitive process of which what an individual perceives may be at variance with what is actually real. By implication the way we perceive and interpret events, including our job roles may affect our performance positively or negatively.

Finally, the concept of psychological contract was fully discussed. However, a central point to note is that the benefit we receive from organization, and the benefits organization receives form our contributions can be determined and explained by the form of the psychological contract in operation: that is whether the contract is strong or loose.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. (a) Explain the rationale behind job matching as staff selection method
(b) What advantage does psychological testing have over the selection interview?
2. (a) Identify the two aspects of self theory.
(b) What relevance is this theory to human behaviour in organization?
3. (a) Define the terms identification and internalization. (b) How do they relate to individual's identity?
(c) How may identity crisis come about?
4. (a) What is the importance of socialization in organization?
(b) How may socialization be brought about in a technical institution?
5. (a) Outline three steps which management of a polytechnic or technical college can socialize its new academic staff.

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MODULE 3

UNIT 2
THEORIES OF MOTIVATION: IMPACT ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS

CONTENT

1.0 TRODUCTION

The concept of motivation is often traced to two main sources of psychological ideas. The first set of ideas argues that every human behaviour is caused. This set of ideas is associated with behaviourists such as B.F. Skinner. The second set of ideas argues that every behaviour has a purpose and is directed toward achieving a goal. This set of ideas aligns with the views of those who believe in human cognition or use of human brain in processing information, intelligence (see John Dewey, David Ausubel, and Jerome Bruner).

By way of very simple definition, behaviour is any act of a person or organism. So your standing, sitting; laughing or moving at a given time is a behaviour. Activity is, therefore, the basis of any behaviour. Although all our behaviours involve a series of activities, people differ in their ability to motivate, and in their level and type of motivation. The question that may puzzle your mind as we progress is: why a person engages in one activity rather than another at a given time. To put the question more directly: Which motives or needs induce certain actions at a particular time? I shall use the term 'motives', to mean the inner state that activates or moves a person toward a goal. Inner state, here, refers to all the conditions, which we usually describe as wishes, desires and drives.

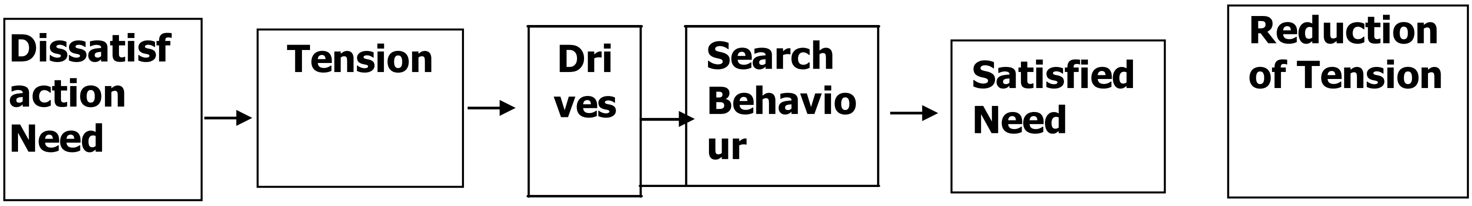
Robbins (1988: 147) defines work motivation as:
The willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by that effort's ability to satisfy some individual needs.

For the purpose of easy understanding, I shall define work motivation as follows:

Work motivation is the spending of effort by an individual toward the accomplishment of a goal which is considered to be worthwhile by the organization

As we can see from the two definitions, generally, motivation is concerned with the achievement of any goal, whereas work motivation is directed toward three objectives – **effort making, meeting organizational goals, and satisfaction of individual needs.** Work motivation process can, therefore, be illustrated as follows:

Fig. M3/2.1: **MOTIVATION PROCESS**



Source: Courtesy Robbins, P. Stephen (1988) Organization Behaviour

Under the main contents of this unit, we shall try to clarify your understanding of the importance of the concept of motivation, particularly work motivation, and the theories that have been formulated in order to enable you be able to do so. So as will be spelt out under the unit objectives, the broad focus of the unit is work motivation and its importance to the students of technical teacher education.

2.0 **OBJECTIVES**

Based on our introduction, at the end of studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define and explain the meaning of motivation.
2. Outline and discuss the early theories of motivation.
3. Outline and discuss some major contemporary theories of motivation.
4. Appraise

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.I DEFINING MOTIVATION

If you do a certain thing such as drinking water, and you are asked why you drank the water you would probably say that you wanted to quench your thirst. In other words, your behaviour of seeking to drink water was caused by something: thirst. It is on this account that some psychologists say that all behaviours are caused, that is that every behaviour is motivated. As human beings, our behaviour is caused or motivated by something inside or outside of us.

3.2 EARLY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The effort to study motivation actually developed in the 1950's (Ekpenyong, 1999; 2000). Among the best known theorists and researchers whose works are still relevant to day are Abraham Maslow, who proposed what is usually referred to as Hierarchy of Needs Theory; Douglas McGregor who propounded the Theory X and Y Theory, and the third prominent contributor is Frederick Herzberg whose theory is normally referred to as 'motivation-Hygiene Theory'.

(a) **Hierarchy of Needs Theory:** Maslow (1968) proposed five hierarchies of human needs, which are subdivided into lower order, needs and higher needs as on the table below.

Table M3/2.1: MASLOW'S HIGHER AND LOWER NEEDS

Types of Need	**Order of Needs**
Physiological needs, Safety needs	***Lower order needs***
Love Self esteem; and Self actualization needs	***Higher order needs***

Lower Order Needs:. **Physiological needs**: These include the following: hunger, thirst, shelter, sex and other similar level of needs

Safety Needs: need for security, protection from physical or emotional harm.

Higher Order Needs:

Love Need: includes need for affection, acceptance friendship, and belongingness.

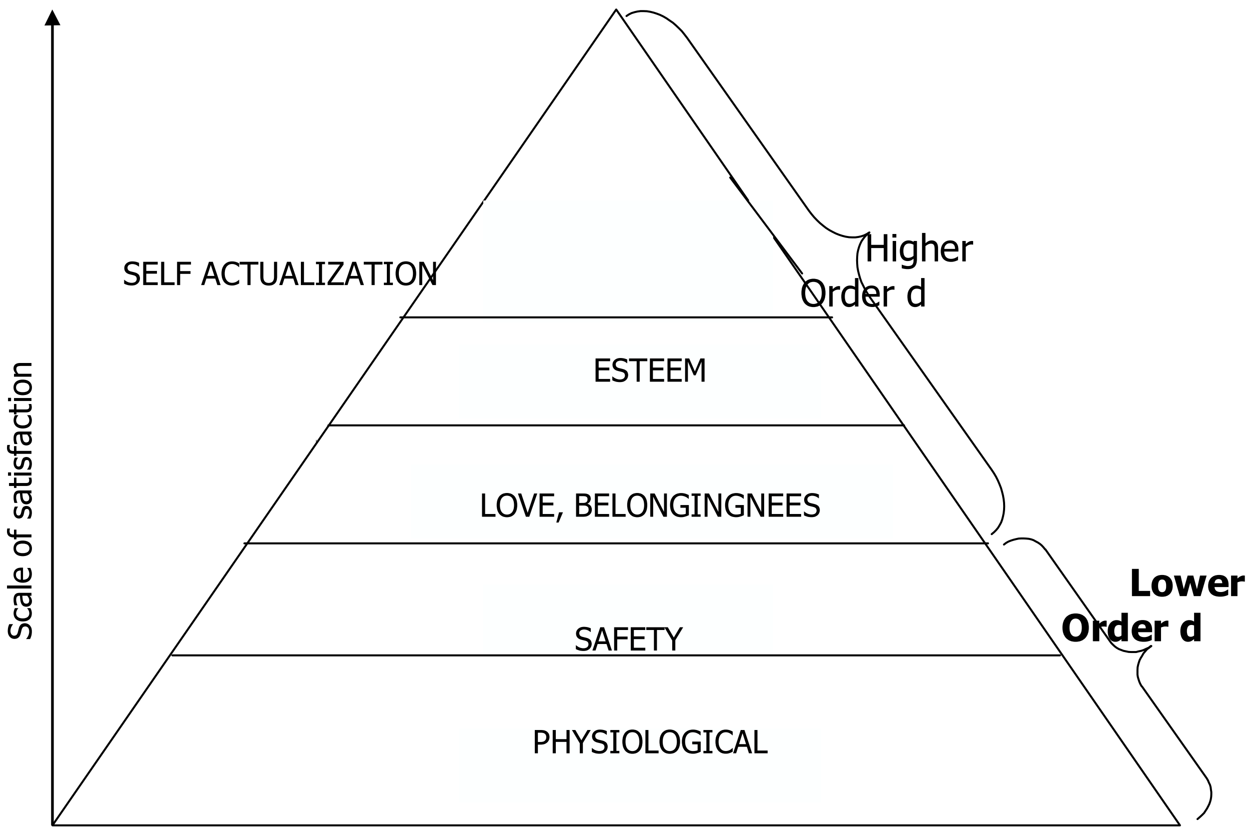
Esteem: includes internal need factors such as self respect, autonomy and achievement, and external need factors such as recognition, status and attention. **Self actualization:** This represents one's drive to become what one is capable of becoming: for example, growth, self-fulfillment, and other forms of ultimate potentials.

One important point which Maslow stressed, is that when each need becomes largely satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. For example, when the need for safety is satisfied, the next need: love, becomes dominant. Maslow also divided needs into two categories, namely 'lower order needs', and `higher order needs': as shown above.

Lower order needs are those that are satisfied externally: physiological and safety needs .Higher order needs are those that can be satisfied internally: need for love, self-esteem and self-actualization.

Maslow's need hierarchy theory has received wide support and publicity by managers, in view of its logical reasoning. However, a number of research findings do not provide conclusive evidence that human needs are actually arranged in the order which Maslow has arranged (see fig M3/2.2)

Fig. M3/2.2: MASLOW'S NEED LADDER



Clarification: The points to be clarified are that:
Needs hierarchy theory is only a convenient way of classifying one's needs

It emphasizes the importance of satisfying people's needs at the place of work
More than one need can dominate at the same time
One need does not have to be to be completely satisfied before another or other needs are satisfied.

3.3 THEORY X AND THEORY Y

Arising from his managerial experience, Douglas McGregor (1960) made two assumptions about human beings. The negative one, Theory Y, sees the individual as one who dislikes work, is lazy and averse to or hates responsibility, and might consequently have to be coerced and punished if he must perform his/her assigned tasks.

Theory Y, on the other hand, takes the opposite position that employees are hard-working, are creative, seek responsibility, and are capable of self direction.

KEY CONCEPTS	
THEORY X	**THEORY Y**
(1) Employees inherently dislike work and, would avoid it, and will attempt to avoid it, wherever possible	(1) Employees can see and treat work as natural as play or rest
(2) In view of employees dislike of work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals	(2) People will exercise self-direction or control if they are committed to the objectives
(3) Employees would avoid their responsibilities and look for official directive whenever they can do so	An average person can learn to accept responsibility
(4) Most workers place greater premium on security then on all other factors which are associated with work and will display little ambition	The ability to make creative and innovative decision is widely distributed within the population and not limited to those in management position alone.

Implication: Going by McGregor's proposition, if higher order needs as put forward by Abraham Maslow dominate human existence, Theory Y by implication becomes more valid than theory X.

Another implication is that the solution for motivating employees lies on their being allowed to:

(a) take part in decision making;

(b) take up challenging responsibilities;

(c) have an atmosphere for good interpersonal relationship in order to attract maximum production from them.

The workability of Theory Y depends on workers being given commensurable rewards for their efforts; and the rewards being comparable to the effort exerted by the employee. However, those who criticize McGregor's theory claim that there is no evidence that theory Y will necessarily work better than Theory X as a motivator. They argue that each of them would work depending on the situation prevailing at the place of work at a given period.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST
What type of motivational approach would you use to reward a friend who always assists you with your assignments, and the one that helps you occasionally.

3.4 MOTIVATION-HYGIENE THEORY

Motivation-Hygiene theory is the name given to Frederick Herzberg's work on motivation. According to the theory (Herzberg, 1968), motivational factors are strictly intrinsic (internal). They include, for example, growth, advancement, recognition and achievements, and relate to job satisfaction

Hygiene factors are extrinsic (external) and are usually associated with dissatisfactory job factors such as organizational policies, conditions of service and interpersonal relationships. More detailed list of the motivation-hygiene factors is presented below:

FigM3/2.3: LIST OF HERZBERG'S MAJOR FACTORS WHICH AFFECT JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION (IN RANK ORDER)

KEY DISSATISFIERS (HYGIENE)	KEY SATISFACTORS (MOTIVATORS)
• Company policy	• Achievement
• Supervision	• Recognition
• Relationship with boss	• Work Itself
• Work conditions	• Responsibility
• Salary	• Advancement
• Relationship with peers	• Growth

NB: The list represents the six major factors, which cause dissatisfaction and satisfaction, respectively.

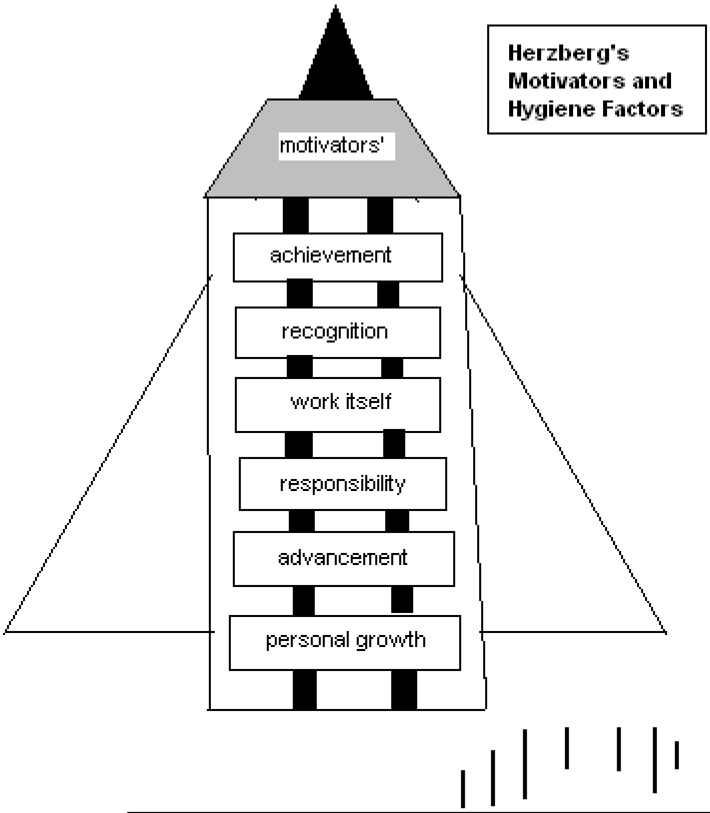
According to Herzberg, the list of the six ranked factors was derived from interviews, which he asked the workers which aspects of their work pleased or displeased them. Herzberg made important but controversial claims about his findings:

that the factors which cause job satisfaction (motivators) are different from those, which cause dissatisfaction (hygiene).

This latter set of factors he referred to as dissatisfaction or hygiene factors. The term `hygiene', was used by Herzberg in the sense that they are considered as maintenance factors, which are necessary to avoid dissatisfaction, although they themselves do not contribute to satisfaction.

Objections: Most readers are not generally in agreement with Herzberg about the distinction he tried to portray concerning motivators and dissatisfiers. He has in many of his works insisted that two human needs are portrayed. First, we have physiological needs that can be fulfilled by money, e.g. the purchase of goods and shelter. The second is the psychological need to achieve and grow, and this need can only be fulfilled by activities that cause one to grow. The illustration below is aimed at showing a clearer distinction between physiological needs which maintain motivating functions and those that or concerned with maintenance functions. See figure below:

Fig. Motivators and maintenance (Hygiene factors)



‘hygiene’ (or ‘maintenance’) factors status securityrelationship with subordinates
Personal life Relationship with peers salary
Work conditions Relationship with supervisor company
policy and administration supervision

Hygiene factors are merely a launch pad – when damaged or undermined we have no platform, but in themselves they do not motivate.

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Implication for management: Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory has serious implication for managers whether they are managers of educational organizations such as technical institutions, public establishments or private companies, as it provides hygiene factors necessary to avoid employees’ dissatisfaction, and also intrinsic factors necessary to enable employees to be satisfied with their jobs. Herzberg calls for the introduction of job enrichment as an important factor in intrinsic motivation, and as a continuous management process. Other points are that:

(a) The job should have sufficient challenge in order to utilize the full capacity of the workers.

(b) Employees who demonstrate increasing levels of ability should be given increasing levels of responsibility.
(c) Where a job cannot be designed with a view to utilizing an employee's full abilities, the organization may wish to replace the employee with one who has a lower or commensurable skill. Where the job content cannot still motivate the employee, it can either be automated or discarded.

If Herzberg's theory is to be of any significance to technical education system or any other system such as government and private enterprises, then the hygiene factors need to be seriously looked into and addressed. In the educational sector, for instance, the authorities have to look at their administrative policies closely to remove any source of frustration. With reference to appointing staff to supervisory positions such as heads of sections and units, wise counsel must be allowed to prevail bearing in mind some good employees (e.g. teachers) may not necessarily make good heads. In the educational section for instance, whether at the lower or tertiary levels, the issue of appropriate salary has often been a major source of dissatisfaction among the staff. Even though according to Herzberg, salary does not rate as a motivator, yet employees want to be paid well for their services.

Good interpersonal relations can be seen as part of the social contract of being a member of a work group or organization. Thus a work environment which allows for effective social interaction between management and staff, among peers, seniors and juniors, through recreation and other activities, can certainly appeal to staff members.
Other hygiene factors such as working conditions and the work itself have great impact in removing or reducing hygiene factors.

Every good organization recognizes the importance of providing the necessary working space and facilities for workers . On the other hand the work itself should assure the individual workers that the work they are doing is important and that their tasks are meaningful. Thus, those job tasks, and assignments that are not necessary or pose unnecessary strain on the workers should either be streamlined or eliminated, to enhance the employees' efficiency.

On the motivational factors side, it needs to be borne in mind that every worker, as theorized by Herzberg, needs achievement, recognition, responsibility and advancement. It should be the duty of management and in fact good management practice to do the following:

1. Set achievable goals and challenge workers' skills and abilities;
2. Give due recognition for work well done;
3. Give employees enough freedom and authority to carry out their tasks in order for them to feel `ownership' of the results.
4. Reward loyalty. Where there are no new positions for workers to be promoted to, create new titles that reflect the employees' level of achievement.

Academic institutions fall among organizations where motivation factors are generally lacking. Applying Herzberg's principles by school management can go a long way to creating new directions in work motivation.

3.5 CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

As should be expected, the theories of motivation which were formulated by Maslow, McGregor and Frederick Herzberg did not only stimulate interest and enquiries, but also resulted in the formulation of further theories of motivation which are generally referred to as contemporary theories of motivation. Some of the theories, as we will soon see, are just a modification of the three original theories of motivation. The theories are discussed below:

a) EXISTENCE, RELATEDNESS AND GROWTH (ERG) THEORY

Clayton Alderfer of Yale University, through his research on Maslow's theory, revised by re-labeling the five needs hierarchy by Maslow to three, namely, Existence, Relatedness and Growth, usually abbreviated as ERG, hence the term, ERG Theory.

The assumption of the theory is that man has three groups of core needs, namely, **existence, relatedness and growth**. Like needs hierarchy, ERG theory proposes that satisfied lower order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher order needs.

You need to note here that the main conceptual difference between Maslow's needs hierarchy and Alderfer's ERG theory is that whereas the former proposes that a lower order need has to be satisfied before a higher one could be satisfied. The latter's claim is that multiple needs could be satisfied at the same time. In fact Alderfer claims the existence of a continuum, rather than a hierarchy of needs. The second point is that any frustration arising from inability to satisfy higher order needs could lead to regression to a lower order need.

KEY CONCEPTS

ERG Theory Suggests three groups of core needs: Existence, Relatedness and Growth

.

Implication: The important point to note about ERG theory of motivation is that it seems to be more consistent with what is commonly known about individual differences. As argued by Robbins (1989), factors such as home background, education and social status can alter the importance or force which a group of needs holds for a particular individual. This explanation suggests that in treating motivational issues, managers should bear in mind that the need to vary the type of motivation they provide to their employees and that what motivates `A' may not be appropriate for `B', for instance, while a pat on the back may be OK for Jane, it may not be satisfactory for Jack.

(b)**THREE NEEDS THEORY**

Three needs theory of motivation, which is almost akin to ERG theory was propounded by D.C. McClelland and Burnham (1976). The theory highlights what are considered to be three important needs: **need for achievement, need for power, and need for affiliation.** The theory sums up as follows:

- people with high achievement needs prefer job situations with personal responsibility; feedback; and intermediate degree of risk

- people with high power need are interested in making others to behave in ways they would normally not like to;

- people with interpersonal needs (affiliation) are desirous of friendly and close interpersonal relationship.

Implications: Available evidence from studies shows that high need to achieve (usually represented with the `arch' notation) does not necessarily make a person a good manager, particularly in large organizations. People with high achievement need tend to be more interested in how they can influence others to do well, rather than on how they themselves can do well (Robbins, 1989).

The importance of this finding lies in the fact that having high achievement need should not be the only yardstick for appointing employees to positions of responsibility. Again in trying to influence subordinates to perform well they themselves should conduct self evaluation, to establish how well they could themselves accomplish the tasks they set target for others.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

1a. **Do you often like to assign tasks to other members of your pee r group?**
1b. **Why do you often do so?**

2b. **If your center course mate asks you to do his assignment for him, how readily would you accept to do so?**

2b. **If not, why?**

c) EQUITY THEORY

One of the contemporary theories which needs to be mentioned here for your understanding is called Equity theory. Equity theories which was proposed by J.S. Adams (1965), states that individuals compare their job inputs and outputs with those of others so as to eliminate inequities. The referent or significant other that an employee selects adds to the complexity of the theory. Two pairs of reference source are often used for comparison:

- **Comparison of self inside the organization**
- **Comparison with others inside and others outside the organization**

Perceived inequity can lead to an employee deciding to change his/her input and output, to distort his perception or the perceptions of others. Perceived inequity may cause a worker to choose a difference referent, leave the organization, the field or profession as a whole.

Perception of Inequity and Employee's Predictable Choices: Where there is perception of inequity, an employee can be predicted to make one of the following six choices:

(1) Changing input, e.g. reducing his/her original effort to work.

(2) Changing his/her outcomes e.g. by increasing his/her pay through, say, additional hours of work (overtime)

(3) Distorting self-perception by rating self higher than originally perceived (e.g I) used to regard myself as an average in my unit, but now I think that my performance is higher than all the others).

(4) Distorting perceptions of others e.g. Eno could tell her friend, Joy that her (Joy) work is as all rewarding as she (Alice) had all along been thinking.

(5) Choosing a new referent to replace the original one owing, perhaps, to the fact that the new referent's job status is perceived to be better than that of the former.

(6) Leaving the job or career to an entirely different one.

POINT TO NOTE

Individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of outcomes or rewards they receive for their efforts but equally on the relationship of the said amount to what others receive.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Consider your career progress with those of your friends who are:

- **in the same institution with you;**

undergoing full-time degree programmes in other universities;

- **working**

Do you observe any equity problem between your achievement and their respective achievements?

General Conclusions It is generally concluded from equity theory that an employee's motivation is, to a large extent, influenced by the relative as well as absolute reward he/she receives. However, a few key issues such as what constitutes inputs (perhaps the amount of energy put on the job) and outputs (the type or quantity of output, i.e. productivity) is not always clear (Richard, Campbell and Campbell, 1977).

d) EXPECTANCY THEORY

Expectancy theory is usually credited to Victor Vroom (1964), who drew his ideas from the cognitive-field theories of psychology (see Ekpenyong, 1990, 2000). In the area of business psychology, the theory represents about the most popular theory of motivation in recent times.

Expectancy theory postulates that people are rational decision makers who through their mental calculation can, from the alternatives facing them, choose the one that appears to have the biggest reward at the time. In other words, the expectancy or what motives an individual is based or instrumental to the valence or value the individual places on a job.

Consequent upon the above proposition, three elements you need to understand about the theory are that individual's goals/achievement needs lead to expectancy which accordingly requires some action which would in turn provide some reward.

The whole process may be expressed as follows:

Fig.M3/2.4: PROCESS IN EXPECTANCY

NEED* → *EXPECTANCY* → *INSTRUMENTALITY* → *VALENCE

KEY POINTS EXPECTANCY THEORY   ***The theory makes the proposition that individuals will expend their efforts, if they believe that the efforts will lead to desired outcome.***
EXPECTANCY   ***Effort/Performance/Linkage: The probability which an individual assigns to the idea that his/her effort will lead to performing a task correctly.***
INSTRUMENTALITY   ***Performance/Reward Linkage: The probability which an individual assigns to the idea that performance will lead to attainment of certain outcomes or rewards.***
VALENCE   ***Out-come/Incentive Linkage: This represents the incentive value of the outcome of one's effort.***

APPLICATION OF THE CONCEPTS:

Expectancy: We defined expectancy as the probability which an individual assigns to the fact that the effort the individual puts on a task will enable him/her to perform the task correctly.

As a student of auto mechanic or any other course, you would certainly not jump to tackling available problem without thinking, and considering in your mind the method that after you have worked with, will give you the correct or satisfactory answer. Your result could be said to be based on the expectancy that the chosen method would result to correct answer. In the same vein, job motivation, in the context of expectancy theory is based on the thinking that a chosen method of work will result in correct performance.

Valence: In every human endeavour, the value of the reward provides the perceived strength or effort necessary to bring about the reward.

Instrumentality: Instrumentality establishes a link between performance and reward, that is, probability assigned or claimed by an individual that performance will lead to certain outcomes or rewards.

When you take an examination, the probability of your performance is that you would be rewarded with a pass grade. Workers, on their part, are moved to put effort to their performance in the expectation of some rewards. This explains why individuals go to work daily because they believe that their performance will result in financial reward at the end of the month.

In the context of expectancy theory, it becomes necessary for managers to ensure that the value of the incentive or reward that employees expect is in line or attractive enough to warrant the effort expended. In real terms, we can say that the value of the expected reward would normally determine the amount of effort that an employee is ready to put on the job or task.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

What amount of effect would you be prepared to put in a job that the value of the incentive fall under the following:

(a) Cash

(b) Certificate of commendation

(c) Souvenir

3.5 REINFORCEMENT THEORY

Reinforcement is one important concept in operant conditioning, a learning theory put forward by B.F Skinner. To understand the nature of operant conditioning, there is need to differentiate it from classical conditioning.

Classical conditioning entails the pairing of unconditional stimulus (e.g., food, water, etc) with the unconditioned stimulus (e.g. a bell, gong, etc.) to bring about a conditioned response. Operant conditioning, simply put, is a type of conditioning which is self operated. Operant behaviour, as characteristics of human beings, refers to the behaviour, which is not consistently elicited (as in classical conditioning) by a particular stimulus but operates in the environment so as to generate consequences. A further simplification of the term is that operant conditioning means learning to make a particular response to secure positive reinforcement, or to escape or avoid painful result or negative reinforcement.

Central to Skinner's (1975) view of the nature of learning process is the concept of reinforcement. Reinforcement is a stimulus, which increases the probability of a response.. Skinner differentiates between positive and negative reinforcement. Food, water or being promoted to a new class may be classified as positive reinforcement while punishment, pain, and so on, represent negative reinforcement. We need to understand that negative reinforcement such as punishment, failing an examination is not altogether bad because, punishment or poor academic performance can produce the stimulus for hard work, which in time could be as useful as positive reinforcement. It needs to be admitted, however, that negative process may not after all be worse than the positive one in the sense that the individual comes in time to a realization that the denial of some favours by say: the father, or scolding by the boss was ultimately for his personal benefit or reward.

KEY POINTS

OPERANT CONDITIONING: Learning to make a particular response in order to secure positive reinforcement or to avoid negative reinforcement: painful stimulation or disapproval.

REINFORCEMENT :

1. In classical conditioning, it means the pairing of unconditioned stimulus with conditioned stimulus, which immediately follows it to bring about a conditioned response.

2. In operant conditioning, it means any stimulus, situation or event that strengthens the response that precedes or comes before it, and induces the repetition of the response. The first stimulus or event that acts to strengthen a learned response without a prior association with other stimuli is called primary reinforcement, while others that follow are called secondary reinforcement.

One of the most fundamental propositions of Skinner is that behaviour can be shaped by reinforcement. When each step in the complex act is reinforced, by the reward of the selected responses, which comprise it, its chains of reflexes are established. In this process, the technique of reinforcement scheduling, that is systematic application of reinforcement becomes of great importance.

Scheduling of Reinforcement: With reference to learning, Skinner indicates that reinforcement could be scheduled or arranged in one of the following four ways:

(a) **Fixed interval**: The first response made after a fixed interval of time is reinforced.

(b) **Variable interval**: The first response made after a variable period of time is reinforced.

(c) **Fixed ratio**: The first response made after a fixed number of responses are made is reinforced.

(d) **Variable ratio**: The first response made after variable number of responses are made.

From research findings, schedules B, C, and D tend to produce higher rates of response than schedule A. Schedule `A' is characterized by burst of response preceding the usual time of reinforcement. This is followed with low rate of response.

3.6 USING REINFORCEMENT AS WORK MOTIVATION TOOL

Many companies, businesses, and government organizations have, sometimes unconsciously, adopted reinforcement principles as a motivational tool for their workers. For instance, apart from salaries and wages, which are given at fixed intervals, other benefits or fringe benefits, are also made available to the workers, some of which are provided at variable intervals, fixed or variable ratios. A study by Luthans and Kreitner (1975) provides a classification of on-the-job rewards. They identify two forms of rewards, namely, material rewards and `contrived-on-the-job' rewards.

Natural rewards: These are in two sub-categories.

(a) **Premach:** Job with more responsibility, job rotation, use of company machinery or facilities for personal use, etc.

(b) **Social:** Friendly greetings, informal recognition, formal recognition or acknowledgement or achievement.

Contrived on-the-job rewards: These are put under the following sub-categories:

(a) Tokens: money, stocks, paid-up insurance policies, lunch tickets and profit-sharing.

Audio-visuals: Private office, office with redecoration, company interactive, feedback about performance, etc.

ulations: Desk accessories, company car, watches, trophies, special assignments, etc.

Consumables: Tea/coffee break treats, free lunches, food baskets, Christmas turkey/chickens, dinner for the family, company picnics etc.

There are indications that some of the rewards such as feedback have a rather powerful reinforcing effect not only on technical and engineering employees' stay on the job (Nadler, 1979), but also on the generality of workers (Ivan Cevich and MaMalon (1982).

Extrinsic and Intrinsic Reinforcers: There is usually the argument as to which of the reinforcers or rewards, namely intrinsic and extrinsic is more effective.

To attempt an answer, let us look at the following definitions by Dyer and parker:

Intrinsic rewards are those that are mediated by the person himself; while extrinsic rewards are externally mediated
by someone, other than the employer himself.

Intrinsic factors are those that are directly related to the actual performance of the job. External factors are the factors that are related to the environment in which the work is being performed. As the authors have explained, all internal factors are essentially individual's internal feelings; just as extrinsic factors are external situations. These external situations are the efforts or incentives, which an employer adopts for the purpose of stimulating an employee's inner feelings towards greater task accomplishment. Thus while the impact of external reward such as money is hard to readily establish. Its over all impact on behaviour of the employee towards matters affecting the organization, could not be ruled out. This explains why fringe benefits and rewards have been widely used to compensate employees. In fact as indicated by Luthans (1989) many dedicated modern organizations continue to look for new ways of compensating their employees.

3.6 GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF WORK

Having discussed some of the theories of motivation, and their applications, and their applications at the work situation, the general principles which these theories have given rise to, and can be used in motivating various categories of workers including teachers are:

(1) Set high expectation not only for the chief executives but also for the workers as high expectation of the chief executive influences employee's motivation.

(2) **Use behaviour modification**: change behaviour of workers by rewarding the right responses.

(3) Use positive reinforcement by

- focusing on positive aspect of job performance
- stating clearly which behaviour will lead to a reward
- using appropriate reward
- administering rewards at variable intervals
- varying the size of the accomplishment
- avoiding giving rewards to those that do not deserve it.
- Using money to motivate employees when they are likely to find it very useful

(4) Recognition: Give formal recognition for good or outstanding performance.

(5) Motivation through work itself:

- make the work attractive to stimulate intrinsic motivation
- use job enrichment to ensure that members are given responsibilities that will give them satisfaction.

(6) Employee participation: Ensure that:

- employees take part in organizational decision making
- employees are allowed to set their own work goals

(7) Competition: Employers can motivate their employees by exposing them to healthy competition either through pairing or placing them on two or more different work groups.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

If extrinsic rewards such as fringe benefits are not important to workers, why do they continue to demand for them?

3.7 OTHER THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

There are other theories of motivation, which are beyond the scope of this work. They include goal setting theory, and. social learning theory.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The conclusion to be drawn from this unit is that the concept of motivation and its theories are rather wide. Consequently, its implications on human behaviour with reference to job performance, productivity and job satisfaction are extensive, and in some cases inconclusive.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have defined and explained the meaning of motivation generally as one's willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organizational goals for the purpose of meeting individual needs.

Among the early theories of motivation we have treated are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which states that needs are arranged in five hierarchies. These are subdivided into lower order and higher needs. Theory X and theory Y by McGregor differentiates between the negative and positive assumptions about the worker's behaviour. How theory Y could be used to foster employee productivity and job satisfaction have been discussed.

Frederick Herzberg's theory discusses the factors, which cause employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction in an organization. Six key dissatisfiers include, company policy, supervision, relationship with boss, work conditions, salary, and relationship with peers. Motivators include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth.

There are a number of contemporary or more recent theories of motivation. The ones we have treated in this unit, owing to their importance include ERG theory, which sees existence, relatedness and growth as central work motivation factors. The theory was propounded by Alderfer based on his research on the early theories of motivation. Three Needs theory by D.C. McClelland and Burnham demonstrate what are considered as the three major needs: need for achievement, need for power, and need for affiliation. The theory describes the type of work the individuals with each of these needs would prefer.

Equity theory, put forward by J.S. Adams, states that individuals compare their job inputs and outputs with those of others like them within their place of work and in other organizations and then respond to remove the inequity. Instances of perception of inequity have been discussed in more detail.

Expectancy theory propounded by Victor Vroom states that people are rational decision makers, and can through their mental calculation, choose from available alternatives facing them, the one that appears to have the biggest reward at the time. Three elements of which are needed for application are that:

Goals/achievement needs lead to expectancy, which accordingly requires some action that would in turn provide some rewards.

The key terms, namely, expectancy, instrumentality and valence have been duly explained and the implications of the theory to practice have been explained. The last but not the least of the theories we have treated is that of Reinforcement which derives from B.F. Skinner's operant conditioning theory. Not really a theory of motivation but has been used widely in business and industry as a way of motivating workers. In relation to operant conditioning we have defined reinforcement as any stimulus or event that strengthens the response which precedes it and induces the repetition of the response.

We have, among other issues, described four ways of scheduling reinforcement This could be done through fixed or variable intervals, and fixed or variable ratios. How intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcers could be used in motivating employees has been demonstrated.

Finally, the general principles of work motivation have been outlined for your careful analysis and digestion.

6.0 **TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

(1a) Differentiate between higher order and lower order needs.

(1b) From your experience do motivational needs follow the direction put forward by Maslow?

(2a) From your experience with your peers, do you think that theory X is totally true?

(2b) Is it true that individuals will behave as indicated in theory Y. Use your experience of the group work you were a member.

(3) Briefly discuss the importance of job enrichment in technical education organizations.

(4) How important are the groups of needs, which are classified as ERG? (5a) What is equity theory?

(5b) How is it important in the motivation of technical teachers or other classes of workers?

(6) Briefly discuss the implication of equity theory in technical or other academic institutions.

(7) Differentiate between positive and negative reinforcement and among the following reinforcement schedules: (a) Fixed interval and variable interval; (b) fixed and variable ratio.

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MODULE 3: HUMAN BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANIZATIONS UNIT 3: LEADERSHIP AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The issue of leadership in organization including education often causes a variety of interesting questions. Some of these include the nature of a leader, the extent of his influence within the organization.

One of the challenges that often faces management of organizations is on how to provide appropriate leadership. The type of organization, its goals, social and political influence on the characteristics and orientation of its leadership. As Amitai Etzioni has demonstrated, certain types of organization, namely, coercive (e.g. concentration camps) and prisons, utilitarian organizations (e.g. formal or bureaucratic organizations and normative organizations) (e.g. churches and mosques) go with distinctive leadership features. From the point of theory, coercive organizations are characterized by tyrannical and authoritarian leadership. Utilitarian organizations are characterized by legal-rational or bureaucratic leadership, while normative organizations are based on a type of leadership that tends to draw moral involvement from their members.

To simplify the introduction, think of your secondary school days when you were appointed to one or two of the following positions:

(i) Prefect in charge of student discipline;

(ii) Labour prefect;

(iii) President, student religious movement

Situation I: If you treated the students with hostility because of their stubbornness, you were acting as a coercive organizational leader, who expected submission, but got a sense of alienation from the subordinates;

Situation II: If you gave positive reward to the students that did their work as directed, but punished those who did not do it as directed, you were operating as a leader of utilitarian organization, who reward performance on the basis of authority they have. This leadership behaviour makes the workers to be calculative in the type of support they give to the leader.

Situation III: If you functioned as student leader of a religious or any other group in your school, you were operating under a normative type of organization in which the moral characteristics of a leader forms the basis for drawing in members, (e.g. church).

As demonstrated in Etzioni's (1964) treatment of different power types in relation to leadership and subordinate involvement, and as I have illustrated in this introduction, leadership can mean different things to different organizational systems. However, for the purpose of this unit we will concern ourselves with leadership as it relates to formal organizations, with particular attention given to technical education later in the unit.

2.0 **OBJECTIVES**

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

1. Understand the meaning of leadership
2. Understand the relationship between managing and leading
3. Understand the behaviour of effective leaders
4. Appreciate the benefits and disappointment of leadership
5. Evaluate the approaches to study of leadership: trait, behavioural, situational, contingency
6. Understand leadership in technical education: three dimensional study of leadership
7. Understand what teachers expect from school leaders
8. Ways of developing leadership potentials.

3.0 **MAIN CONTENT**

3.1 **MEANING OF LEADERSHIP**

As indicated in our introduction, the concept of leadership has received enormous theoretical and research findings from various management study groups and individuals. To facilitate your easy understanding of the subject we intend to limit ourselves to the most essential aspects of the subject. For a start, to establish what leadership is, we shall define who a leader is.

One of the most quoted definitions of a leader is provided by Raven, who sees him/her as:

Someone who occupies a position in a group, influences others in accordance with the role expectation of
the position and coordinates and directs the group in maintaining itself and reaching its goal.

The central role of a leader, as by this definition involves influencing, coordinating, directing, all of which are intended to enable the group to maintain itself and reach its goal. The variety of definitions given to leadership accordingly derives from who a leader is. Now examine these two definitions of leadership:

(1) **The process of influencing others to achieve certain objectives (Dubrin, 1990: 306).**

(2) **The process of directing the behaviour of others towards the accomplishment of some objectives (Certo, 1994: 317)**

The point to draw from the two definitions is that leadership involves a process of influencing, directing, or causing an individual or group to act in a certain way to achieve a given objective. In essence, therefore, we shall describe leadership as:

a process by which one person influences or directs other people to accomplish set objectives. It also involves the process of directing an organization in a way that will make it more cohesive and coherent in its activities.

In every leadership situation, therefore, the need to have things accomplished through people becomes paramount.

3.2 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

To proceed further, we need to differentiate managing and leading. Managing involves a much wider range of activities, namely, the careful assessment of a situation as well as the systematic selection of what is to be done to achieve organizational goals.

Specifically, management involves the following:

i. developing strategies,

ii. providing or sourcing for the required resources iii. designing the right organizational system

iv. directing and controlling all requisite activities needed to achieve selected purpose

v. providing the necessary reward system to induce workers commitment

Leadership can be seen as a subset of management and comprises mainly interpersonal, influencing and goal achievement functions. The term `interpersonal' depicts the extent to which a leader can interrelate with his/her followers. `Influencing' on the other hand, shows how the leader can use his power to cause subordinates to do what he wants them to do without necessarily using force. Every good leader seeks to achieve his set goals.

From the above explanation, you can see that leadership skill is important for everyone in managerial position; as characteristics such as knowledge, courage and confidence, effective communication and strong desire to lead, usually tend to play out in the behaviour of those in leadership positions. Indeed leadership stands out as a key component of a manager's responsibilities, particularly the aspects that have to do with motivation and interpersonal communication skill.

KEY POINT LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGING

Leadership, as one of the four primary activities comprising the influencing function, is a subset of management. Managing is much broader in scope than leading and focuses on the behavioural as well as non-behavioural issues. Leading emphasizes mainly behavioural issues.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

In your own word explain what you understand by leadership. From your observation of your head of department, do you see him/her as administrator or leader?

3.3 BEHAVIOUR FOR EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

The following are behavioural characteristics, that are associated with effective leadership.

1. **Technical competence**: A good leader must possess the technical and professional competence associated to the group he/she is leading.

2. **Insight**: Insight connotes a depth of understanding, great intuition and common sense, all of which are critical in managing people and situations.
3. **Sensibility to people's needs**: a good leader must be sensitive to the needs and feelings of the people that are under his/her leadership

Other characteristics of effective leadership have been found to include:

- Possession of good work habit that subordinates could emulate;
- Demonstrating stable character when under pressure;
- Being supportive of subordinates; and
- Ability to recover from setback, whether with respect to organizational or personal problems
-

3.4 BENEFITS OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership Conveys a variety of benefits to the position holder. This explains why people tend to change their known behavioural dispositions, sometimes in a surprising way. This is because a person in leadership position suddenly experiences the following:

i) A feeling of power and prestige – which tends to bring about recognition to the holder
ii) Increase in income and control of big budget.
iii) Opportunity for even greater advancement and self actualization. iv) Respect and status go with leadership too.
v) It provides opportunity to help others.

On the negative side, leadership could cause holders to be involved in corruption as characteristic of Nigerian leaders. Sometimes the demands on a leader by relatives, friends, and political associates could cause the incumbent to get into illegal deals, which may in turn lead to disgrace, if not some terms of imprisonment. The pressure from work, isolation from former friends could also count as part of the frustration of leadership. In fact the ultimate on the negative side of leadership involves misuse of authority and abuse of power.

3.5 EARLY APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP

The early studies of leadership styles followed the concern to establish specific personality variables that mark individuals out as good leaders. The first effort to identify leadership styles into different independent dimensions was by Late Kurt Lewin, whose research led to his classifying leaders into the following types; (a) autocratic; (b) democratic; and (c) laissez-faire.
Other major early studies on leadership style are divided into two broad categories: (a) trait approach, and (b) behavioural approach.

(1) **Trait Approach:** In the thinking of trait theorists, great leaders have key traits that mark them out from other human beings. One aspect of this theory is based on what is called `Great Man Theory', which assumes that great leaders are born not made. They gave examples of great leaders such as Mahatma

Ghandi, Abraham Lincoln and Adolph Hitler. A subset of the first group assumes that if the character traits of a good leader can be identified, individuals could be trained to develop them. Owing to the fact that trait researchers tried to describe leadership characteristics in more precise terms, their effort, was not very successful in identifying such specific attributes.
However, we may wish to note the efforts made by R.D. Mann in this area. His findings on leadership characteristics are listed below:

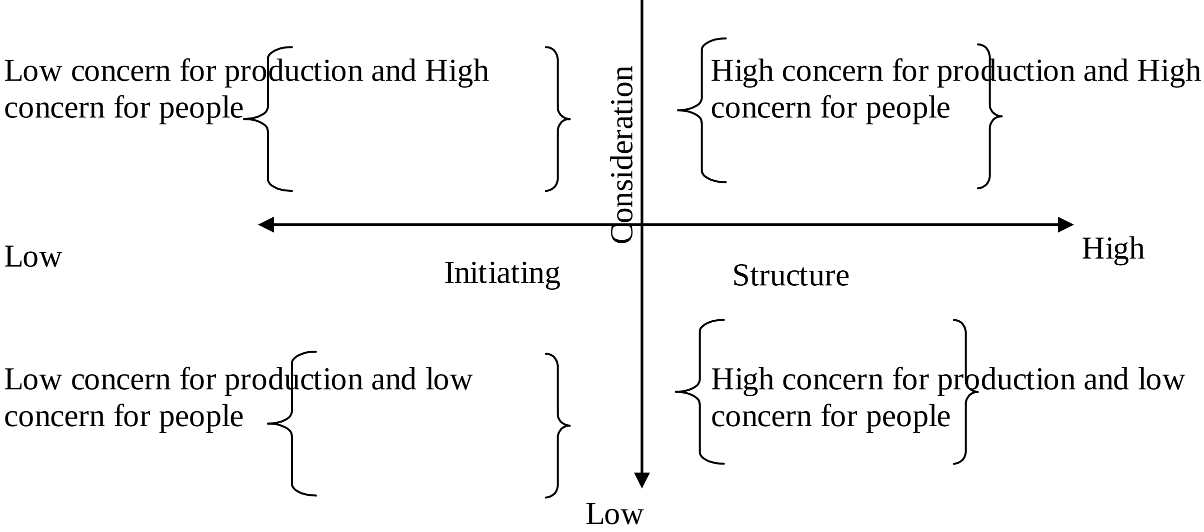
- Intelligence including judgment, and verbal ability.
- Past achievements in scholarship and athletics.
- Emotional maturity and stability.
- Dependability, persistence, and continuing achievement
- The skill to participate socially and adapt to various groups
- A desire for status and socio-economic position.

Although traits such as listed above appear to be characteristic of some individuals, to apply them generally can only be misleading, for as research findings have shown, no single trait or a combination of them can be said to indicate clearly that a person will be successful as a leader.

2) **Behavioural Approach to Leadership:** Early behavioural approach to the study of leadership was based on studying the behaviour of the follower; the social, economic and the cultural or environmental context of the organization in which the leader operated was not considered.
The basic assumption of behavioural theories was that if there were specific behaviours that identified leaders, then it would be possible to develop such attributes in individuals through training. On the basis of this reasoning, a number of studies were conducted on behavioural styles of leaders. Among these were the studies conducted at the Ohio State University and at the Michigan State University in the 1940s.

The Ohio Studies: The objectives of the studies were to identify independent dimensions of leadership behaviour. The studies identified two leadership styles, namely, consideration and initiating structures.
Consideration style: This is defined as a tendency of a manager or leader to show concern for his followers' comfort, status and satisfaction.
Initiating Structure style: This clearly defines the role of the follower, so that, the follower knows what the leader or management expects of him. The responsibilities of the subordinates and the communication channels for example are clearly defined.
The dimensions of leadership behaviour can vary from high to low with reference to consideration for person orientation, and also with reference to initiating structure, that is in terms of task orientation. The two leadership styles are illustrated below:

FIG. M3/3: TWO DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES



It is important to note that although initiating structure and consideration dimensions of the quadrant are linked, people who are high on one dimension are not automatically low on the other dimension. In other words, the two dimensions are different. Consequently, a leader may be high in his/her concern for production and equally show concern for the subordinates' job satisfaction.

University of Michigan Leadership Study: The goal of the study was to determine the pattern of leadership behaviours that mould result in effective group performance. From the finding of the study, two forms of leadership behaviour were identified: They are:

i. Job-centred leadership behaviour;

ii. Employee-centred leadership behaviour pattern.

It was on the basis of these findings that Robert Blake and Jane Mouton developed what they called managerial grid, while Rensis Likert developed what he called "system 4 model".

For the purpose of this work, we shall not go into a detailed description of these forms of leadership. However, it should be of interest to you that Managerial Grid identifies a range of management behaviours which include task-centred and employee- centred styles. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid ranges from the lowest (1) to highest continuum (5). The 1.1 style managers are considered to be the least effective type of managers while the 9,9 type are considered to be the best managers (Team Managers). When the task = centred and employee-centred behaviours are combined, they bring about five styles of leadership which are shown below:

1, 1: This style of management represents impoverished management – with low concern for people and low concern for tasks, but just fair enough for the manager to stay out of trouble

9, 1: Represents produce or perish management/leadership style. It connotes high concern for production and efficient performance, but has low concern for employees'. The main concern is on how to meet organizational goal.

5, 5: Represents middle-of-the-road management/leadership style. The concern for production and for the employee satisfaction is on a '50 : 50' basis. This style leadership style is used to ensure that employees' morale is kept at a level that can just keep the organization going.

9, 1: Management represents `Country Club' management/leadership style, with high concern for the employees, but low concern for production . The objective of this style is to create an atmosphere of comfort and trust for employees so that the manager can draw their support and trust.

9,9: Management is what is often referred to as "team management or democratic leadership". It is regarded as the most effective management style .This style of management seeks to foster high production and employee satisfaction and sense of commitment.

KEY POINT

Managerial Grid: Unlike initiating structure an consideration styles, which are independent of eac other, job-centred andpeople-centred styles are considered to be at opposite end of a single dimension (or continuum). ***d h***

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

1) ***What do you see as the difference between initiating structure/consideration styles of leadership?***

2) ***a) Describe the difference between initiating structure/consideration and job-centred and people center style.***

(b) Which of these would you prefer and why?

3. **System 4 Management:**
A system 4 management style provides an additional dimension to the theory of leadership behaviour. System 4 Management identifies four styles of leadership.
System 1: Exploitative Authoritative style: Managers with this style make all the work related decisions and order their subordinates to comply. Standards and methods of work are rigidly set by the manager. Failure to meet deadline and organizational goals is punished.

System 2: Benevolent Authoritative: This type of manager, just as their exploitative counterparts, still issue orders but do allow subordinates to make decisions, which must of course be within the limit allowed by the manager himself. Benevolent authoritative managers are likely to reward subordinates who exceed set goals.

System 3: Consultative. This category of managers set goals and issue orders after discussing with the subordinates. Subordinates are allowed to make their decisions in relation to their specific tasks, though such decisions are to be in line with the general organizational objectives. Subordinates are also allowed to discuss most work related matters with their managers. This type of manager is of the view that subordinates can be trusted to perform their responsibilities as expected.

System 4: Participative: System 4 style of management, according to Likert is more ideal when compared with the three others discussed. It is regarded as the system which organizations should work because groups make work related decisions in relation to set goals. Subordinates are made to feel a sense of worth and belonging rather than intimidation and threat. Work standard exists not for the purpose of judging members' performance, but to enable them appraise their performance accordingly. Over-all, System 4 allows for effective interaction between management and the workers.

4. **Application:** The advantage of System 4 management is that it draws the attention of managers, and in turn the workers such as teachers to the management style that is likely to bring about a productive and satisfied work-force, and those that would only do so partially or minimally. A head of academic institution that adopts System 4 is certainly going to have a more satisfying system than others.

3.6 SITUATIONAL APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP

What we know today is that types and contexts of organizations have some important influence on leadership styles. Consequently, emphasis has in recent years shifted from trait and behavioural to situational approach to the study of leadership.

Situational Leadership: The assumption behind situational approach to leadership is that all cases of successful leadership are somewhat different and therefore, require a unique combination of leaders, followers, and leadership situations. In simple terms, successful leadership is a function of the leader, the follower and the situation. So effort at leadership becomes successful, when there is an appropriate march between the leader, the follower and the situation.

Application: If the situational leadership style were to be applied in a technical school system, a successful school system would be determined by appropriateness or congruence existing between the principal, the teachers and the situation which instructional and administrative activities are conducted. For instance, in the area of decision making, if the leader's approach is in congruence with the expectation of the teachers, that is, where the head seeks input from the teachers and under a conductive and trusting environment, leadership effectiveness is to be expected.

3.7 LEADERSHIP IN TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Although the terms such as `initiating structure' and `consideration', `democratic' and `consultative', and others mentioned in this unit have often been used interchangeably when analyzing leadership style dimensions, the defect in doing so lies in their two-dimensional nature, and also lack of exact meaning when applied to different organizational contexts. This is because different organizations such as education have their ideological or cultural differences.

Three Dimensional Studies of Leadership Styles: According to the experts and researchers in education, two dimensional definitions are not suitable for educational organizations. Among such researchers are Belasco and Alluto (1975; Nias, 1980a, 1980b; Halpin, 1966; Yukl, 1975).

To solve the problem associated with two dimensional definitions of leadership styles, Yukl (1975) came up with three dimensions of leadership styles, which he defined as follows:

(i) **Initiating Structure**: The degree to which a leader defines and structures his own role and those of his subordinates towards goal attainment.

(ii) **Consideration**: the degree to which a leader acts in a warm and supportive manner and shows concern and respect for his subordinates.

(iii) **Decision Centralization**: The degree of a leader's influence over group decision.

Some authorities in education consider the three dimensions of leadership styles as being more appropriate in analyzing leadership in educational organizations than the ones that are based on two dimensions. One study of leadership and job satisfaction in a British School System (Nias, 1980b) indicates clearly that each of these leadership dimensions is useful in reclassifying leadership. These types are referred to as passive, positive, and bourbon. Let us see how these dimensions are described under: (a) Initiating structure, (b) Consideration, and (c) Decision centralization dimensions.

Initiating Structure: Under initiating structure, passive leaders tend to: (i) set low professional standards;

(ii) show low level of personal involvement in the affairs of the institutions or divisions they manage;

(iii) they are inefficient in administration.

(b) **Positive leaders**: This category tends to: (i) set high professional standard;

(ii) show high personal involvement in the affairs of their institutions

(c) **Bourbon (care free type):** This type of leader is inefficient in the administration of their institutions

Studies have shown the difference between institutional heads that operate as administrators and those that operate as leaders (Hoyle and Bell, 1972). Whereas institutional administrators are primarily concerned with maintaining established structures, procedures and goals; those who work as leaders are concerned with changing the structures and procedures for attaining the goals of their institutions, or with changing the goals themselves.

KEY POINT

A head of an academic institution that by good administration implicitly moves the school goals from a collection of individual aspirations in the direction of a coherent policy could correctly be described as a leader.

Adapted from Jeniffer Nias, (1980, 26)

In the area of commitment, teachers perceive positive leaders as concerned with setting high professional standards e.g. punctuality, and commitment to work. In contrast, passive heads are seen by their teachers as low in setting standards, e.g. on punctuality, and lacking in commitment to their school. Inefficiency on the part of school heads tends to seriously frustrate their subordinates. This explains why workers in school organizations are usually unhappy with bourbon (Laissez faire) heads of schools.

Consideration: With the reference to consideration, the following characteristics are associated with:

(a) **Passive leaders**

(i) Not easy to contact or talk to,

(ii) Do not support individual members of staff

(b) **Positive type**

(i) Are readily available, for discussion with staff

(ii) Interested in the individual development of the staff

(c) **Bourbon type:** Treats individual staff members as inferior

An additional point to note under `consideration' type, is that positive leaders are personally visible and accessible and tend to be more concerned with the professional development of their workers. On the contrary, staff consider passive leaders as personally inaccessible and unable or unwilling to offer support to their staff.

Characteristics of Decision Centralization: Under decision centralization:

Passive leaders – Are shown to have no perceived aims of their roles as leaders.

Positive leaders - These demonstrate the following characteristics:

i. Give a lead in establishing the goals of the institution

ii. Encourage participation in goal setting and decision making.

Bourbon: Do not encourage, and would not allow participation in institutional decision making

3.8 WHAT TEACHERS EXPECT FROM THEIR INSTITUTIONAL LEADERS

When we compare the expectations of school or academic staff of tertiary institutions, with those of employees in other organizations, we find that the expectations of their leaders are basically the same. For instance staff of educational institutions like those of other organizations are dissatisfied with leaders who:

- Lack a sense of purpose or common standard,
- Lack consistency, continuity or direction in their institutional policies.

Expectations: Staff of educational institutions expect their leaders to:
- build a team from his teachers and supporting staff,
- establish their institutional, faculty or departmental goals,
- set direction for the school system or subsystem,
- share decision making on matters affecting the institution. Staff would on their part:
- React negatively against heads that are `bourbon'
- Operate a `mock democracy'
- Give the staff no opportunity to set goals and make decisions.

3.9 WAYS OF DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP POTENTIALS l

Leadership potentials whether in general education or technical and vocational education can be developed using a variety of techniques, some of which are stated below:

- **Education and Training**

This should include programmes on organizational behaviour, supervision, human relations, and group dynamics.

- **Leadership Experience**

Although training on leadership is useful, attempt to tap from the past experience of those who have worked as departmental heads and in supervisory position should be brought to bear on newly appointed leaders.

- **Modeling Technique**

This involves observing and trying to imbibe the leadership behaviour of good leaders.

- **Self Confidence**

Trying to build or gain confidence oneself as a leader.

4.0. CONCLUSION

What can be concluded from this unit is that leadership plays a major role in the effective management of an organization such as education. In view of the central role of leadership in the achievement of organizational goal, it is therefore essential for individuals in management or supervisory positions to learn about different leadership styles in order to apply the most appropriate ones when occasion demands.

5.0 SUMMARY

We started the unit by describing a leader as someone who occupies a position in a group and directs the members with a view to achieving organizational goal. One definition of leadership is that it involves the process of directing the behaviour of others towards accomplishment of some objectives. Management implies the development of strategies and providing resources, among others, while leadership is concerned with interpersonal relationship influencing and goal achievement functions. Behaviour required for effective leadership includes technical competence, insight, and sensibility to people needs, among others. The unit has also outlined and discussed the benefits and negative aspects of leadership. The following approaches to the study of leadership styles have been discussed. These include trait and behavioural approach of which too dimensions of leadership, namely, consideration and initiating structure and system 4 styles have been discussed in detail. Two other forms of leadership styles, which have been duly discussed are task/employee centred and situational and leadership styles.

With reference to leadership in educational organizations, three dimensions of it namely, initiating structure, consideration, and decision centralization have been explained. How passive, positive and bourbon leaders operate under initiating structure, consideration, and decision centralization has been fully explained and should be noted by the student.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Differentiate between the role of a school leader and a school manager

2. Discuss the trait, and behavioural approach to the study of leadership styles in organizations

3. What is the difference between initiating structure and consideration styles of leadership?

4. Explain the assumptions behind:

(a) Situational leadership; (b) Contingency leadership.

5. Explain the behavioural characteristics of passive, positive and bourbon technical leaders under the following leadership dimensions:

(a) Initiating structure, (b) Consideration,
(c) Decision decentralization

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MODULE 4: EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND TERMS CONTENT
UNIT 1: Job description and job specification UNIT 2: Exit interview and job restructuring UNIT 3: Process of job finding
UNIT 4: General conditions of service in TVE

MODULE 4: EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND TERMS UNIT: 1 JOB DESCRIPTION AND JOB SPECIFICATION

1.0 INTRODUCTION
2.0 OBJECTIVES
3.0 MAIN CONTENT
4.0 CONCLUSION
5.0 SUMMARY
6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT
7.0 REFERENCES

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One subject matter which has a significant role to play in institutional administration and management and which college teachers (as prospective managers in education) should understand centres around the issue of staff employment and working conditions. This first unit of this module focuses on the subject matter of job description and personnel specification.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1. Define and describe methods of preparing a job description.
2. Describe the contents of a job description.
3. Develop a job description for technical teachers.
4. State the objectives of a job specification
5. Describe the Roger’s Seven Point Plan - an instrument specifying jobs.
6. Steps in developing a job specification.
7. Job specification matrix for junior and senior staff

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1. JOB DESCRIPTION

The first stage in filling a vacancy in public and private organizations such as academic institutions and business establishments can be completed long before any vacancy or vacancies arise. The first stage involves the production of a job description. A job description slates the purpose, duties and conditions that are essential in a job. It should contain the maximum number of facts. It should describe the job as it really is, and not how the job holder or his/her manager thinks it ought to be.

A job description can be prepared in a number of ways. The most practical methods include the following:

- Questioning the job holder or studying the diaries of the job holder;
- Analysis of the job by experts;
- Observation of the job;
- Participation in performing the job

The method chosen should be determined by the actual circumstances of the job.

3.2. CONTENT OF JOB DESCRIPTION

In general a job description should cover the following:

(i) **Identification of the Job**: This includes (a) job title; (b) number of people in the job; and (c) officer to whom the job holder is responsible.

(ii) **Purpose**: This entails making a brief and unambiguous statement of the main purpose of the job and the reason why the job exists.

(iii) **Responsibility for key results**: The responsibilities which the job holder has for men, materials, money etc., should be spelt out. Generally, this section contains a list of the results that must be achieved. It is imperative that the end results be quantifiable, whenever possible in order for it to be clear whether either the quantity or quality have been achieved.

(iv) **Leisure Activities**: Hobbies of different types.

For the manager, the key results will concern the following:

- Product of programme;
- Utilization of resources: in terms of efficiency and quantity of output.
- Personnel, especially in the handling and development of subordinates
- It may also be necessary to specify:

(i) The number of people controlled

(ii) The degree of control, e.g., part-time or full-time supervision, recruitment, development, discipline, dismissal, and salary determination.

Financial aspect such as:

- Budgeting or cost control;
- Type and value of assets including stock responsibility for sales
- Purchasing or investment;
- Responsibility for forecasting and planning

(c) **Guidance:** How much supervision can be expected?

(d) **Relationships:**

- who does the job holder work with?
- what is the nature of each relationship – liaison, delegation, etc?

(e) **Physical Conditions**

- where is the work?
- what are the hours of work?
- is the work physical, active or sedentary?
- are there accident or health bonuses?
- what physical demands are made on the job holder's sense or physical endurance, strength and skills?

(f) **Pay and Promotion:**

- What is the salary, increment, commission, or bonus?
- What are the arrangements for pension, illness, housing, or car?
- What are the prospects for promotion and transfers?

It should be noted that in general, that it is only the results that are specified. Definitions of how the job is done should generally be avoided. The box gives an example of a job description.

Table M4/1:1 Job Description Matrix I

1	**JOB IDENTIFICATION**: e.g. job title, location, department, who the job holder is responsible to;
2.	**PURPOSE OF THE JOB**: A brief and clear statement of the main purpose of the job (and how it has arisen)
3.	**RESPONSIBILITIES:** To different categories of workers, materials, and physical resources
4.	**RELATIONSHIPS:** Who does the job holder work with; nature of relationships – liaison, delegation etc.
5.	**PHYSICAL CONDITION:** The environment of work, hours of work, etc.
6.	**SOCIAL CONDITION:** Will the work entail the job holder working in a team? What type of people will he/she have to deal with?
7.	**PAYMENT & PROMOTION:** What is the level of salary, incremental rate, bonuses, pension/gratuity? Are there amenities such as housing, car loan, etc.

3.3 TECHNICAL TEACHER JOB DESCRIPTION

A standard job description for technical teachers or for lecturers in tertiary institutions should delimit and spell out the general functions and responsibilities associated with each level of his/her job. It should, for instance, indicate the following:

1. **Job Identification:** Post, location or the institution, class/grade of students taught
2. **Responsibility:** (i) To the employing and related agencies: university/college/governing council; school management bodies, the NUC, NBTE, NCCE, Teachers' Commission and Ministry of Education. (ii) To the Vice Chancellor/Rector/Provost, Principal/other senior staff and professional bodies
3. **Professional Functions:**
   i. Academic (b) Administrative (c) Management
4. **Leisure Activities:** These include club and other hobbies

The four sections of job description derive from our job description matrix (Job Description Matrix II) which is shown in the box below. The matrix is useful for developing not only job description but job specifications for academic heads of institutions, as the illustrated job specification for a principal of a technical institution will show. The model could be modified for different levels of teachers and lecturers.

Table M4/1.2: JOB DESCRIPTION MATRIX II: FOR EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

JOB TITLE	ROLE LEVEL	RESPONSIBILITY	MODE OF FUNCTION	RELATION SHIP
PRINCIPAL	Executive	To: - Management Board - Ministry of Education and related agencies - PTA	Academic Admin/Management Co-curricular	Examining bodies. Government agencies, staff/student bodies, PTA, community
VICE PRINCIPAL (ACADEMIC) VICE PRINCIPAL (ADMINISTRATION)	Executive Support	Principal	Academic/Administrative	Staff/student bodies
HEADS OF DEPARTMENT	Middle management	Principal	Academic/ Administrative	Inter departmental staff
CLASS TEACHERS	Operatives	Head of Department	Instructional/Administra -- tive/co-curricular	Staff/students

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

With your idea of job description matrix develop a job description matrix for
(a) Chairman of your youth club
(b) Financial Secretary of your youth club

JOB SPECIFICATION

Job specification as you learned earlier, is the second most important personnel record which every worker including the teacher should be provided with. In fact it should be regarded as a worker's work guide because unlike job description, which gives a general view of what a job is about, this provides a more detailed statement of the mental and physical activities which are involved in a person's job. Specifically, the objective of a job specification is to describe the person suited to fill a job position in relation to the requirement of the job or position. It is obtained by examining the job description and deciding a person's qualities that are, (a) essential, and, (b) desirable for successful accomplishment of the job role.

The Roger's Seven Point Plan: As mentioned earlier in the unit, the Roger'r Seven Point Plan has become one of the most preferred tools for developing a worker's job specification. The Seven Point Plan has the following headings:

1. **Physique, health and appearance**
2. **Attainments:** education,
   - work experience
   - experience
3. **General intelligence**
4. **Special aptitude**
5. **Interest**
6. **Disposition and temperament**
7. **Circumstances (home or work place)**

3.4 DEVELOPING A JOB SPECIFICATION

As you have seen in the preceding section, the Roger's 7-Point Plan could be used directly or modified to develop personnel specifications for various types of job positions.

It is, however, essential to note the following when developing a job specification:

1. The specification should be jointly discussed by both the personnel officer, supervisor, or appropriate schedule officer with the job holder;
2. The job tasks should be broken into appropriate parts, possibly as close as possible to the 7-Point Plan.

3. For teachers and lecturers, it should state in clear terms, the teaching, administrative and co-curricular components of their work.

4. It should state to whom the staff is directly responsible to.

5. It should be flexible and subject to amendment or change, wherever it is necessary to do so.

6. It should be revised annually or whenever it is necessary to do so.

THE 7-POINT PLAN MODEL OF JOB SPECIFICATION

To develop a job specification for any position, using the 7-Point Plan, you may wish to use the example which follows. Suppose we are to employ a pick-up bus driver for an examination body such as NABTEB, WAEC or NECO, and his job will require delivering examinations materials to distant locations in the northern and other geo-political zones of Nigeria, certain levels of attributes as spelt out in the

7-Point Plan would have to be met. For instance, the job will involve route planning and certain amount of clerical duties associated with documentation and signature of delivery.

Table M4/1.3: JOB SPECIFICATION MODEL FOR A DIVER

	JOB HOLDER: EXAMINATION BOARD DRIVER		
1.	PHYSICAL/HEALTH CONDITION:	Essential Desirable	Able to pass medical examination – no serious complaints. Able to lift and carry large parcels. Normal eyesight and hearing Acceptable appearance
2.	ATTAINMENT:	Essential Desirable	Able to read and write. Able to read maps. Vehicle license Able to plan routes. Knowledge of education industry. Knowledge of six geo-political zones of Nigeria
3.	INTELLIGENCE:	Essential	NOT in the bottom 25% of the population
4.	APTITUDE:	Desirable	Mechanical aptitude – especially with motors
5.	INTEREST:	Essential	Demonstrate a high level of interest or commitment
6.	DISPOSITION:	Essential	Stable personality. Not accident prone i.e. realistic down to earth, not too excitable. Flexible. Honest.
7.	CIRCUMSTANCES:	Essential	Able to work overtime and stay away from home overnight

JOB SPECIFICATION FOR TECHNICAL TEACHERS

As indicated under job description matrix II, an alternative approach to job specification could be made. An Example of this is illustrated in the Box (Fig. M4/1.1)

Fig. M4/1.1 A JOB SPECIFICATION MODEL FOR TVE ACADEMIC PERSONNEL

JOB SPECIFICATION FOR MR. F.A. AKPAN NATIONAL TECHNICAL COLLEGE

JOB TITLE: PRINCIPAL

RESPONSIBILITY: PERMANENT SECRETARY, NBTE

FUNCTIONS: (a) Academic:

(i) Ensure the setting of the goals and objectives for the school;
(ii) Ensure that goals and objectives are adhered to by staff;
(iii) Ensure that staff are aware of the school's goals and objectives;
(iv) Ensure that curriculum policies are implemented;
(v) Ensure that each department establishes its course goals
(vi) Ensure that departmental goals are achieved;
(vii) Ensure that there is effective coordination of academic work within and between departments;
(viii) Ensure a workable structure for meeting curriculum goals.

(b) Administrative:

(i) Ensure that all financial records are properly kept;
(ii) Ensure that all approved fees/levies are collected and accounted for;
(iii) Ensure that payment vouchers are prepared and submitted in time for payment;
(iv) Ensure that all forms and statistical records are completed and submitted to the central body/or Ministry of Education;
(v) Ensure that important events duties in the school are entered in the school logbook;

(vi) Ensure that the school duty roster is produced and made available to staff and students officials;

(vii) Issue transfer certificates/statements of result to transferring/withdrawing and completing students;

(viii) Ensure that school timetable is produced and made available to different departments and classes;

(ix) Write references to staff and students who may want them;

(x) Draw up admission policy for the school: to guide placement, admission of new/transferring students from other schools;

(xi) Ensure that school property, buildings, equipments, and materials are properly maintained;

(xii) Ensure effective boarding system in the school;

(xiii) Ensure that students are duly entered for all approved qualifying/entrance examinations.

(c) Management:

(i) Maintain effective channels of communication with staff; between staff and students

(ii) Ensure effective interpersonal relationship with and between staff;

(iii) Ensure proper/equitable delegation of authority among staff;

(iv) Initiate a system of accountability by staff for any given roles or tasks;

(v) Ensure proper management of school resources: funds, buildings and plant equipment;

(vi) Devise a workable system of appraising staff performance;

(vii) Initiate meaningful professional development for self and staff;

d) **Relationships:**

(i) Maintain liaison with WAEC and other relevant examination bodies;

(ii) close relationship with the Ministries of Education, Teachers Service Commission;

(iii) Maintain liaison with professional colleagues;

(iv) Maintain liaison with school board of Governors, PTA, and school community;

(v) Maintain liaison with professional association. (vi)

e) **Extra-Curricular:**

(i) Ensure student participation in school/inter school activities; Sports and games; Prescribed social/religious activities, and inter school activities.

(ii) Provide leadership in research;

Carry out research activities of personnel or personal interest.

(iii) General

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Why are the following characteristics important in a teacher's job specification?

- **General intelligence**
- **Attainment**
- **Special aptitude**

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit started with defining ways of describing and specifying individual jobs. The important conclusions to be derived from this unit is that job description and specification are important steps towards ensuring employees' understanding of their job contents

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, we have defined and shown the methods which you could adopt to prepare a job description document. Apart from demonstrating with matrices, I have further outlined and described the stages which a teacher's job description could be developed under three subheads: Job identification, responsibilities (academic, administrative, and professional) and extra- or co-curricular activities.

We gave the purpose or job specification as that of identifying the personality qualities that are needed to accomplish a given job role. The Roger's 7-Point Plan has been used to facilitate an employee's job specification.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Show the difference between a technical teacher's job description and that of a clerical officer.
2. (a) In your own word, state the purpose of a job specification.

(b) What do you consider as essential and desirable in a lecturer's, and administrative staff job specification?

7.0 REFERENCES

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MODULE 4

UNIT 2: EXIT INTERVIEW AND JOB RESTRUCTURING CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

When a vacancy arises in an organization, it is important to find out why the holder of the job position is about to leave or is leaving. This enables the organization to examine or re-examine its policies and conditions affecting such a position. Interviews or meetings which are conducted with exiting staff though essential are not common in most government and private establishments including education

2.0 OBJECTIVES

In view of the introduction above the objective of this unit is to enable you to:

1. Understand the context and the importance of exit interviews
2. Know the purpose and when to conduct exit interview
3. Apply appropriate steps in conducting exit interviews.
4. Apply the principles of job restructuring

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 CONTEXT AND IMPORTANCE OF EXIT INTERVIEW

The meeting which is held with an exiting staff of an organization is called exit interview. This type of interview is usually informal. You need to understand that exit interview is best conducted immediately after an employee has handed in his/her notice or letter of resignation. The reason for this is that the nearer the employee gets to the point of leaving the more difficult it becomes to get his/her actual reason to leave. It is sometime better to have a rather 'neutral' officer to conduct an exit interview, if the exercise is to be successful. For the interview to be successful, three points must be taken into consideration:

- Guarantee of confidentiality;
- Avoidance of the temptation to argue with the leaver;
- Taking action to put right any defects or faults that might be reported about the position or job.

3.2 PURPOSE OF EXIT INTERVIEW

The main purpose of exit interview must be borne in mind by management. These are as follows:

i. To discover the true reason of the person leaving (e.g. poor salary, poor management, victimization, poor promotion prospect, etc).

ii. To obtain the leaver's goodwill towards the institution or company and to safeguard the organization's reputation.

Preparing for the interview: Supposing you were asked to prepare for an exit interview it would be well for you to:

a) Check actual reason and compare with the reason given by the leaver b) Check leaver's personnel record

c) Check with the leaver's supervisor or head of department

d) Ensure privacy, and avoid interruption from other officers or workers e) Allow adequate time for the interview.

To ensure success of the exit interview, the interviewer should observe the following points:

a) Putting leaver at case

b) Stating the purpose of the interview

c) Encouraging the leaver to speak freely

d) Paying close attention to what the leaver says in order to pick out clues of the real reason for his/her decision.

e) Thanking the leaver for past services and wishing him/her well in the future.

3.3 JOB RESTRUCTURING

As indicated earlier, one reason for exit interview is for you to discover faults that may have existed in some jobs or parts thereof. Job restructuring is a process which emanates from the defects that are discovered in some jobs or job positions.

In order to restructure a job, you need to critically evaluate the purpose of the job. The main question to ask is whether:

- the purpose for the restructuring is valid
- the purpose can be achieved in a more efficient way

Vacancy: The existence of a vacancy provides the opportunity for someone to be given a short burst of experience on the job. A vacancy also provides the opportunity to alter jobs in order for the jobs of other employees to be more satisfying. The main possibilities include:

- job rotation;
- job enlargement, or
- job enrichment
- elimination of the job completely

One of the most radical approaches to job restructuring is to eliminate the job completely, if it is found that continuing to keep or restructure it would not be attractive to any holder.

3.4. AMENDING THE JOB DESCRIPTION

After the exit interview and job restructuring have been completed, it may sometimes be necessary to alter the job description in order to provide a sound basis for the next stage in filling the vacancy and drawing up personnel specification.

3.5 AGREEMENT ON JOB DESCRIPTION

After job restructuring, the job description should then be agreed between the job holder and his/her superior. This will be easier to achieve if both the job holder and the superior have been involved in drawing up the job description in the first place. Even where a vacancy has not occurred, it may be possible at this stage to restructure the job to make the organization more efficient or to make the job more satisfying.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT

1.a If a valuable member of your study group suddenly leaves the group what would you do to find out why he has left

b. What would you do with your findings?

c. How do the steps you have taken in (a) compare with exit interview in a technical college higher tertiary TVE institution?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The conclusion to be drawn in this unit is that exit interview presents a major step in improving job content and making the job more satisfying for the job holder.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have defined exit interview as a type of interview that is conducted to ascertain why a job holder decides to leave. Exit interview enables an organization to establish a real reason why an employee has left, and to receive his/her goodwill towards the organization. A job could be restructured by introducing job rotation, enlargement and consequently amending the job description.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What steps would you take to ensure a successful exit interview?
2. Why is it necessary for the superior or supervisor to agree on the content of a job description with the job holder?

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MODULE 4

UNIT 3: PROCESS OF JOB FINDING CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In general, filling a vacancy constitutes one major function of institutional managers, and as a prospective teacher/manager, you require an understanding of how the relevant sources of information and processes could be harnessed to fill a vacancy in your organization.

2.0 OBJECTIVES:

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

1. Be aware of sources of job advertisement.
2. Apply the different methods of job application.
3. Be aware of types of selection interview and interview process.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 ADVERTISING CHANNELS

Many channels exist for advertising for a job. These include the use of recruitment agencies, newspapers and journals, government employment agencies, vacancy boards, speculative search, head hunters, the internet, mouth contacts, radio and television.

(a) Recruitment agencies

Some business organizations often prefer to use the services of recruitment agencies to advertise for job vacancies. Recruitment agencies are often found in large cities and business centres. These agencies place available jobs from their client organizations on vacancy boards or windows. Some of the well known agencies including Coopers and Lybrand Associates, Lagos; Suleiman Associates, Kano; Price Waterhouse Associates, Lagos; and Arthur Anderson, Lagos, specialize in professional job placements. Recruitment agencies such as the above often advertise in national dailies such as the Punch, the Guardian and Vanguard, newspapers.

(b) **Newspapers**

Many national and state based newspapers carry advertisements for different jobs, including appointments, into polytechnics and universities. While advertisements such as the above are expensive owing to their taking some columns or whole pages of newspaper, the classified sections of the papers provide cheaper prices of advertising for vacancies.

It is considered good public relation and sign of courtesy to put in the same newspapers the list of successful candidates and to also inform those who were not successful.

(c) **Speculative Search**

This is an approach which applicants look for names of companies, educational institutions and other possible employing establishments for jobs. Sometimes, too, inquiries could be made through the telephone. Sometimes, applicants make personal enquires for jobs. You need to realize that these are legitimate forms of seeking for jobs. So it would be in order to employ persons who seek for job vacancies through this channel.

(d) **Vacancy Boards**

Some skilled and semi-skilled jobs such as catering, sales, bookkeeping, and secretarial and craft level jobs are sometimes placed on vacancy boards outside a firm, business and school premises. You need to know about this method and use or recommend it to your management. One advantage of this approach is that it can be used at relatively no cost to the organization.

(e) **Head Hunters**

In this case, instead of an applicant looking for openings, head hunters (example, chief executives of companies, government agencies, e.g. universities, and corporations, and executive placement firms) look for them.

For you or any person to be qualified he/she needs to:

i) Belong to a trade or professional association,
ii) Have his/her name in the appropriate membership register, and
iii) Make him/herself 'visible' through writing and contributing to the relevant trade or professional body.

Some more modern channels of advertising for vacancies include the internet.

THE INTERNET

Job advertisement through the internet is fast gaining ground as a recruitment method, particularly in advanced economies. 2001 survey conducted by Chartered Institution of Personnel and Development (CIPD, 2001). Shows that 64% of the respondents showed that they use the internet as a recruitment method.

WORD OF MOUTH

It might be interesting to note that the use of word of mouth to advertise and recruit workers has also remained a choice method of recruitment. A survey of the frequency of use of word of mouth for recruitment purpose report by CIPD (2001) shows that whereas 63% of employers adopted this method in 1999, but the number increased to 68% in 2001. This shows increasing relevance of this method outside Nigeria.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

In Nigeria, radio and television have become one of the national and local sources of job advertisements. However, the disadvantage in these is that prospective applicants who are not within the reach of these media cannot gain from their services.

The purpose of having idea about sources of job advertisement is to enable you use any of the channels, or advice your chief to use any of the channels he may choose to advertise for a job.

SELF ASSESSMENT

(a) Show the difference between speculative search and vacancy board method of filling a vacancy.
b) Which one of these would you adopt in filling the post of a rector of a polytechnic and why?

3.2 METHODS OF MAKING APPLICATION

After vacancies have been declared in an organization, the next step is to advertise with the purpose of receiving applications from prospective applicants. Now let us look at the different ways by which individuals may apply for a job using letters of application, application forms or curriculum vitae.

Letter of application: The oldest formal approach for applying for a job is to send a letter of application. A good letter of application should state the applicant's qualifications, experience and availability for the job. However, application letters have been found to have a number of defects (Anastasia, 1979, Dubrin, 1990) which may be attributed to:

i. Inadequate knowledge of job requirements.

ii. Applicant may not be able to determine the personality factors that are relevant to the job.

iii. The letter may be defective in terms of neatness, length, handwriting, grammar, spelling or expression, and so on.

It needs to be said that this method is fast losing in popularity, particularly in advanced economy. However, applicants wishing to use letters for application need to do some home work by getting some basic information about the organization.

Application Forms or Biographical Inventories: Application forms or biographical inventories are considered to be more reliable and relevant than application letters because the items to be included are determined by the employer. This notwithstanding, the way you fill out application form is important. To be short-listed for an interview, you have to complete the form properly and neatly. The points that are usually considered when short-listing applicants for interview include the following:

1. Whether the applicant has understood what is required of him/her
2. Complete the form neatly in black ink or biro pen, in case it is to be photocopied while being processed. On the alternative, type the needed information.
3. Left any section he/she could not understand blank, instead of giving out him/herself through wrong or doubtful answers.
4. Whether the applicant has emphasized his/her strong rather than weak points. It is move advantageous for an applicant to be truthful about his/her qualifications or experience than to be discovered at the end of the interview to have lied. Again it is safe to leave a section of a form blank than to write ‘none’.
5. Determine whether the applicant is positive with answers given.

Some applicants are fund of saying “I am unemployed”; instead of “I am looking for a job”. Some would say “I am tired of my present job or employment”, instead “I am seeking new opportunities”. (Ekpenyong, 1999)

Looking for and sifting out applicants with negative or answers that depict frustration, can save schedule officer the trouble of inviting applicants that are not likely to meet the organization’s job requirement.

Fig. M4/3.1. A MODEL OF AN APPLICATION FORM

FORM API
LIGHTHOUSE POLYTECHNIC, BENIN CITY BOX 00035
NIGERIA

Complete this application form in your own handwriting

SURNAME (in block letters)	OTHER NAMES

YOUR ADDRESS

-- Telephone No:

Date of birth		Nationality	
Married/single		No. of children	

Position applied for

EDUCATION

Names of schools/college/ University attended	Address	Dates From	To

EXAMINATION RECORD (INCLUDING PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (IF ANY)

NAME OF EXAMINATION	LEVEL	SUBJECTS TAKEN OR ABOUT TO BE TAKEN	DATE

DETAILS OF PREVIOUS EMPLOYMENT IN INCLUDING POSTS HELD			
Name & address of employer	Duties	Salary	Dates Of Service From To
PLEASE GIVE THE NAMES OF TWO PERSONS WHOM WE MAY GIVE REFERENCE TO YOUR CHARACTER. THIS SHOULD BE FROM PREVIOUS SCHOOL HEAD AND A SENIOR PUBLIC OFFICER NOT FAMILY MEMBERS			

MENTION YOUR LEISURE INTERESTS (including attainment and official positions held)

Social/cultural:
Sports: Hobbies:

SIGNATURE --------------------- DATE: ---------------------

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY:
Application no: --------------------------------- Job applied for: ---------------------------------- Remark: ---
Date: --

Self Assessment

Attempt a design of an application form for young graduates who are seeking the position of personnel assistant in a new university of technology, Abuja

3.3 CURRICULUM VITAE (C.V.)

You may have heard the term ‘C.V.’ or have actually seen or used one. The ‘C.V’, an abbreviation for curriculum vitae is an alternative form of job application document which an individual summarizes his/her bio-data or personal background, academic and career status and achievements. The C.V. is primarily used for seeking appointments; however, it has other uses, besides, e.g., in developing a person’s citation. While the knowledge of how to prepare a C.V. would be a useful exercise, for secondary level pupils, it should be regarded as essential for polytechnic and university students. Employers can use the C.V. to test how well a candidate can communicate in writing. It is only a well written or organized C.V. that can create the type of impression that would ensure your being short-listed for an interview. In fact, available evidence shows that employers judge applicants by the appearance of their curriculum vitae.

Organization: The curriculum vitae should normally be organized in not more than seven sub-headings. From research evidence, properly organized materials are easier to remember; for in real terms, most people find it difficult to remember more than seven unrelated facts. The usual headings are as follows:

1. Biographical information (Personal details and family background)
2. Education/vocational training;
3. Employment history
4. Leisure/interests,
5. Self assessment
6. Reference
7. Other information (if any)

KEY POINTS

Materials properly organized are easier to remember, and also most people cannot remember more than seven unrelated facts at a time.

You should start the preparation of a C.V. with a summary. The summary should be distinct and attractive, there should be appropriate left and right hand margins, or at best both the left and right hand should be justified (e.g.25cm left/right margins). Names should be typed in spaced capitals. Information supplied on a C.V. should, as far as possible be factual. Drawing attention to your weakness should at best be avoided, since errors of omission are not easy to detect.

Some CVs carry special skills which the applicant considers may place him/her in a more advantageous position than other applicants.

The ultimate of curriculum vitae should be achieved through clarity. Consequently, the use of short words and sentences is advisable. The personnel or selecting officer who may eventually be your interviewer or one of your interviewers could have received more than one hundred applications, and if he/she could be patient to read the first two or three sentences thoroughly, the temptation would be to only glance through the rest. Meaningless or wordy C.V. faces the danger of being thrown into the trash can.

A point to always remember is that except where a C.V. is meant for a particular organization, the job title should not be typed, because choice may change. The name of the addressee may also change. They should therefore not be included. It is rather wise not to include one's present salary or the range of salary expected since these could undermine the bargaining position of the applicant with the employer. It is, however, important to include a full list of publications and conference papers where one is seeking academic position.

When applying for a job, the C.V. should be accompanied with a covering letter. The letter should say something positive about the organization. It should also give cogent reason for wanting the job, and names and addresses of the referees. A model C.V. is shown in the box.

You need to note that C.V. could be designed in different ways and styles.

Fig. M4/3.3: A M0DEL OF A CURRICULUM VITAE NAME: OKORO P. WAZIRI

SUMMARY:

QUALIFICATIONS: MED, MBA, BSC, C&G

OYMENT: SENIOR STAFF TRAINER MERCEDES BENZ ANAMCO

Teacher Grade 1, Technical School Teaching

: To bring my industrial and teaching experience to advance the image of the goal of institution and to achieve my professional growth and development

EXPERIENCE:

Senior Staff Trainer Mercedes Benz, Annamco, Enugu 1962-1966

Head Teacher; New Era Technical College, Calabar 1998-2000

Technical skill – operational knowledge of word processing, , Desktop Processing, Data/Financial software.

SALARY: Present salary: ₦360, 000 p.a.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

INSTITUTIONS ATTENDED	**COURSES STUDIED**
University of Benin 2004-2007	Industrial Technical Education majoring in Electrical, Electronic Engineering
The Polytechnic, Calabar 1985-1989	National Diploma specializing on Electrical/Electronic Technology
Government Technical College, Ilorin 1980-1984	Craft courses: covering electrical installation and mechanical trades
QUALIFICATIONS	**DATE OBTAINED**
B.Sc. Ed (Tech) ND:(Electrical/Electronic Technology City & Guild (Inter)	2007 1989 1984

HOME BACKGROUND:
SEX: Male
DATE AND PLACE OF BIRTH: Sept. 6, 1966, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State
NATIONALITY: Nigerian
CORRESPONDED ADDRESS: 5 Ogui New Layout, Enugu, Enugu State
TELEPHONE: 08032733400
E-MAIL: akure@yahoo.co.uk
MARITAL STATUS: Married with children

MEMBERSHIP OF PROFESSIONAL BODIES
1) Member of Institute of Training and Development (MITD)
2) Associate Member Nigerian of Teachers in Technology
REFEREES: To be supplied on request

Among the common designs are what is called historical model, the emphasis of which is one the applicants experience and educational background. The functional model is built around the applicant's professional, administrative and technical experience, followed by employment history, and educational background. The mode above is a hybrid or comprehensive form of the two

SELF ASSESSMENT From the model C.V. above develop your personal curriculum vitae for distribution to your contact persons for possible appointment.

3.4 ATTENDING AN INTERVIEW

Preliminary Activity: It is possible that you may have been invited for an interview for job or scholarship award. It is also possible that your friend who had attended one form of interview or the other might have recounted his/her experience to you. If you have not had direct or indirect experience you may wish to find out from your parents or workers you know before reading this section.

The essence of the interview: The first thing you need to keep at the back of your mind is that job interviews have a number of defects, particularly when it comes to determining its reliability. However, whatever defects that have been found about it; the interview has remained the most frequently used method of personnel selection. In view of its great importance for determining entry into jobs or training, it becomes imperative for every student of institutional administration and management, particularly those in, Technical and Vocational Education to acquire essential interview skills.

3.5 BASIC GOALS OF INTERVIEWS

The goal of an interview is to collect information about a candidate by getting him/her to talk freely and openly. Unfortunately candidates tend to find interviews stressful even when they become anxious to please the interviewer

Facts about Interviews: The first point to note is that interviews are interactive. So as you attend an interview, you will be face to face with the reactions of the interviewer, and your reactions will determine or alter the way he behaves towards you. For instance, if a candidate feels that the interviewer is critical, he/she may become nervous. Where the interviewer senses this nervousness, he may decide to test it out. Aggressive questions could probably make the candidate to become still more nervous and in response to this, the interviewer would become even more aggressive or adopt a kind of behaviour that could disorganize the candidate completely. As we have demonstrated, interviews are prone to becoming vicious, if not benign circles.

Stress: As we have shown, interviews could become very stressful. Consequently, stress should not be used during interviews, since it makes the candidates to be defensive and defensive candidates will give only acceptable information about themselves.

KEY POINT

STRESS INTERVIEW:
Use of stress technique makes a candidate defensive; a defensive candidate will give only acceptable information about him/herself.

In a good interview, the objective should be to allow the candidates to talk about themselves and their backgrounds frankly and openly. We normally speak in this way to persons out our own level. Whom we find sympathetic. We do not normally speak to our employers or people of superior status in this way. **An interview should not be critical**, and the interviewer should play down any status effects. Sitting in a leather covered swivel chair, behind series of expensive veneered desk protected by bands of important looking telephone or with a round table of men and women on well tailored suits and agbada and bola hats, and seering eyes, openly passing judgment on another person's life may do wonders to the ego of the interviewers, but the interview itself could be devastating to the candidate.

For the purpose of emphasis, the four key points that interviewers should take into consideration for effective and stress-free interviews are that:

i) interviews are interactive and can easily get into viscous or benign circles.
ii) stress should not be used
iii) status differentials between the interviewer and the candidate should be reduced
iv) interviewers should not be critical

3.5 TYPES OF INTERVIEW

Before discussing the selection interview process we need to mention the common types of selection interviews and their characteristics.

1. **Traditional interview**: This form of interview is usually unplanned, haphazard and unsystematic. Its technique tends to vary from person to person and to generate relevant and irrelevant information.
2. **Standard interview**: It is usually stereotyped but leaves little room for interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee.
3. **Structured (patterned, guided) or systematic interview**: This form of interview is restricted to areas such as candidates work history, education, home background, present domestic and financial circumstances. The interview follows the sequence of the areas to be covered and although each subsection is to be covered with general standardized questions, the interviewer has sufficient scope to ask as many questions as he wishes. The objective of the interview here, you must note, is to steer the interviewee through relevant channel, and he/she can do so through follow-up questions.
4. **Panel Interview**: If you have attended or asked someone who has attended employment interview, he/she would tell you of being interviewed by a group of people. This form of interview where a candidate is interviewed by a number of people in 'a round table' is referred to as **PANEL OR BOARD INTERVIEW**.

From my observation and experience, panel interview has fast become the practice in personnel selection in Nigeria today. Whether it is the selection of clerical staff or a top executive, the candidate is likely to come face to face with a body of 'cheeky' men in two or three piece suits or agbada, and affluently dressed women, sitting in a round table. The sight of the 'exoteric conference room' and the type of men and women described above is enough to unnerve the school leaver or college graduate who had never been exposed to such an experience.

By implication, panel interviews increase stress and should best be avoid, if one could. However, since its popularity seems to be rooted in producing a candidate that is likely to meet the requirement of the organization, rather than individual members (that is barring political or social connection) the job seeker must be adequately prepared for it.

5. **Psychological Tests:** Psychological tests, though not often used in personnel selection in educational organizations in Nigeria' remains one of the most reliable methods of personnel selection. Psychological tests are often used for graduate appointment by private and corporate organizations such as Leventis, U.A.C., NNPC and Chevron. Psychological test are generally designed to test level of intelligence, and special aptitudes such as mechanical, spatial, clerical and manual dexterity.

Where an applicant is given any or a combination of the tests given above, the best approach is to check them for honesty, some psychological tests can be verified for lying and distortion of the information given.

Since psychological test are considered very reliable, when a firm uses it, it is does so for the purpose of trying to be objective and fan to all the candidates (Ekpenyong, 2002).

COMBINATION METHOD OF INTERVIEW

More than one method can be used to interview candidates. For instance, psychological tests meant to test skills, intelligence, aptitude or personality could be combined with personal interview. On the other hand group selection could also be used with personal interview to ensure that the best candidates are appointed (Lyon, 1980). Other forms of interview include internet and telephone interview which have not gained ground in Nigeria at the moment.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT

Which of these forms of interview would you prefer and why:

a) Standard interview?

b) Structured interview

c) **Panel interview**?

3.6 PHYSICAL SETTING FOR INTERVIEW

When conducting selection interview, you should bear the following points in mind:

(1) There should be no interruptions or distractions. Ensure that telephones calls and visitors are intercepted. If necessary, move to another office or board room where interruption will not be expected, and detail relevant schedule office to ensure that no interruption is allowed.

(2) The candidates should be comfortably seated after they have been seen by the appropriate schedule officer. Do not conduct interview in rooms with clear glass partitions, or where the partitions do not go from floor to the ceiling.

(3) Ensure that you can see the time without making this obvious to the candidates.

3.7 FORMAT OF AN INTERVIEW

An interview may be divided into five parts:

1. **Greetings and open courtesies**

Introduce yourself (and members of the Panel in case of panel interview) and ensure that the interviewee is settled immediately for the exercise.

2. Interview proper

Lead the candidate unobtrusively through the relevant aspects of his/her life and experience. Use techniques such as probes and closed questions to make the candidate to open up. If you are in doubt of what to do, start with the past, for example, early childhood, and work to the present, but give most of the time and attention to the recent past. Link words such as - talking about NGO, what contacts do you have with your local NGOs.

speaking about state capitals, I see that you have been to Sokoto….

At times you should summarize what has been said, e.g.

"So although you have been with the polytechnic for about three years, you feel that you have not been exploiting your best potential". Summaries such as this give structure to the interview and enable the candidate know that you have understood him, and given him/her a chance to correct himself, or explain what he has said before.

Listen to what the candidate says, and observe what he does. Note where he hesitates, his facial expression and gestures. An interview where the interviewer or interviewees spend more than 20% of the interview time on irrelevances cannot be described as successful.

3. Answering Questions And Describing The Job

In order not to give unintended clues to the candidates at the beginning of the interview, a development which he/her may use to bias or modify answers, a description of the job should be done after you have obtained all the information you require.

One basic rule of a good interview is that the interviewer answers the candidate's questions as factually as possible. Again it would not be in the best interest of the organization for the interviewer to denigrate or talk down some jobs that are lower down the organizational ladder, as the candidate may fall within a class of people that are not interested in demanding jobs, or those that provide variety. The interviewer should guard his/her use of adverbs such as ‘just’, “only”, ‘only just’, etc., speaking candidly, an interviewer should be specific and truthful in every statement he/she makes about his/her job as the candidate may turn out working for the organization.

4. ENDING THE INTERVIEW

As an interviewer, before ending the exercise, call for questions from the candidates. Find out when he/she would be able to take up the job if offered. If references are needed obtain the candidate’s permission to take up the references. If medical examination will be needed, explain the procedure.

The candidate should be informed when he/she should expect the result of the interview. Use the opportunity to find out from the candidate other applications he/she has made and the stage he/she has reached. Finally thank the candidate for attending the interview.

5. ASSESSMENT AND GRADING PERFORMANCE

It is important to rate each candidates, where possible, at appropriate point of the interview without delay. What to look for include consistent patterns of behaviour and the correctness of responses to the questions asked. Then rate each candidate in relation to his/her performance on each item on the rating scale. Some interviewers rate candidates using a five point scale ranging from:

- Very much above average
- Above average
- Average
- Below average

Ratings such as these are very important not only for the purpose of selecting the best candidates but also for indicating that the interview was conducted judiciously and without bias. Above all, the document might provide a useful evidence against any contestant in a court of law or tribunal.

3.8 WAYS OF ENCOURAGING CANDIDATES TO TALK DURING INTERVIEWS

As earlier indicated, an interview is an interactive process of which it is expected that the interviewee should be talking for 80% of the interview time. This becomes possible where the interviewee knows about this and attempts to achieve this goal. Unfortunately most candidates become shy and unable to answer questions or talk as expected of them at such interviews. Consequently, interviewer could guide the rather shy interviewees by using a number of techniques to help them to talk. The following are only a summary of tested techniques:

1) Using of comments rather than questions: for example, "Giggles' such as 'really', 'very good', 'um', 'which', can encourage the candidates to open up.
2) Using open questions to encourage expression of opinions and feelings, examination of attitudes, and face expression. e.g. what happened when you got there …

What do you mean when you say...?

We need to bear one thing in mind about open questions: they consume a lot of time.

Other methods include:

a) Probes (How do you means?)
b) Closed questions (but not at the beginning of the interview)
c) Introductory phases (is it possible that …….)
d) Qualifying words (might, perhaps, fairly, etc)

The implication of the directions given here still brings us to the point that a successful interview can very much depend on the level of preparation by both the interviewer and the interviewee.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT

From your reading of this unit, what answers would you give to the following interview questions supposing you had taken part in a recruitment interview:

1. **Why do you want to leave your present job?**
2. **Why do you think you need this job?**
3. **Why should this institution hire you?**

4.0 CONCLUSION

From the contents of the different sections of this unit the process of job finding imposes a very serious challenge to the organization whose role is to find a candidate whose personality attributes and qualifications fit very closely with the job specifications. On the other it poses a challenge to the job seeker who must be able to convince the prospective employer, that from his/her personal attributes, and academic qualifications, he/she is the most qualified for the job applied for.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit has described different job advertising channels which include recruitment agencies such as Waterhouse Associates, Lagos, national and local dailies, vacancy boards, head hunters, vacancy boards, the internet, word of mouth, radio and television.
methods of making applications such as letters of application, application forms and curriculum vitae were described with suitable examples, where applicable.

The goal of interview is to provide a source of information about the candidate and to enable him/her to talk freely, the basis of which enables the interviewer to select the most suitable person for the job.

Interviews are interactive, but should be stress free. Interviews are generally classified as traditional, standard, structured or panel. Psychological test could also be used as a supplement to other aspects of interview. Thus a number of interview methods could be combined.
The physical setting of an interview should be made to ensure the ultimate comfort and confidence of the candidates.

Interviews are normally divided into five stages, namely, greeting, interview proper, answering questions and description of the job, ending and grading and assessment of candidates' performances.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1(a) Outline five methods of advertising for jobs.
(b) What types of job would you advertise in the following media
(i) Vacancy board, (ii) A national daily,
(iii) A recruitment agency
(iv) Through head hunters?

2) If you were to apply for a job, which of these two methods would you use and why?
(a) Application form
(b) Curriculum vitae

3(a) What constitutes stress interview? (b) What would you do to remove it?

4) A panel interview has become a popular means of interviewing people in Nigeria
(a) Why has this form of interview become so important?
b) How could the stress aspect of panel interviews be minimized?

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MODULE 4

UNIT 4: GENERAL CONDITIONS OF SERVICE IN TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Suppose you are given an appointment as a lecturer in a polytechnic, your employer will give you what is called `appointment letter'. The letter will spell out not only your entitlements such as salary and allowances, but also your obligations which would include teaching and administrative duties.

Your appointment letter is the first document which would make you a legal member of the polytechnic. The appointment paper confers on you, the rights and obligations that employers usually confer on the employees, as well as the right, and obligations that the employees owe to the employer.

In general, all the matters that relate to an employee's salaries, allowances, promotion, discipline, vacation period are technically referred to as **conditions of service**. In addition to the appointment letter, organizations also provide to each employee a comprehensive document which spells out in detail the worker's conditions of service.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1. Understand the general contents of workers' conditions of service.
2. Know the contents of service conditions in tertiary institutions.
3. Know the conditions affecting financial compensation of teachers in technical and vocational education.
4. Know the structure of staff salaries and allowances.
5. Know the determinants of levels of compensation to teachers in technical and vocational education.
6. Understand the basis of industrial disputes.
7. List and describe the types of grievances.
8. Describe the procedures of handling grievances
9. Understand the role of industrial arbitration.
10. Know the grievance procedure at the secondary education level
11. Describe the general and specific types of organizational conflicts.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 GENERAL CONTENTS OF WORKERS' CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

As the introduction did show, the conditions of service of employees whether in the private or public sector of the economy are usually spelt out in what is called **Service Rules**. In the Nigerian Civil service there is a document called **The Civil Service Rules.** In the school system, the rules governing staff conditions of service are provided by their respective state governing boards or commissions. In specific terms, technical teachers' conditions of service are provided by respective state technical school boards.

In the Nigerian polytechnics, colleges of education, technical, or conventional, universities, staff conditions of service are provided by their governing councils. This of course derives from what the government approves in case of government owned institutions.

3.2 CONTENTS OF SERVICE CONDITONS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

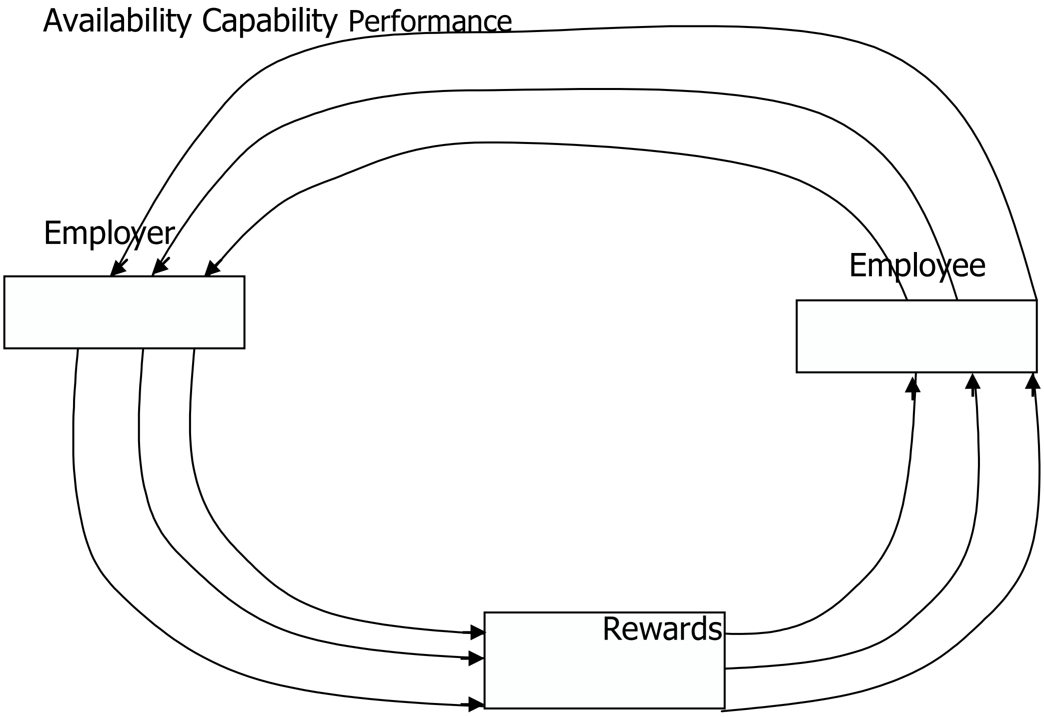
The conditions of service in the academic institutions such as polytechnics, colleges of education (technical) as well as in those of conventional colleges of education and the universities, are actually regulations which are meant to govern the service conditions of staff, academic, senior and junior non-academic. Reference to typical regulations governing universities and polytechnic staff show clear relationship in their contents (University of Benin, 2003; Lighthouse Polytechnic, 2006). The following are the common features of regulations governing service conditions in the three categories of tertiary institution mentioned above:

- Procedures governing appointments and promotions
- Promotion and increment of salaries
- Scales of salaries.
- Regulations governing award of pensions and gratuities to established staff: those whose appointments have been confirmed by their employers.
- Conditions governing giving of advances: for example, salary advance, vehicle, staff housing and other loans.
- Health services.
- Procedure for staff discipline.

Owing to space limitation, only a selection of the subjects above will be given some detailed treatment in this unit.

3.3 CONDITIONS AFFECTING FINANCIAL COMPENSATION OF TEACHERS IN TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The payment of salaries and allowances to a worker reflects an effective transaction by him/her and his/her employer based on the fact that labour or service has been exchanged. Banjoko (1996) demonstrates the exchange which results from the transaction between the employer and the employee as follows:



ource: Banjoko, Simbo, A. (1996) Employer- Employee Exchange Process. Saban Pub.

KEY CONCEPT CAPABILITY

Capability implies that financial compensation or reward will be paid to an employee for the specific capability he/she has in rendering specific service to the employer or an employing organization.

It is common practice in higher education to retain university professors, and chief lecturers of polytechnic or technical teachers colleges on account of their special capabilities or expertise. Again, in most cases employees are paid on account of the actual performance or service which they render to the employers. As can be seen from the illustration, compensation such as salary which an employee receives from the employer is based on his/her availability for the job, capability, and performance. For instance, a teacher will still be entitled to his/her monthly emolument even though he/she may not have some teaching to do, particularly when the students are on holiday.

KEY CONCEPT AVAILABILITY

By availability is meant that an employee will still be paid his/her full entitlement such as salary even when he/she may not have any work to do on some days

KEY CONCEPT

PERFORMANCE

Performance implies that an employee financial compensation will be paid specifically on the actual service rendered

Like workers in other organs of government or the private sector, teachers in technical and vocational education at the secondary and tertiary levels receive compensations from their employers on the basis of their availability, capability, and level of performance.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Explain the terms availability, capability, and performance to show the transactions between employer and employee.

3.4 STRUCTURE OF STAFF SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES

Conventionally, the salaries and allowances paid to workers come about as a result of agreement between the employers and the workers unions (Taylor and Davidson, 1999). In Nigeria, this rule does not seem to apply all the time, particularly in the case of government workers and workers in private companies.

In the Nigerian public service, two forms of salary structure generally operate. Federal workers, including those in secondary and higher education namely, colleges of education, polytechnics and universities, enjoy differential services. Even in tertiary education where technical teacher fall under, salary structures of universities and polytechnic lecturers indicate some basic differentials. In the same vein the academic and non-academic staff of the respective institutions also enjoy some differentials, a situation which the non-academic staff unions are not always happy about.

Method of calculating salaries or wages

The method of calculating salaries or wages seem to differ from one academic institution to another. In general however, some general conditions in terms of what are referred to as basic salaries and allowances apply.

In some organizations, some workers (usually, junior) may be paid fortnightly, while some others (senior) receive their salaries on monthly basis.

Allowances form another component of staff salary. These may include transport, rent and other allowances and other incentive payments. Allowances are usually not taxable. However, under what is called monetization principle, all the allowances that were hitherto not taxable are now reclassified under what is called “consolidated salary” and taxed along with the basic salary.

Another component of salary structure which is normally reflected on staff pay-slips indicates deductions which are made on a staff monthly salary or emolument. Based on the explanation above, a typical salary voucher has three main components or columns which show: basic pay or payments, allowances and deductions. This is shown in the table below:

NAME OF INSTITUTION ……………………………………………………........................………………..

PERSONAL EMOLUMENT VOUCHER: MONTH ……………………. YEAR……………………………

EMPLOYEE'S NAME …………………………………………… DEPARTMENT …………………………….

EMPLOYEE'S NO…………………………….. SALARY LEVEL ……………………………………………….

DESIGNATION …………………………………………………………………………………… …………….

PAYMENT AMOUNT	ALLOWANCES AMOUNT	DEDUCTIONS AMOUNT
BASIC ₦ ……….. TOTAL PAY TO DATE: ₦ ……… TAX FREE PAY TO DATE: ₦ ……..	TRANSPORT ₦ ………… RENT SUBSIDY ₦............ HAZARD ALLOWANCE ₦ ………. TOTAL ALLOWANCE ₦ ………… GROSS PAY ₦	RENT DEDUCTIONS ₦ …….. TAX ₦ …………………. TOTAL DEDUCTION ₦ ………… NET PAY ₦ ………………..

As can be seen from the table, gross pay is the summation of basic pay and allowances, while net pay represents the difference between gross pay and total deductions. Net pay therefore represents an employee's take-home pay packet.

3.5 DETERMINANTS OF LEVELS OF COMPENSATION TO TEACHERS IN TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As earlier indicated, the compensation which a technical and vocational education teacher or lecturer receives (as does his/her counterparts in other establishments) usually varies from one teacher or group of teachers to the other, depending on his/her rank and status. This is usually determined by the level of qualification, skill and experience. At the intermediate institutions (technical colleges), a teacher's rank is determined by qualification and experience, which in turn determine the level to which he/she could be promoted. However, at the tertiary level (university, polytechnic or colleges of education), rank and consequently a teacher’s pay is determined not only by his/her qualifications and experience but more so by his/her level of productivity, usually determined by the number of books and publications in academic journals. This position differs from the general labour market situation which is influenced by the price theory, which makes the case that where there is a high demand for a particular type of labour relative to supply, such labour should demand higher wages. While this theory usually applies in most areas of the oil and banking industries, the reverse tends to be the case in the civil service. This explains some agitations by the Nigerian academic unions for higher pay.

3.6 BASIS OF INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

CASE NOTE:

From time to time, you may have read from the newspapers or heard from radio and television of one or other business organization or enterprise that the workers have threatened to or have actually gone on strike. The civil service unions, Nigerian Union of Teachers, Nigerian doctors or university lecturers have at one time or the other threatened to go or have actually gone on strike. What do you think usually give rise to such a scenario?

The inference you can draw from the above case note is that threatening or going on strike by a group of workers whether in the public or private sector is often the last resort that the workers, through their labour unions, have to push for the improvement in their salaries and working conditions. Consequently, when employees or group of employees are dissatisfied with the level of compensation they receive for their labour, and their call for improvement is not heeded by their employers, or management, what develops next is grievance which may eventually lead to labour relation problem or ultimately to a declaration of industrial dispute.

As pointed out by a number of authorities, Hersey and Blanchard 1996; Luthans, 1988; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhard and Wright, 2002 and as we shall see later in the unit, it would be wrong to attribute all organizational conflicts to industrial relations issue.

CONTEXT OF GRIEVANCE

Situations within the Nigerian oil sector, civil service, health, and academic institutions, show that most conflicts in public and private organizations usually start with general grievance by the employees. Where the grievance is not properly handled, it often results in conflicts which tend to thwart the cooperative effort between workers and management, between government and the civil servants, or between government and the workers. This situation often hampers ultimate productivity by the aggrieved workers.

Grievance usually results from a mishandled work related matter, which the employees see as a violation of their rights.

KEY POINT

A grievance may be defined as an alleged violation of the rights of an employee or a group of employees.

In other words, a grievance may arise out of the action or inaction of employers such as government, or its agents, or by management of an organization, that the aggrieved workers perceive as injurious, detrimental or likely to be detrimental to their interests. A grievance is often expressed either orally or in writing.

3.7 TYPES OF GRIEVANCE

Grievance may arise from one of three ways:

i. Grievance resulting from violation of the collective bargaining agreement;
ii. Grievance resulting from work context; and
iii. Grievance resulting from personal problem of a worker

(i) Grievance resulting from violation of the collective bargaining agreement

Observation and experience show that most grievances arise out of non-implementation of some contract provisions as contained in the collective bargaining agreement. On the other hand, it may arise out of the misinterpretation of certain provisions of the contract. For instance, most of the conflicts between the medical doctors and academic staff union of Nigerian Universities (ASUU) often arise from the federal government failure to honour or to misinterpret parts of the agreements mutually reached with those unions. In the case of ASUU, the government has often reneged on its responsibilities when it comes to implementing parts of the agreement reached with the union. This, therefore, explains the constant strikes by the union.

(ii) Grievance Arising from Work Context

When the nature and circumstances of the job poses a problem on the workers, this way give rise to grievance. As Chruden and Sherman (1975) explain, workers who are placed on the wrong jobs or who lack adequate orientation, training or supervision, are more likely to perform unsatisfactorily, or become unsatisfied with their employment, which could therefore result to grievance and disciplinary problems. Consequently where the style of supervision and the attitude of the supervisors or management are perceived to be negative or discriminatory by the subordinate, the build-up of such ill-feelings may give rise to grievances which can ultimately result in system-well labour and management conflict.

(iii) **Grievance Resulting from Personal Problems**

Employees go to their work places from different social and psychological backgrounds. Some problems may be marital, emotional, or financial. Where a worker is unable to solve his/her personal problems or does not have a supporting supervisor, or co-workers he/she may become easily irritated and find faults with both co-workers and supervisor. As we shall see later, this type of problem may not necessarily result to system wide grievance.

3.8 PROCEDURE FOR HANDLING GRIEVANCES

You may wonder how compensation related grievances in your institution may be handled. The procedures for handling grievances vary from one organization to other.

Every good organization makes provision for handling grievances or disputes relating to the implementation of employees salaries and related conditions could be handled, and amicably resolved. The procedure for handling such disputes is referred to as Grievance Procedure.

As indicated by Banjoko (1996), the grievance procedure is to:

(a) To settle disputes that may arise in the course of implementing the contract agreement;

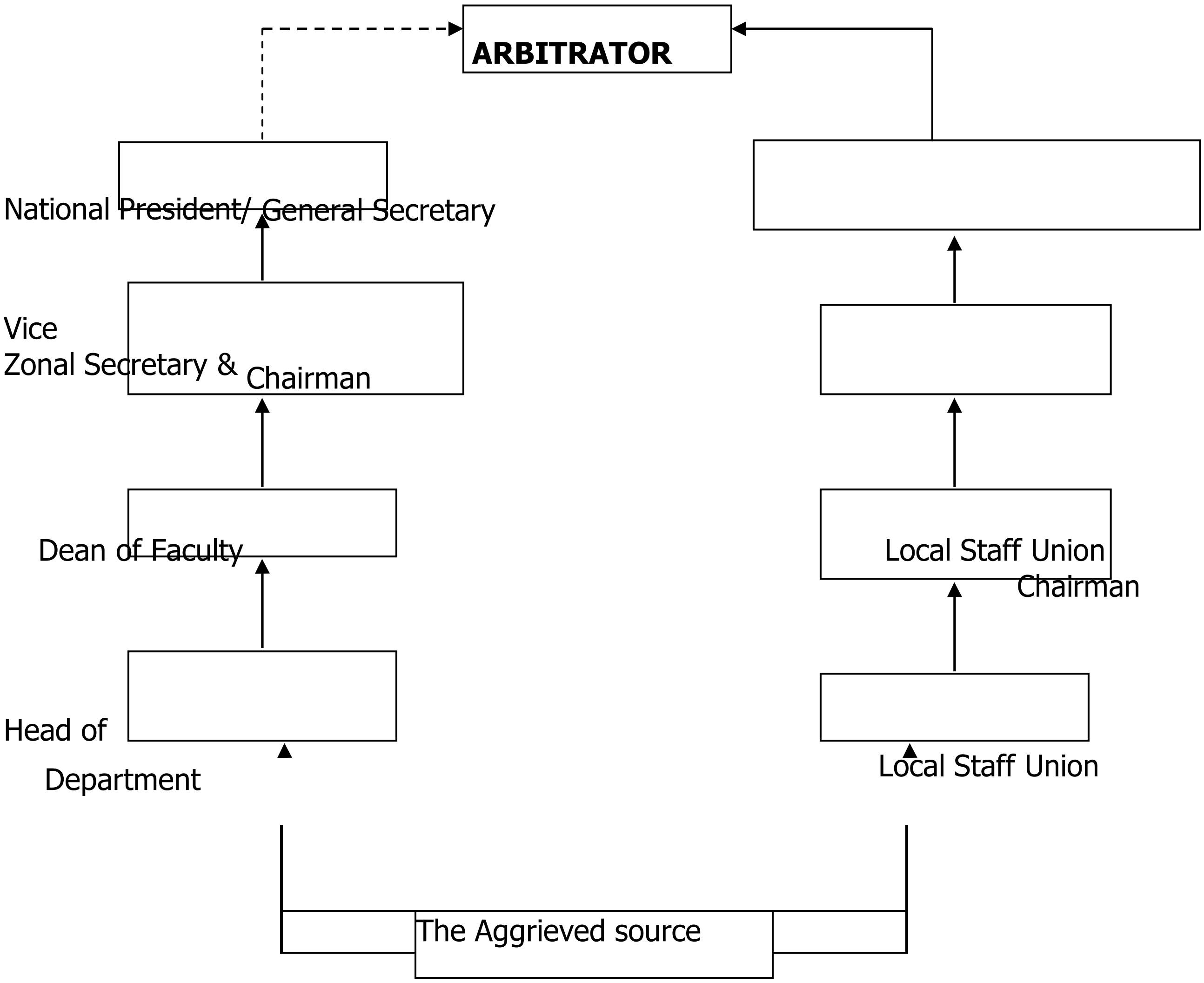
(b) Establish an orderly and timely procedure for handling such disputes; and

(c) Create an atmosphere and appropriate support system for resolving the disputes, failure of which the matter will be referred to arbitration for final binding judgment.

There standard procedures for handling labour related disputes, grievances or disputes, as provided for by collective bargaining agreement

The procedure may be illustrated as shown below:

TABLE: GRIEVANCE PROCEDURE: The procedure may be illustrated as shown below



NB: Individual cases may finally go to Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC)

A typical procedure may follow the illustration on table … As indicated by the table, effort to resolve labour dispute could be conducted in five stages. The base of the table shows the source or where the grievance or dispute originates from.

In stage I, the matter may be presented either orally or in writing to the local union or branch union. If an amiable solution is found, say by the supervisor, the grievance may be regarded as settled. However, where the matter in dispute could not be resolved amicably, then it may be necessary to refer it to the second level where the local chairman and executives would take up the case with management, for possible resolution.

The third stage: The third stage is reached where the local executives have not been able to resolve the matter in dispute, in which case the attention and intervention of the zonal officers is sought in re-examining and resolving the dispute with management.

In some cases, where a dispute has defiled amicable resolution, it may be referred to an arbitrator (stages) for settlement.

It is important to re-emphasize the fact that is only labour matters that are of common interest to a given class of workers such as civil servants, teachers, nurses and doctors that are normally handled at the state or national level of the labour unions in Nigerian. Such matters usually have to do with salaries and conditions of work.

At the primary secondary and tertiary levels of the teaching profession, for instance, the issue of salaries and conditions has often brought the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT), Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and the other academic unions including those of polytechnics and colleges of education into collision course with the federal government.

With reference to ASUU, stage 4: should a negotiation fail at the zonal level the union, then the next alternative is to refer the matter to the national officers of the union for assistance towards possible resolution.

If after the intervention of the state or national officers in a local dispute, but resolution becomes illusive owing to management intransigence, the branch may through the backing of the national executives, decide to use the ultimate weapon, which is strike, to demand for its right.

On disputes of common national interest, where the issue in contention cannot be resolved amicably with the employer or its agent, a national strike may be ordered, after due notification of the employer, to press for the demand in question. Labour conflicts have regularly arisen owing to the government's failure to honour its agreements with the union. It should be noted that individual staff grievances arising from incorrect or wrong compensation package are normally treated internally in most cases. As shown on the left side of the table, such grievances in academic institutions be they general or technical are normally processed through the departmental heads, and deans of faculties to the vice chancellor, (rectors or provosts in the polytechnics and colleges of education). The aggrieved staff may appeal to the Governing Council where he/she is unable to receive a satisfactory settlement from the vice chancellor who would normally refer the matter to the Appointment and Promotions Board for deliberation and advice.

3.9 INDUSTRIAL ABRITRATION

As I indicated earlier, sometimes it becomes difficult to resolve labour disputes owing to the inability of the employers such as government and other corporate organizations to resolve or reach consensus on issues involved in dispute amicably. Such matters could be referred to an independent arbiter commonly referred to as `arbitrator' for settlement.

In labour and management conflict, dispute arbitration is a system which provides contending parties in a dispute which arise from misunderstanding or misinterpretation of the contract or part thereof by a third party. The role of an arbitrator, as an impartial or neutral person, is to collect data, listen to the points advanced by the parties in dispute. The arbitrator may also need to call witnesses, where applicable in order to be able to come to impartial decision as would be satisfactory, and indeed convincing to the disputants.

KEY POINT ARBITRATOR

A dispute arbitrator is an impartial outsider, usually referred to as `third party', to settle labour and employer or management and labour unions' inability to come to a consensus or amicable settlement of an issue in dispute.

In Nigeria, for instance, there is a Federal Industrial Arbitration Court, which is charged with the responsibility of settling labour disputes which are referred to it. However, owing to the fact that this body is an organ appointed by the Federal Government, its impartiality in settling matters relating to the Federal Government and the Unions has often been in doubt. The 2003 Government-ASUU dispute which the impartiality of the body in its recommendations could not be guaranteed is a case in point. Another weakness of the arbitration court is that it has no executive power to enforce its judgment; hence implementation can only be at the pleasure of the government.

3.10 SECONDARY EDUCATION LEVEL

At the secondary level of education, grievances arising from wrong salary scale or wrong placement are normally addressed through the head teacher or principal to the relevant teaching service commission or board such as technical school board, which is established by many state governments to many technical colleges including the settlement of teacher's matters. These include appointment, promotion and discipline.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

(1) What do you see as the reasons for frequent disputes between the federal government and the academic staff of universities, polytechnics and colleges of education?
(2) In labour dispute, what do you see as the relationship or difference between the second and third stage in the management of labour dispute?

3.11 GENERAL AND TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICTS

It is incorrect to attribute all organizational conflicts to compensation issues. In fact most management experts agree that conflicts are varied, and that, conflicts cannot be totally eliminated in organizations. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996; Luthans, 1988; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhard, and Wright, 2002). This is because a total organization is really a composite of its various working units or groups. In educational institutions including technical and vocational education, conflicts may arise between lecturers or group of lecturers, senior and junior staff, senior staff and management. However, in the Nigerian higher education in particular industrial disputes tend to take the centre stage when discussing organizational conflicts.

For your information some organizational conflicts may be classified as follows:

i. **Intra individual conflict**: The assumption here is that within every individual, there are usually:

(a) a number of competing roles and needs;
(b) drives and roles that can be expressed in a variety of ways
(c) many types of barriers can occur between drives and goals
(d) there are many positive and negative aspects that are attached to one's desired goals

These factors tend to complicate an individual's adaptation process, and often result in conflict. Intra individual's form of conflict may be observed in frustration a worker faces in trying to reconcile his/her goals and roles within the organization.

2. **Conflict due to frustration**: This is a type of conflict which occurs when a person's motivated drive is blocked from reaching the desired goal. For example, if you run to collect a valuable prize from your boss, but somewhere you are prevented from passing through the gate by a security guard, and you are, therefore, prevented from receiving the prize, frustration conflict would naturally set in.

3. **Goal Conflict**: One common source of conflict in organization for a worker involves a goal which has both positive and negative features or two competing goals. Goal conflict differs from frustration conflict, because two or more motives block one another. For example, Approach-Approach conflict suggests that an individual is motivated to approach two or more mutually positive but mutually exclusive goals. In Approach-Avoidance conflict, an individual is, on the one hand, motivated to approach a goal, but on the other hand, motivated to avoid it. The third category is Avoidance- Avoidance conflict, where an individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative, but mutually exclusive goals.

iii. **Interpersonal conflicts**: Interpersonal conflict is the type of conflict which occurs when two or more persons, for instance, two or more members of staff are interacting with one another. This type of conflict can seriously affect the work flow and organizational productivity.

On a final note, I wish to re-emphasize that no organization can exist without some level of conflict. However, conflict becomes dangerous to organizational life where it becomes a regular occurrence.

5.0 SUMMARY

We started this unit by showing that in the federal civil service, a document called the Civil Service Rule contains all the conditions governing the civil servants. In academic institutions, the governing councils produce a document which spells out the conditions of service of the staff including those that have to do with appointments and promotions, and several other conditions.

Conditions affecting the financial compensations due to staff. These include salaries and allowances. Three conditions, namely, availability, capability, and performance are central to the exchange of results from the transaction between the employer and employee.

Federal government workers including staff of Federal Government institutions generally have some differentials on their salary structures, mainly because many states claim that they are unable to pay Federal Government salary scales to their workers on account of lower finances.

The structure of staff emolument include basic, pay and allowances. Gross pay is obtained by the addition of payments and allowances. Net pay is obtained after teaxes and other deductions. Teachers and other workers' levels of pay are usually based on qualification, experience and productivity. One subject which has received exhaustive discussion is industrial dispute. Industrial dispute arises from the workers' dissatisfaction with the level of compensation they receive from their employers for their labour. When calls for improvement are not headed by the employers, grievance develops. Grievance usually results from a mishandled work related matter which the employees see as a violation of their rights. The methods of handling grievances have been classified into five stages, local staff union, local executive, staff union chairman level, zonal, and national level. The fifth level is that of arbitration.

General organizational conflicts have been discussed under the following classifications: Intra-individual, frustration induced conflict, goal conflict, and inter-personal conflict.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. (a) Outline the staff service conditions as are applicable in Nigerian polytechnics or universities.
(b) Are there any significant difference in the service of conditions of technical and vocational education and other academic tertiary institutions?

2. Why are there structural differences in the salaries of federal, state public services and public corporation?

3. What are the factors which differentiate the salary levels of technical and vocational education academic staff?

4. (a) State the basic assumption of price theory with reference to technical and vocation education teacher's employees in academic institution and in oil industry.

5. At what point in personnel and labour dispute is strike necessary?

6. At what point of labour dispute is reference to arbitration necessary?

7. (a) Is a technical school without visible conflict necessarily an effective school?
(b) If yes, explain why; if it is no, explain why not.

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ULE 5: BASIC PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

CONTENT

UNIT 1: ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT OF TVE IN NIGERIA

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You would recall that in Unit 7 of Module 2 we tried to explain to you what constitutes an organization structure, and the different methods of dividing work in an organization through the process of departmentalization. The way one work is structured gives rise to a departmentalization process which is relatively different from that of another organization.

It is important to note, too, that educational institutions including TVE do not differ significantly from those of other formal organizations. However, for the purpose of highlighting some of the basic differences that might be observed in the TVE school system, a detailed consideration of the structure of TVE is being made in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

As has been highlighted in our introduction, at the end of this unit, you should be able to achieve the following:

1) Analyze the concept of structure of organizations within the context of TVE

2) Describe the factors that are likely to influence structure
3) List and describe the basic dynamics of authority and the reasons for these in the structure of organizations
4) Understand the general structure of TVE in Nigeria
5) Understand the structure and organization of TVE at the Federal level
6) Understand the structure and organization of TVE at the state and private levels.
7) Demonstrate the different models of TVE institutions.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 ANALYSIS OF CONCEPT OF STRUCTURE OF ORGANIZATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF TVE

We want to start this unit by giving you a much simpler and perhaps more detailed explanation of the term ‘structure’ with reference to the field of education, since it is a common term used in various other disciplines, as in science and social science disciplines, e.g. physics, biology and sociology.

Structure: In organization context, the term ‘structure’ refers to the arrangement of human relationship within a given organization. Since the body of individuals we are referring to here, namely, teachers and lecturers in technical colleges on the one hand, and on the other hand, those in polytechnics, colleges of education (technical), and universities of technology or TVE departments of universities has definable collective tasks, structure is, therefore an instrumental device that enables the teaching staff to achieve more than they would have been able to achieve.

KEY CONCEPT

STRUCTURE: This refers to the deliberate pattern of relationship between organization members

Paisey Alan, 1992

3.2 COMPONENTS OF STRUCTURE

There are three components of structure: (a) the job; position and authority.
This may be depicted as in the table below:

Table M5.1: COMPONENTS OF ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

STRUCTURE:

JOBS → JOB Title

↓

POSITION → Determined by Job Title

↓

→

AUTHORITY	Determined by position holder

As the illustration has shown, the job title of an employee such as TVE teacher is normally determined by the position and the authority that the position occupant is conferred or is to be conferred with. However, you have to remember that usually, job titles are not able to convey in behavioural terms, all the tasks that are inherent in a job. Just to illustrate the point further, when a technical school teacher or lecturer of a polytechnic is designated Senior Master and Senior Lecturer respectively, it sounds rather simple that their duty is to impart knowledge and skills for the intellectual, technical, psychomotor or cognitive development of the learner. The assignment of the level of the teacher and lecture in question is determined by the level of authority, which their credentials and pedagogical (teaching) experience conveys.

Let us take another scenario, when a teacher is designated head of say, auto mechanics, business studies or curriculum studies department, the indications are that such a teacher or lecturer has, besides demonstrable knowledge of his/her respective discipline, also has administrative and managerial competencies. These are job functions that are not normally reflected on one's designation or job position, except where further step is taken to develop a job specification.

The implication from what I have explained here is that job title or designation is only a splinter to what is embedded in the structure of an organization such as TVE.

KEY POINT

JOB TITLE: Job title or designation is only a splinter or pointer to the details of responsibilities that are contained in the structure of an organization

In strict sense, a teacher or a lecturer's job consists of instructional duties and organizational duties including student advisory and counseling, working with colleagues and individuals outside the school organization. In comparative terms, technical school teachers tend to be subject to what they do, and how they do it than their lecturer counterparts who seem to be accorded more freedom in the exercise of their instructional and administrative functions. The observations is as stated in the box

KEY CONCEPT

Technical college and other secondary level teachers tend to have diminished discretion in the determination and performance of duties, while the super ordinates tend to exercise increased discretion over these

2) In tertiary institutions such as polytechnics, lecturers tend to exercise increased discretion over their jobs, while their super ordinates tend to exercise diminished discretion

KEY CONCEPT

Technical teachers (lecturers) in tertiary institutions tend to exercise increased discretion in the determination and performance of their duties; while the superordinates tend to exercise decreased discretion over these.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

a) Describe the structure of your academic institution

b) Is there a difference between its structure from that of your institution

The assumption that can be made about the level of operation of the two categories of teachers, is that on the one hand, a teacher in one is able to independently select his/her instructional content and make professional judgment himself, unhindered by the structure of management, and that, on the other hand, he/she cannot be trusted to do so in the other by the authority structure of the organization.

3.2 Factors that Tend to Influence Structure

Several factors such as the size of the organization, culture, type and level of technology applied in job performance, level of interdependence that exist among staff members and units; and in turn the level of integration among them, as well as the type of information flow can affect the structure of an organization. Applied to TVE institutions in Nigeria, namely technical colleges and polytechnics, and given their average life cycle of about 30 years of existence, one can easily describe their structures as mostly organic, rather than mechanistic since their structures in terms of size, physical structure, curriculum contents, and number of disciplines is still evolving at a fairly high rate. Equally, the quality and number of academic personnel are still of average or below average standard when measured internationally.

KEY CONCEPT
ORGANIC AND MECHANISTIC STRUCTURE

Differences between mechanistic and organic structure

Organic	**Mechanic**
(a) Tasks tend to be interdependent.	Tasks tend to be highly specialised.
(b) Continuously adjusting and re- tasks and responsibilities.	Roles tend to be rigidly defined defining Except changed by top management.
(c) Roles are somewhat diffused as responsibilities beyond the prescribed ones may be accepted.	Specific roles in terms of rights, obligations and technical methods are prescribed for each employee.
(d) Structure of control, authority and communication is in the Form of a network.	Hierarchical structure of control, authority and communication.
(e) Both vertical and horizontal dictated by where needed information resides.	Organisation usually takes the form of as instructions and decisions by superiors while it takes the form of request and appeal for decision by subordinates

3, Authority Aspect of Structure

There are some basic dynamics of authority (Ekpenyong, 1996), two of which are listed for your guidance:

(i) In attempting to execute his/her job, the holder of the job position expects to be able to exercise some influence over the subordinates.

(ii) In an organization, the willingness and ability to accept and handle authority that belongs to respective jobs vary from one member to the other.

The reason for this can be found in management literature (Helriegel and Slocum, 1992), for example:

(a) Some members of organization feel exhibited because of their personality characteristics, e.g. low self esteem

(b) Intimidation by other members of the organization, e.g. professional colleagues or work team members

(c) Inadequate training or uncertainty of one's level of competence. Uncertainty may actually arise from lack of supports of members that were expected to do so.

(d) Against the points above, some individuals are greedy for authority, or should we say power, and would increase their own authority, using various means at the expense of others.

The situation highlighted above may breed grave consequences to the organization if not timely checked owing to the fact that it could lead to the distribution of authority structure that is inconsistent with the goal of the organization.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

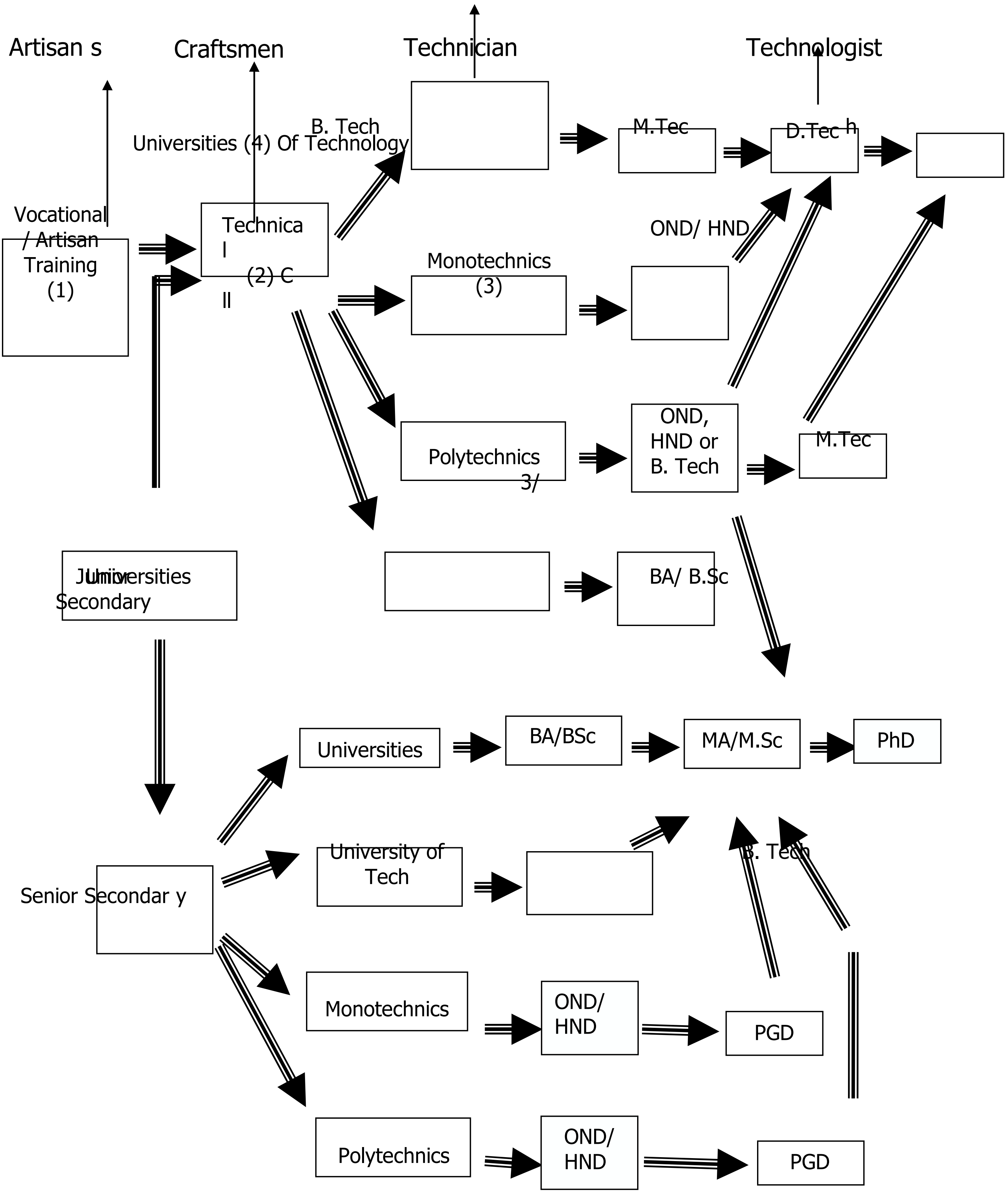
Attempt in your words to explain the role your personal influence play when you try to exercise authority

3.4. General Structure of TVE System In Nigeria

The structure of TVE in Nigeria, from the colonial to the first decade of post independence era, generally reflected policies and patterns of organization general education that were in vogue at the time. For instance, the pre-and post-independent structure of TVE system, administration of which was largely in private hands, was such that attendance at a two-year craft, and 2-year trade center, technical college or secondary commercial school lead to one of these certificates and no more: 1) Federal Craft Certificate, City and Guild of London Institute (C & G) Intermediate Certificates, and the Royal Society of Arts (RSA (Elementary or intermediate certificates. In fact, the structure of TVE then was just flat and reflected a closed system. Access to the conventional secondary schools or tertiary institutions for those with these qualifications was difficult in Nigeria except for those who went on to study for and pass the GCE (O/Level) certificates.

Under the current National Policy on Education (Fed. Rep. of Nigeria 2004) the organization of TVE reflects a comparatively taller structure than the one earlier described. The structure of TVE, in relation to conventional education system, is reflected in the table below:

FIG. M5/1.2: THE STRUCTURE OF TVE IN NIGERIA



As can be observed from the Fig., students who pursue education and training through the vocational training centers can equally access polytechnic, monotechnics and university education through technical colleges. Under the 6-3-3-4 system of education the curriculum also make access available to students of junior secondary schools who wish to proceed to technical colleges or senior secondary schools

3.5 Organization of TVE at the Federal Level

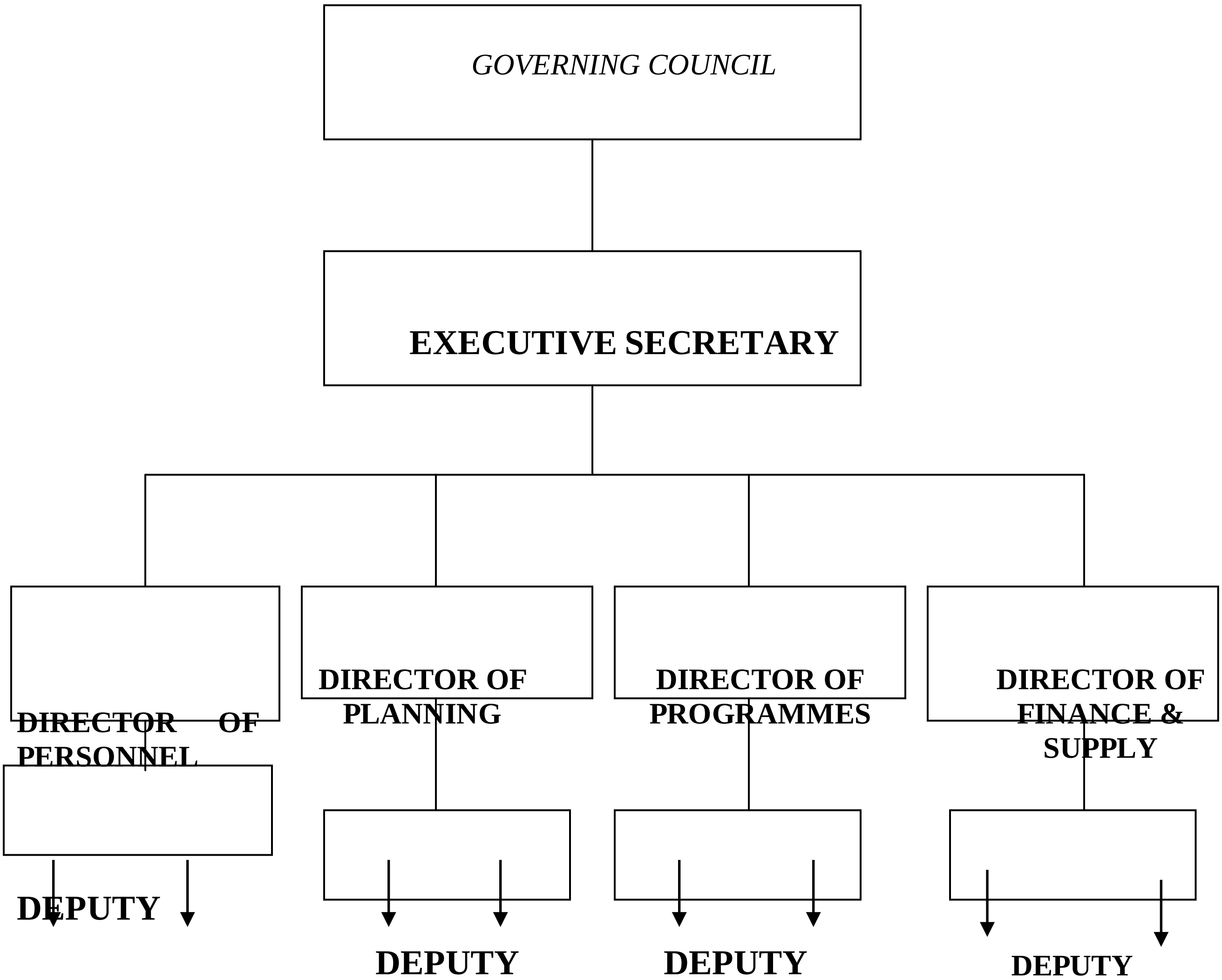
Technical and vocational education is organized at two levels in Nigeria, Federal and State government levels. The responsibility for conducting technical and vocational education rests with the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). The NBTE an agency of the Federal Government was established in May, 1972 with the following remit:

To advise government on and coordinate all aspects of Technical and vocational education falling outside the University, and to make recommendations on them etc
(NBTE)

The NBTE is administered through a governing board which is responsible for formulating broad policies that are meant to guide management on the smooth running of the organization. The Board is organized under two main directorates, namely programme directorate which is responsible for curriculum development, institutional licensing and programme evaluation through periodic accreditation exercises.

The Planning Directorate is responsible for the physical development of all federal polytechnics and technical colleges, and other related functions. The organization structure of the NBTE is depicted below:

FIG. M5/1.3:ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE OF THE NBTE



3.6 State/And Private Levels

State governments administer TVE system in so far as their roles cover the establishment, development funding personnel and instructional facilities and related concerned.

State governments may establish and develop physical structures, instructional facilities, provide personnel and fund their own polytechnics, and technical colleges in so far as these are done, the licensing and accreditation guidelines laid down by the NBTE. For instance, the NBTE provides that to establish special boards, (Technical School Board) to manage their state technical colleges.

On the other hand, the NBTC is responsible for licensing all polytechnics and technical colleges in Nigeria, including state and those privately owned. It is also responsible for the development of common academic programmes for polytechnic and technical colleges.

The periodic reviews of the academic programmes and the evaluation of how technical institutions are meeting prescribed NBTE minimum standards cut across federal, state and private polytechnics and technical colleges.
It would be observed that state and private agencies and individuals are empowered by law to establish their own technical institutions; However their programmes personnel and performance are subject to NBTE guidelines and supervision.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT

Find from the polytechnics in your state what problems they face from time to time

3.7 Structures of TVE Institutions in Nigeria

A close analysis of the structure of TVE institutions in Nigeria depicts relative common structures. At the secondary level, the structure of technical colleges are based on the patterns specified by the government. However, some basic differences may be observed in terms of their sizes in terms of tallness or flatness of structure. These structures are depicted below:

Fig M5/1.4 (a): Structure of a Vocational Training Centre

PRINCIPAL

VICE PRINCIPAL

TEACHERS AND TRADE INSTRUCTORS

This depicts a typical vocational training center of about 200 students. In larger centres, the structure could naturally be increased to accommodate other job positions e.g. additional vice principals and heads of department.

b) Structure of a Technical College

PRINCIPAL

Vice-Principal (Academic)

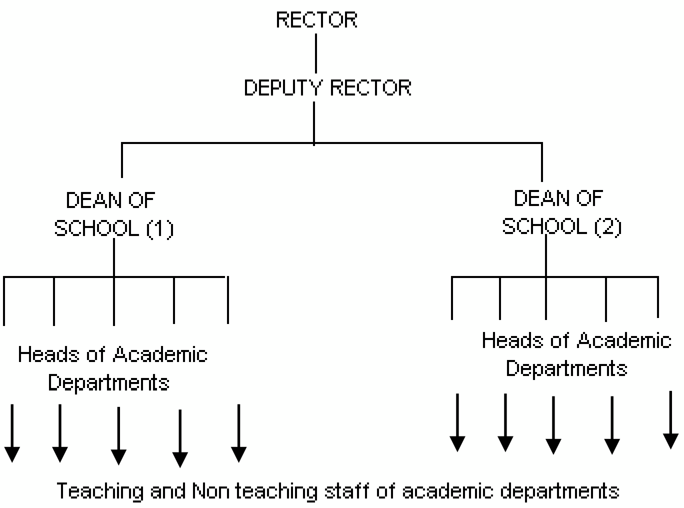
Vice-Principal (Administration)

Heads of subjects and Trade
1 2 3 4 5

Heads of subjects and Trades
6 7 8 9 10

This is a typical structure of a technical college. Heads of general subjects and trades could equally be designated heads of sections or departments. In this case, the structure could be modified to four, five, or six such heads.

.c):Structure of a Medium Sized Polytechnic



The NBTE directs that polytechnics be run on a school system basis. This explains the commonality that may be found in all Nigerian polytechnics. However, internal modification of the structure could be undertaken by an institution provided the official structure remains

4.0 CONCLUSION

The study of this unit has thrown more light to the study of the organization of TVE in Nigeria. The conclusion to be drawn from this unit is that, a student who devotes time and energy to study the various sections of the unit should be able to achieve all the stated objectives.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have analyzed and illustrated the concept of organization structure and specified that the structure of an organization such as TVE consists of (Job title), position (determined by job title) and authority (determined by the position holder).

We indicated that numerous factors influence the structure of TVE organization, some of which include size, culture, type and level of technology required and information pattern and others. The dynamics of authority with reference to organization structure has been discussed. In trying to execute his/her role, the position holder expects to be able to exercise influence over the subordinates. On the other hand, the ability and willingness to handle the authority that is related to a job position, varies from individual to individual. Reasons for these have been given.

The general structure of the TV system before and after the introduction of the current national policy on education has been discussed with illustrations. The role of the NBTE in the policy and implementation of TVE programmes in polytechnics and technical colleges have been discussed. The authority of the state and private owners of polytechnics and technical colleges derives from the directives of the NBTE.

Finally, we have demonstrated the typical structures of TVE institutions in Nigeria, outside the university. These include vocational training centers, technical colleges and polytechnics.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. Define the term structure, and point out the components of structure in TVE institutions

2a. Describe the instructional and administrative contents of a technical school teacher

b. Show the areas of difference of a technical college teacher and that of a polytechnic lecturer.

3. State the reasons why there are variations in the dynamics of a teacher's authority.

4. Differentiate the difference between organization at the Federal and State levels of TVE.

5. Give a model structure of a large technical college.

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MODULE 5 BASIC PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

UNIT 2: PHILOSOPHY, GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF TVE CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Technical and vocational education is used broadly to refer to the educational process, which in addition to general education, involves the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills and knowledge which relate to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life (Ekpenyong, 2005). As can be seen from the definition here, technical and vocational education, unlike general education which is intended mainly for intellectual and cultural development, prepares individuals at the pre-secondary, secondary and tertiary levels for the world of work. Additionally, it prepares the individual for self employment.

In view of its usefulness to the recipient and to the national economy, the establishment of TVE by the government is usually based on a felt-need for competent and easily trainable work force, and for self-reliant individuals. On the part of private proprietors of TVE institutions, their involvement in TVE is often based on the vision to contribute their quota towards national technological development.

Vision and felt-need often determine the mission of TVE institutions. Just as vision influences the missing of establishing TVE institutions, mission in turn drives the philosophy, goals and objectives of TVE programmes.

You will appreciate this point more as our discussion progresses.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

In line with our preceding introduction, at the end of reading this unit, you should be able to:

1. Understand the philosophy of technical and vocational education
2. Understand the goals and objectives of technical education at: (a) prevocational (b) vocational (Secondary) (c) technical (tertiary) level

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 **Definition of Concepts:**

Before going on to discuss the philosophy, goals and objectives of TVE, it is considered useful that you understand the meanings of the three basic concepts in TVE with reference to the level of education they refer to:

1) Pre-vocational level TVE programmes are intended to give the learner a broadly based integrated knowledge of the respective fields of TVE, namely, practical agriculture, introductory home economics, business studies and introductory or basic technology. These programmes are offered at pre-vocational training schools and junior secondary schools. Vocational level TVE programmes refer to those technology, business studies, home economics and agricultural courses which are offered at the intermediate levels in technical colleges, senior secondary schools and similar upper secondary level institutions in Nigeria. While such basic courses (e.g. business studies and basic technology) are integrated at the prevocational institutions including junior secondary schools, they are offered as single subjects at the senior secondary level. The distinction we are trying to make becomes clearer when we understand that vocational education refers

KEY CONCEPT VOCATIONAL EDUCATION:

In line with the level of its offering, vocational education is here defined as education which is intended to prepare pre-vocational school graduates and other skilled personnel at lower levels of qualification for one, or a group of occupation, trades or jobs. The components of vocational education include general education, practical skills and related theories required by the chosen occupation or trade.

TVE programmes that are generally offered at the ND, HND or at the university level are referred to as technical. Within our range of meaning, technical education refers to the education which is designed at the post secondary (e.g. ND) to prepare middle level personnel. Such as technicians and at the HND and degree level to prepare engineers, and technologists for higher management positions. This form of education comprises three components, scientific and technical studies and related skill training.

KEY CONCEPT

TECHNICAL EDUCATION:

This is education, which is offered at the post secondary level such as the National Diploma to prepare middle level personnel such as technicians and middle management and similar positions, and at the University. polytechnics and similar higher level institutions to prepare engineers, business graduates, and technologists for higher management positions.

3.2 The Philosophy and Goals of TVE Programmes

In line with general education, the philosophy, in other words, the underlying principles of TVE draws from the five national objectives of building:

1) a free and democratic society,
2) a just and egalitarian society
3) a united, strong and self reliant nation
4) a great and dynamic economy; and
5) a land of bright and full opportunities

These national objectives form the necessary foundation upon which the current philosophy and goals of education, including, technical and vocational education are built. In specific terms therefore, the goal of TVE may be summed up as that of providing the learners a sound education that would enable them develop appropriate mental and physical competence, and social abilities in the respective TVE disciplines such as business studies, technology, agriculture and home economics. At this point it is important to differentiate the goals of TVE at the different levels of its offering, beginning from the pre-vocational or JSS level

The JSS level: The objectives of the curriculum at this level are to:

1) introduce the learners to the world of work and to appreciate technology with a view to arousing their interest and choice of a vocation at the end of the junior secondary school and professionalism later in life.
2) equip the learners with basic technical skills as they relate to particular discipline in TVE.

3) enable the learners to become aware of careers by exploiting usable or available options in the world of work.

4) enable the youths acquire intelligent understanding of the increasing complexity of technology

5) provide basic technological literacy for everyday living.

Upper secondary Level: The goal of TVE at the upper or senior secondary level, is to provide the learner a broad preparation for entry into higher education or into the world of work. The vocational options of the secondary school curriculum, therefore, becomes an asset to the students who may have chosen some of the vocational subjects at the SS level.

Vocational Level: The objectives of TVE at the vocational education level, which in the Nigerian context cover those subjects that are offered at the technical colleges to prepare the students for various technical and business trades. Specifically, vocational programmes are intended to:

i) provide training in applied technology, and business, particularly at the craft, advanced craft and intermediate level to the learner;

ii) provide technical knowledge and technical skills appropriate for agriculture, commerce and industrial development

iii) develop individuals who will be properly equipped with the requisite knowledge and skills for productive work life, among others.

Tertiary level: The goal of TVE at the tertiary level is to produce individuals who will through learning and research be able to solve technological and management problems in their areas of specialization such as agriculture, applied technology, business and related fields of life.

The objectives of TVE at this level would generally be to:

i) equip the individuals with technical knowledge and practical skills necessary for industrial commercial, agricultural and economic development of the nation;

ii) provide courses of instruction and training in technology, applied sciences and business management.

iii) provide courses in such other fields of applied technology as may be relevant to the national technological, industrial and economic needs.

iv) encourage the conduct of research in the areas of industrial, business, agriculture or any other area of applied technology, as may be determined by the institutional and national needs.

The point for you to note is that the cited goals and objectives are not exhaustive; they can be added to as required by the academic institutions concerned.

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Try to outline the distinction that is there between Vocational and technical éducation programmes

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we tried to define the concept technical and vocational education as a comprehensive term that covers the prevocational, vocational, and technical or tertiary aspects of the discipline. Prevocational, vocational and technical aspects of TVE show the level which the discipline is offered and practiced.

We have also seen that it is the corporate or individual vision that gives rise to the mission of TVE, while the mission provides the basis upon which the philosophy of VTE is formulated. The goals and objectives of TVE are respectively directed as guided by their respective philosophies

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learned that there are differences in the philosophy, goals and objectives as they relate to the level which TVE courses are offered. That is the goals and objectives of TVE at the pre-vocational, vocational and tertiary levels of education are relatively different.

TVE at the pre-vocational level is intended to give the students broad-based and integrated view of the world of work and to expose them to the opportunities that are available in various TVE careers through further education or employment.

At the vocational level, TVE programmes are intended to equip the students with the necessary skills for employment, self-employment or further education.

At the tertiary level, TVE programmes are intended to train the students for middle and higher level performance in the field of technology, engineering and business management

1.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1) How would you explain the goals and objectives of TVE and objectives of TVE at the pre-vocational and vocational levels to your friend who is in a grammar school?

2) Try and explain the difference between technical, vocational, and technical and vocational education.

3) List five trades that are offered in technical colleges, and mention their relevance to technological development of Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES

Ekpenyong, L. E. (2005) Foundations of Technical Education: New Directions and Approaches.

National Board for Technical Education (1985) Curriculum Specifications in Business Education, Kaduna, NBTE. Lighthouse Polytechnic (2004) Academic Plan.

MODULE 5
UNIT 3: ACADEMIC POLICIES AND REGULATIONS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

At the time you gained admission to your college, polytechnic or university, you may have been surprised by the number of forms you were asked to complete in order to assure the institution that you were properly admitted. On the other hand, you may have been handed a booklet, that is, prospectus which contained detailed guidelines relating to your programme of study and conditions for graduation. The provision of the form you filled and the contents of the prospectus that you received represent the expression of the academic policies of your institution.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

Consequent upon the above introduction, the objective of this unit is to enable you:

1) Understand the academic policies and regulations of Nigerian tertiary institutions such as the polytechnics and related institutions with reference to: (a) Admission policy
(b) Registration policy
(c) Matriculation policy
(d) Academic standards
2) Understand examination rules and regulations

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

As spelt in the NUC and NBTE Minimum Standards (NUC, 2004; NBTE, 2005) and as reflected in the prospectus or academic handbooks of most Nigerian universities and polytechnics, (Oyo State Polytechnic, 2003, Abia State Polytechnic, 2005, Lighthouse Polytechnic, 2004), the cardinal objective for the growth of any Nigerian TVE and other similar levels of institutions are usually spelt out under various policy guidelines. Such policy guidelines include administrative and personnel, staff recruitment, physical and allied policies.

ACADEMIC POLICIES: The academic policies of an institution provide the framework upon which various aspects of student academic matters such as admission, examination and curriculum are to be approached or handled. To ensure your clearer understanding of the issues under discussion, we shall take them in turn.

3.1 Admission Policy

In relation to the guidelines provided by the NBTE, most Nigerian polytechnic academic policies are directed towards developing relevant academic policies and programmes that would be of utmost benefit to those so admitted. It also spells out that individuals who gain entry into the institution are qualified and are ready to address themselves to the goal of learning.

With reference to admission requirements, institutions usually admit candidates for full or part-time ND programmes subject to their possessing the requisite 'O' level qualification and passing the prescribed entrance examinations.

3.2 Student Registration Policy

Usually students who are admitted are required to complete all the record relating to their admissions two weeks after resumption of academic activities.

3.3 Matriculation Policy

This is a policy that marks the end of admission and registration. By regulation, no new student may be admitted into the institution after the matriculation processes have been completed.

3.4 Academic Standards

Course Credit System: Under the course credit system which is operated in Nigerian tertiary institutions, subject areas are broken into unit courses which can be examined and for which a student earns a credit or credits if he/she scores a pass grade.

KEY TERMS

CREDIT: The number of points attached to and earned through registration for the course

COURSE UNIT: This represents the number of hours per week, for say, 15 weeks within a semester:

i) One hour per week for 15 weeks will be equal to one course unit.

ii) Two tutorial hours may be equal to one Course unit.

iii) Two or three hours laboratory/studio/ practical work/project equal one course Unit.

3.5 Policy on Student Work Load

This spells out the work load for full- or part-time student on ND or HND or Degree Programme. Usually a student on a full-time course is not expected to carry fewer than 16 and more than 24 credits or course units per semester

3.6 Examination Rules and Regulations

One important area of academic policy is that which concerns the mode of assessing the performance of students. Student assessments is usually divided into two parts, namely: continuous assessment which is generally assigned 30 per cent of the total score of 100 marks. The other is the end of course or semester assessment which is assigned a maximum score of 70 per cent of the normative score of 100 marks.

3.7. Absence from Examination

This policy spells out the conditions under which a student who failed to take a scheduled examination may be permitted to do so on a later date.

3.8 Policy on Appeal for Reassessment

This policy makes provision for a student who might not have been satisfied with his/her score, to have the script for such a subject reassessed by neutral or external assessors where such a situation arises, and the academic board approves the conduct of such an exercise, the affected student has to pay prescribed charges for the exercise.

3.9 Policy on Grading of Courses

This policy generally stipulates that a student, who obtains a minimum of 40 per cent or above will be credited for the course. Provision is usually made for the determination of the Grade Point Average (GPA) each semester for each student.

The GPA is arrived at through the summation of course units (CU), (that is course units x quality point) by dividing the total course units taken per student per semester.

KEY POINT

DETERMINATION OF QUALITY POINT

To award a grade for each course and also determine The quality points for each course per student, the Over-all assessments (CA + Exam score) and the Grade (A, B) and quality point (e.g. 5.4, 3….) are calculated.

Based on NBTE policy guideline, the following quality points are adopted by ND and HND awarding institutions as follows:

MARKS OBTAINABLE	LETTER GRADE	QUALITY POINTS
70 -100%	A	5.00
70 - 74	AB	4.50
65 - 69	B	4.00
60 – 64%	BC	3.50
55 – 59	C	3.00
50 – 54	CD	2.50
45 – 49	D	2.00
40 – 44	DE	1.50
00 – 39	E	0.00

3.10 Award of Certificates

All degree and diploma awarding institutions do so on the basis of the policy guidelines provided by their respective supervisory authorities, namely, the NUC and the NBTE.

In the case of Nigerian polytechnics and related institutions, the following classes of Diploma for the ND and the HND are awarded by the licensed institutions:

Institutions:

Classes	CGPA Distinction	4.50 – 5.00
Upper Credit	3.50 – 4.49	
Lower Credit	2.50 – 3.49	
Pass	1.50 – 2.49	

SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

List what you have learned about the academic policies of your academic institution.

3.11 Curriculum Structure

The NBTE provides the curriculum guidelines which all ND and HND awarding institutions have to follow as a means of providing minimum national academic standards in various disciplines in technical and vocational education.

The structure of ND and HND curricula have the following four components:

1) General education: This consists of the following course components which all the students must study

(i) Art and Humanities (compulsory) (ii) Mathematics and Sciences (for non-Science based programmes – not compulsory)

(iii) Social Studies (compulsory)

(iv) Physical and Health Education (Not compulsory)

2) Foundation Courses These may include courses in Mathematics, Pure Science, Technical Drawing, Descriptive Geometry, Economics, etc.

3) Professional Courses: These are courses which give the student the theory and practical skills needed for practice in chosen fields of specialization at the technician or technologist level.

4) SIWES: Student Industrial Work Experience (SIWES) is structured to cover four semesters of Classroom/workshop/laboratory activities within the institution and three to four months supervised industrial work experience programme in the relevant area of industry.

These four components of the ND and HND curricula form the basis upon which the courses and specifications are provided in various NBTE designed curricula.

3.12 Other Matters Covered in Academic Policy

As we indicated earlier, in order to ensure that registered students fully avail themselves of all the rules governing their studentship, a number of other policy issues, which are no less important need to be noted. For instance, there are guidelines on what students need to know about the following:

i) Incomplete grade

ii) Registration for courses iii) Repeating of Courses

iv) Probation conditions and duration

v) Withdrawal from a department or the institution

3.13 Implications of Knowing Academic Policies of Tertiary Level TVE

Most of the student advisory activities that would be expected of you as a students course adviser requires your understanding of the academic policies of the institution you might be employed. For example, you should be able to offer accurate advise to a student who is faced with probation problem, the need to change course or register or repeat a course. You should be able to make informed contributions on matters of your institution's academic policies, and so on.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Like other policies guiding the organization and management of various academic institutions, the academic policies of TVE institutions provide the framework which their goals may be achieved. The conclusion to be drawn from this unit is that without well articulated academic policies, the achievement of the goals of the Nigerian TVE institutions would be difficult to meet.

4.1 Summary

We introduced this unit by explaining the importance of academic policies to institutional goal attainment. Among the aspects of academic policies that we have explained in this unit are those governing admission requirements and how students may register. Matriculation policy is intended to mark the end of student admission exercise. Policy on academic standard provides guidelines on how credits may be earned from registered courses, and the amount of acceptable work-load to which a student might be allowed to carry.

Policy on the regulations and conduct of examinations cover subjects such as absence from examinations, appeal procedure, grading and award of diploma.
The policy on curriculum provides a programme structure which identifies four components of ND and HND programmes, namely: general education; foundation courses, professional courses and industrial work experience scheme (SIWES).

The implications of mastering the academic policies of an academic institution were pointed out to you the students.

5.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1a) Why is it necessary for an institution to have documented academic policies?
b) Why must students have their personal copies of the prospectus of their institutions
2) List and describe briefly the four components of the NBTE curricula for TVE institutions in Nigeria

7.0 REFERENCES

Abia State Polytechnic (2004) Student Handbook, Polytechnic Press, Aba, Abia State.

National Universities Commission (2005) Self Study Form for Accreditation of Degree Programmes offered in Nigerian Universities. Abuja:NUC.

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MODULE 5
Unit 4: EVALUATION AND ACCOUNTABILITY IN TVE INSTITUTIONS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objective
3.0 Main contents
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-marked assignment
7.0 References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Programme evaluation constitutes a central task in the organization and management of TVE, since it seeks to determine the extent of goal achievement and quality assurance; and to provide criteria for establishing institutional goal achievement and accountability. Consequently the NBTE evaluation activities usually cover academic matters, physical structures, staffing and funding in the Nigerian polytechnics and monotechnics.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

1) Understand the meaning and concept of evaluation
2) Understand the role of evaluation in TVE
3) Understand the role of evaluation in TVE
4) Know how to meet evaluation criteria
5) Understand the process of evaluating TVE programmes
6) Understand the process of evaluating TVE programmes through accreditation process
7) Evaluate the merits and demerits of programme accreditation
8) Understand the place of accountability in the management of TVE
9) Understand the role expectation of educators in the evaluation of TVE programmes
10) Appreciate the importance of financial accountability.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 MEANING AND CONCEPT OF EVALUATION

Evaluation is generally defined as the process of determining the worth of evidence, idea, or something. In relation to education, evaluation means the efforts of determine the worth of an educational programme or curriculum, for example, degree programme, ND curriculum, or the JSS business studies curriculum.

As indicated by Ekpenyong (2008), Slattery, (2006), the concept and purpose of assessment in education involves the process of observing and measuring learning. However, you need to bear in mind that assessment is not just a process which is different from, but as part of the total learning experience.

Key concept

Evaluation or assessment is a process of making expectations explicit and public, setting appropriate criteria and high expectations for learning quality; systematically gathering, analyzing, and interpreting evidence to determine how well performance matches those expectations and standards using the resulting information to document, explain and improve performance.

T. Angelo (1995) what is assessment?

NB: 'Evaluation' and 'assessment' are used interchangeably in this unit: where appropriate.

3.2 TYPES OF EVALUATION

There are different types of evaluation, such as antecedent evaluation. However, since the intention of this unit is to provide you with a simple working knowledge of evaluation, consequently only two types of it will be discussed. These are formative and summative evaluation models of evaluation. They are based on the principle that maximum benefit should be obtained from the resources that are invested in a programme. The difference between the two is mainly in terms of their timing.

i) Formative Evaluation: In formative evaluation, the process of determining the success of a programme defect or failure is not left until its completion; hence the additional term process or on-going evaluation. When the programme starts or is in progress. It is duly evaluated through this process, the evaluator has the opportunity of detecting or discovering the strengths and possible difficulties in the programme, so that the data or information so gathered can be used as a guide to changing, modifying or redefining the direction of the programme, while it is still in progress.

ii) The objective of summative evaluation is to assess the worth of a programme or its overall effectiveness after it has been completed. In TVE, the process may involve the assessment of various aspects of a curriculum or programme, for instance, objectives, course content, student performance assessment procedure, human and material resources. Summative evaluation is important because it assesses not only planned, but also the unplanned outcomes of the programme.

When properly organized and executed, both formative and summative evaluation could give rise to standards or criteria that would allow for the making of reasonably accurate judgment or decision about the worth of a TVE programme to be made (Ekpenyong, 2008).

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

a) Explain in your own words the difference between formative and summative evaluation.

b) Explain what could be the possible outcome of each form of evaluation.

3.3 THE ROLE OF EVALUATION IN TVE

i) Business and industrial practices are always in the process of change, which is usually propelled by changes in technology. Since TVE is primarily concerned with the production of the workers needed by industry, its curricular review is therefore intended to ensure relevance to all areas of industry.

ii) You must remember that the role of evaluation in TVE is to ensure its relevance to various occupational areas.

iii) It is through evaluation that the effectiveness of TVE programme inputs namely; goals and objectives, academic standards, instructional facilities and personnel, etc can adequately be ascertained. Thus where problems are identified in any area or aspect of a programme, corrections can be made in goof time.

iv) Evaluation provides data or information through which the effectiveness of teachers in the areas of instruction, research and co-operation with industry, and professional contributions could be decided, and/or improved upon

v) Evaluation can help the teacher or evaluator, to determine those educational goals which have been achieved, and where there are lapses, improvement could be effected.

3.4 HOW TO MEET EVALUATION CRITERIA

A good evaluation programme has to meet the following five criteria: value, credibility, objectivity, communicability and utility.

Let us explain these criteria a little further:

i) Value: This implies determining how sound and defensible, the evidence that has been obtained through the process of the programme.

ii) When we speak of credibility in evaluation we mean that those who receive its results should see it to be true and without any doubt.

iii) Objectivity implies that the result of evaluation should be free from any personal prejudices.

iv) Communicability implies that there should be a clear presentation of data and criteria for judging the results.

v) Utility has to do with the relevance of the data or results to those who are to take decisions on the aspects of the programme so evaluated.

3.5 PROCESS OF EVALUATING TVE PROGRAMMES

To evaluate any programme or aspect of a programme in TVE, you may wish to follow the following steps: as summarized by Ekpenyong (2008) and Dressel, (1976):

i) State the objective or objectives of the programme

ii) Establish the criteria which should strictly relate to the programme objectives.

iii) Collect evidence of the results and weight the evidence or findings against the standard that has been established.

Define and analyze, and interpret obtained data and other related information
Take decision on the basis of the evidence or results that have been obtained.
vi) Determine and explain the success or failure rates
vii) Show the relationship between the experience, before, during, and after the programme in terms of outcome or impact of the various programme segments.

3.6 EVALUATION OF TVE THROUGH ACCREDITATION

TVE programmes have implication for evaluation. For your guidance, such areas of possible evaluation are categorized on the table below:

Table: M5/4.1: Evaluatable Programmes in Technical and Vocational Education in Nigeria

S/N	Programme	Developer	Implementer	Accreditation body
1	National Diploma Higher National Diploma, Post HND	National Board for Technical Education	Mono-and Polytechnics	National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)
2	National Technical Cert. and National Business courses	National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)	Technical colleges and vocational centre	NBTE (Certifying Agency: NABTEB)
3	NCE in Agric Edu. Bus. Edu. Home Econs. Edu. Fine Arts Edu and Technical Education	National Commission of college of education (NCCE)	College of Education (COE)	NCCE
4	SIWES	Industrial Training Fund	Universities Polytechnic C.O.E	NBTE/NUC
5	Degree courses in Tech and Voc. Teacher Edu	NUC	University	NUC
6	Pre-Vocational/Vocational subjects in agriculture home economics, bus Studies and Introtech/Tech Subjs.	Fed. Ministry of Education	Junior and Senior secondary schools	

Source: Ekpenyong, L.E (2008) Foundations of Technical and vocational Education. Ambik press.

Education and the universities are subject to evaluation through accreditation.

Key concept

Accreditation: This may be described as a broad process by which a group of educational institutions or group of professionals form a semi-governing or voluntary association with the sole aim of ensuring minimum quality of the institutions, programmes or school which maintains membership in or being accredited by the association.

Evaluation by programme accreditation bodies such as the NUC, NBTE and the NCCE usually covers areas such as programme vision and philosophy and objectives, admission requirement, mode of teaching personnel, physical facilities such as buildings, classroom space, instructional facilities, course content and student academic records.

The NBT (1998) the accreditation exercise falls under the following five broad areas:

1) **Academic matters**

- Goal and objectives of the programme or option
- Curriculum
- Admissions
- Academic regulations
- Evaluation of students work

2) **Physical facilities**

- Classrooms and lecture theatre
- Studio/drawing room
- Laboratories
- Workshops/field facilities
- Office accommodation
- Library resources

3) **Staffing:**

- Core teaching staff
- Service staff
- Technical support staff
- Administrative support staff
- Staff development

4) **Funding**

- Recurrent funding
- Capital funding

5) **Assessment of the achievement of goals and objective**

Institutional and programme accreditation remain a veritable way of assuring the quality of the products of all degree, diploma and certificates from the Nigerian tertiary institutions.

3.7 MERITS/DEMERITS OF ACCREDITATION

Evaluation for accreditation ensures that each and every programme of the Nigerian universities, polytechnics, colleges of education and technical colleges in Nigeria has met the minimum standards in terms of:

a) Student admission requirement b) Course contents

c) Adequacy of physical structures

d) Quality and number of academic and supporting staff

e) Adequacy of instructional facilities and in terms of quality of graduates.

In essence, accreditation exercise is instituted to ensure quality assurance.

Demerits: One noticeable defect in the accreditation exercises which are usually conducted by Nigerian universities and TVE institutions outside the universities has been the attempt to always assess too many variables during one visit. This often creates room for rushing over or overlooking vital areas of deficiency.

The other defect is the attempt by accredited institutions to 'window-dress' the programmes meant for accreditation. Window dressing involves the process of borrowing facilities from other institutions or dealers in order to meet accreditation requirement.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE
Summarize what you consider to be the merits and demerits of programme accreditation.

3.8 ACCOUNTABILITY AS ASPECT OF EVALUATION

You would recall that we had earlier defined evaluation as a means of determining the worth of a programme or thing. However, in order to properly determine the worth of such programme, the role of those that are charged with its implementation has to be duly assessed. It is in doing so that we can judge the extent to which their performance level has met established standard. This brings us to question of accountability by those assigned the task of implementing academic programmes.

Key concept
Accountability: *is a process of appraising individuals in their assigned roles in order to determine the extent to which they have met established standard or set objectives. Ekpenyong (2008) Foundations of Technical and Vocational Education.*

As a prospective TVE teacher or administrator, policy maker, or worker in any sector of the economy you, must recognize accountability as a central factor in your career life. As it is one thing that will enable you appreciate the essence of your profession and for you maintain the best possible educational quality and standard as a TVE educator.

3.9 EDUCATOR'S ROLE EXPECTATIONS

Every teacher, whether as manager, head teacher, or class teacher has his/her role expectations. The head of a department must be able to establish attainable goals, assign duties and delegate authority as appropriate. The class teachers, on their part, must be able to discharge their various professional responsibilities, including the provision of quality teaching and correct character building to the accountability in technical teacher education should not be limited to teaching and production of quality graduates; it should equally be extended to various agencies associated with TVE. Such agencies include education boards, ministries of education professional associations, employers of labour and non-governmental agencies.

3.10 FINANCIAL ACCOUNTABILITY

Managers of TVE at various levels, namely, ministries of education TVE bodies such as the NBTE, and the NCCE; polytechnic or college management levels are usually the chief accounting officers of their establishments. In line with their expected that these offices be ready at all times to render the correct account of their financial stewardship, if the whole cycle of evaluation is to be completed successfully.

STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

Why is accountability important among TVE lecturers?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Programme evaluation has been found to play a vital role in establishing the worth of TVE programme. An effective implementation of evaluation programmes, particularly as they affect the accreditation of TVE programmes on tertiary institutions can keep in assuring the quality of the products of Nigerian institutions of learning.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learned that evaluation involves, among others, the process of observing and measuring the effectiveness of TVE programmes.

Two major types of evaluation have been discussed. These include process or on-going, and summative evaluation which takes place after the programme has ended. Among the roles of evaluation we have discussed is the need to ensure <u>its relevance to various areas of occupation</u> that the products of TVE are relevant to the various areas of industry which they are employed.

It has also been explained that a good evaluation must need certain criteria such as credibility, objectivity, communicability, and utility.

Evaluation of a programme involves stating objectives, establishing standards collecting data, and taking decision on the basis of evidence so provided.

Accreditation of TVE programmes in tertiary institutions such as the polytechnic, involves assessment of academic matter, physical facilities, staffing, funding and assessment of the effectiveness of the accreditation exercise. The merits and demerits of programme accreditation have been listed in the unit.

Finally, the place of accountability of TVE programmes, particularly in the area of fund handling have been discussed; those in responsible positions of leadership are expected to play their roles in the context of public expectations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1 a) Define the term programme evaluation
  b) Differentiate among the following: process evaluation, summative evaluation, and accountability in TVE.

2 a) Outline what constitute effective evaluation criteria
  b) Explain any three of them in full

3 a) Discuss the role of the NBTE in programme evaluation

b) Outline the key areas of upon which accreditation exercise may be conducted in Nigerian polytechnics.

7.0 REFERENCES

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