

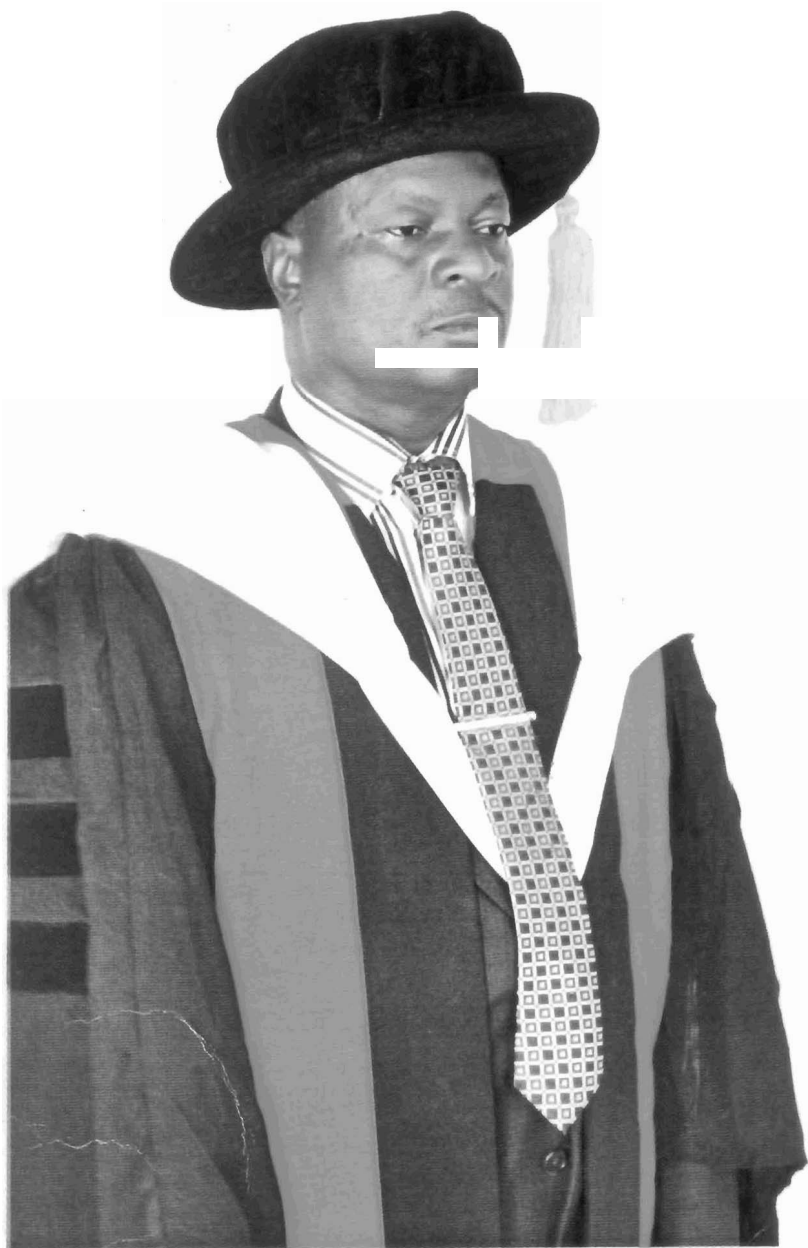
**INAUGURAL LECTURE SERIES 261**

**PEOPLE AND ORGANISATIONS:  
THE DYNAMICS OF WORKPLACE  
BEHAVIOUR**

By

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DYNAMICS OF WORKPLACE  
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**An Inaugural Lecture Delivered at Oduduwa Hall,  
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife on Tuesday, 11<sup>th</sup>  
February, 2014.**

By

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**Inaugural Lecture Series 261**

## PREAMBLE

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Sir, distinguished ladies and gentlemen, I am here today to give the 261st Inaugural Lecture of the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife, the third of its kind in the Department of Psychology.

I give honour and adoration to the Almighty God with whom all things are possible. It is the possibility in the Omniscient God that has made today a reality.

*Afterall, who is Apollos? And, who is Paul?*

*We are simply God's servants, by whom you were led to believe. Each one of us does the work which the Lord gave him to do... It is God who matters because he makes the plant grow.*

(1 Corinthians,3: 5-7. The Catholic Rainbow Study Bible – Good

News Translation)

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Sir, my sojourn in academia has been over the last two decades and two years and, during this period, I have been actively involved in the scientific study of human behaviour in industries and organisations that are concerned with the provision, distribution and use of goods and services. I have specifically, by way of scholarship, focused attention on aspects of organisation which concern the well-being of members, as well as the smooth functioning, effectiveness and survival of the organisations. I have conducted research on employee behaviours and how these can be improved through hiring practices, training and development, leadership, reward system, employee relations and performance management.

On the whole, my contributions so far in the aforementioned areas of Industrial-Organisational Psychology have created further challenges to my intellectual resourcefulness and also sharpened my horizon for more futuristic enhancement of human knowledge within the scholarship of Psychology as one of the components of the Social Sciences.

Through the help of God, the Keeper of Israel, who neither slumbers nor sleeps and the support of many people whose contributions have been enormous and whom I have acknowledged, I am here to give account of the central focus of my research endeavour and contributions to the academia. I have chosen the topic, "People and Organisations: The Dynamics of Workplace Behaviour" for today's inaugural lecture because of its all-embracing coverage of the bulk of all that I have been able to do in the past twenty-two years.

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Sir, I humbly dedicate this inaugural lecture to the memory of my beloved father and mother, Baba Phillip and Mama Elizabeth Egun Akinola-Ajila, both of blessed memory. I thank the duo equally for putting me on the path that led me into this hall today to stand before this great audience to tell my tale. And, so, Mr. Vice Chancellor, Sir, permit me to present the 261<sup>st</sup> Inaugural Lecture of this great University.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The major pre-occupation of human beings has been work which is a central feature of modern society. It occupies a greater percentage of the overall time available to most people for a major part of their lives and the economic rewards obtained from it determine an individual's standard of living. According to Vroom & Deci (1970), human beings are motivated to work because they believe that their engagement in work will bring them to a state of being more satisfied than their present state. It is a natural phenomenon for people to work, just as it is for them to rest. Since it is a natural phenomenon for individuals to work, motivation toward effective performance is therefore a *sine qua non*.

Studies on the influence of motivation on workers' behaviour and productivity dates back to 1895 when Frederick Winslow Taylor presented his ideas on "piece-rate system". Since then a large number of studies/experiments including the famous Hawthorne studies have been done in Industrial Psychology. They were designed to determine those factors that influence workers' behaviour and attitudes.

In 1941, Elton Mayo published the result of the psychological experiments carried out at the plant of the Western Electric Company, Chicago. This work represents a significant landmark in the development of ideals about the behaviour and attitudes of people at work. Mayo's investigations revealed the importance of considering a worker as a person with feelings and

the work situation as a society. This single feat revolutionized management thinking about workers, by focusing attention on the component of job, work satisfaction and incentives (motivator variables) for the workers (Ajila, 1997b). When one considers the quantity of human behaviour in a given situation, the need to investigate and know the reasons why most of our actions or behaviours tend to be the result of certain situational factors is very desirous. Thus, in view of the difficulty in studying the motivational process particularly when it relates to predicting work behaviour within an organisational setting, several alternative theories have been postulated. Among these are: Adams' (1965) Equity theory which emphasizes the role of social comparisons as an important motivator of behaviour. Locke's (1968; 1978) goal-setting theory is another model which attempts to predict performance behaviour. The theory suggested that it is the goal that an individual is aiming for which motivates, rather than just the satisfaction of attaining it.

March and Simon (1958) formulated a need-deprivation theory which attempts to predict employees' motivation to produce. They suggest that "motivation to produce stems from a present or anticipated state of discontent and a perception of a direct connection between individual production and a new state of satisfaction". Other theorists like Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman (1957) - Two factor Theory; Maslow (1943) - Hierarchy of Needs theory; Vroom (1964) - Expectancy theory; Porter and Lawler (1968) - An Integrative

Motivational model; Skinner (1953, 1969) - Reinforcement theory; McGregor (1960) - Theory X and Theory Y; McClelland (1961; 1965; 1975) - Need Achievement Theory; and Alderfer (1972) - ERG theory of Work Motivation have also contributed in this direction.

Management's long standing concern with motivation, attitude to work and behaviour of people at the workplace therefore stems from the fact that low worker motivation is thought to be reflected in such circumstances as low productivity, strikes, personal conflicts between supervisors and their subordinates, absenteeism and high turnover.

Work organisation offers a person far more than merely a job. Indeed, from the time individuals first enter a workplace to the time they leave their membership behind, they experience and often commit themselves in a distinct way of life, which is complete with its own rhythms, rewards, relationships, demands and potentials.

Individuals hold a certain image of themselves when entering an organisation. This undergoes changes as they interact with the organisation and learn new tasks and roles. Joining any organisation means developing new involvements and relationships with other people. The person meets new people, participates in many informal groups, and is exposed to many interpersonal influences. Previous relationships established before entering the organisation are often modified. And, to become a successful member, the individual must



accommodate, at least to some degree, the goals, values, and practices of the organisation.

One of the surest signs of deteriorating conditions in an organisation is low job satisfaction. In its more sinister form, it takes the form of strikes and showdowns, absenteeism and employee turnover. It may also be a part of grievances, low productivity, disciplinary problems and other organisational difficulties. Today, and more than before, human resources are recognized as the most important and vital for the existence and survival of an organisation. It is the people who make things happen, without people the other resources are of no use.

## **HUMAN BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANISATIONS**

Human behaviour in organisations can be defined as all the human acts, which are exhibited in work situations. It refers to all those human acts and responses, which are exhibited by the working members of an organisation. Such acts and responses include the individual's self awareness, habits, mannerisms and attitudes, perceptions and motivation tendencies, learning styles, cognitive activities, performance and communication styles. Others are decision-making and problem solving, participation, development and creativity, innovativeness, evaluation and contributions. These are the main components of human behaviour at work. It is through them that people perform tasks necessary to meet defined goals and objectives (Ajila, 2003)

An individual enters an organisation with a relatively entrenched set of values and attitudes, and a substantially established personality. While not permanently fixed, an employee's values, attitudes and personality are brought essentially at the time he or she enters an organisation. How employees interpret their work environment will influence their level of motivation, what they learn on the job and eventually the individual work behaviour.

People do not come into organisations as blank slate. Each of us has a personality that is shaped by our heredity and past experiences. We have attitudes, perceptions and ways of behaving. We are motivated to satisfy certain needs and have skills and aspirations.

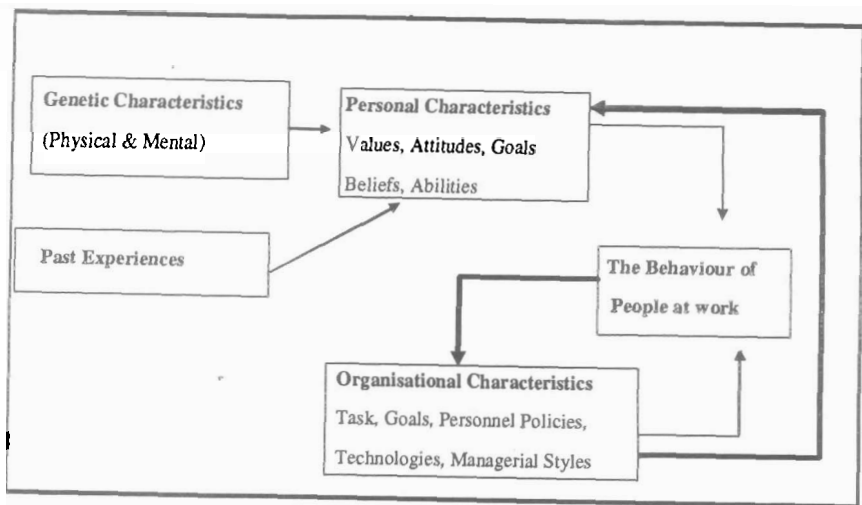
An individual's personal characteristics are based on inherited genetic factors plus all of the past learning experiences that shaped the personality. The individual brings these personal characteristics into the organisational situation, which in turn affects the way he thinks and acts. Organisational factors such as the nature of task, the technology present, organisational structure, management style and personnel policies also have direct influence on workers behaviour. They affect the behaviour of people at work either positively or negatively.

A person's working relationships comprise a major aspect of his or her total life. Involvement in and commitment to work, and the satisfaction derived from it, are the mutual concern of the organisation and

**the individual.** Thus, the interaction of motivational factors, value systems, attitudes and the like with the various aspects of the working situation is an integral component in the study of human behavior in organisations. The working situation is composed in part of the organisational and social environment, and the individual is subjected to whatever features this environment may have. Some of the aspects are planned and organised, some are consequences of fortuitous events and circumstances included in this organisational and social context and whether training is provided within it. In addition, the organisational context or environment is characterized by the structure of the organisation, the type of supervision, the policies and managerial practices that are used. Apart from the social environment that is external to the organisation, a miniature type of social environment exists within the internal environment of the organisation. This social environment includes interaction with fellow workers, and communications (both formal and informal). People at work must be regarded not only as individuals but as members of working groups. Perhaps the most important effect of work groups is in enforcing group standards of behaviour on individual members - such as joining the union or restricting output. The power of groups to enforce their norms on individuals is greater when members are keen to be accepted by the group. Work groups may be more or less tightly knit and organised.. Some have a definite leadership hierarchy and certain people act as spokesperson for the group. Such groups exert a steady pressure to gain their own ends. If work

groups have to cooperate in order to do the work, it is important that they should be internally cohesive, and that members should be mutually compatible. Mutual compatibility can be easily realized by simply letting people sort themselves into teams and allowing them to change when possible. When social relations are unfavorable, absenteeism and labour turnover are more likely to be rampant and the economic consequences of these can be very severe.

Figure 1 provides an elaboration of those variables that specifically relate to the behaviour of people at the workplace.



**Figure 1: A Model of the Behaviour of People at Work**

In the organisational context, the behaviour of members is therefore a function of Personal and Organisational characteristics. This can be represented by the formulae:

$$B @W = f ( P \& O )$$

B= Behaviour

@W= At Work

f = Function

P= Personal characteristics

O= Organisational characteristics

An individual's personal characteristics are based on inherited genetic factors plus all of the past learning experiences that shaped his personality (French, Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985). The individual brings these personal characteristics into the organisational situation, which in turn affects the way he thinks and acts. Organisational factors such as the nature of task, the technology present, organisational structure, management style and personnel policies also have influence on workers behaviour. While feedback from organisational characteristics affects personal characteristics, feedback from the people's behaviour at work also affect organisational characteristics.

One of the key managerial functions is to understand human behaviour and to help shape that behaviour to meet organisational goals. In other words, managers influence the behaviour of employees. This is inevitable and essential in order to meet the collective goals of the organisation. In influencing or altering behaviour the manager can affect the personal characteristics of the employees by trying to improve abilities or by trying to modify attitudes. Alternatively, the manager can change the organisational context by modifying the task, structure, and system of compensation or management

style. In other words, change and improvement in behaviour can result from either changing the individual or changing the work situation. Usually, it is most effective to make changes in both in order to elicit improved behaviour and performance.

## **PSYCHOLOGY AND THE DETERMINANTS OF WORKPLACE BEHAVIOUR**

Psychology has been severally defined as the scientific study of human behaviour and its correlate processes. These include all the overt and covert reactions which describe human aliveness. Therefore, within the work setting, behaviour includes any observable and unobservable things that people do including how productive they are; how much effort they put in their work; how likely they are to continue working rather than quit; how they make decisions and act on those decisions; how they respond to various incentives, their attitude towards the organisation's policies, and beliefs in those policies among others (Ajila, 2010a).

*The primary goal of psychology has been to explain, predict and control behaviour. What then are the causes of behaviour?*

The causes of behaviour fall into two broad categories, personal and situational. The personal category encompasses relatively stable characteristics or traits (abilities, beliefs, motivation, attitudes, values, likes and dislikes) that characterize the individual. It includes such

work-related characteristics as job aptitude, intelligence, need for achievement, and leadership style. Personal attributes can be a product of heredity (the individual's genetic make-up), environment (the individual's past experiences), or some combination of heredity and environment. Usually it is difficult to determine the degree to which a personal attribute is caused by either factor. Regardless, personal factors ordinarily are hard to change; the influence of childhood experiences and a person's heredity are difficult to alter. Psychologists in organisations watch out for these experiences and hereditary factors that cannot be modified during recruitment, selection and placement, and screen out such a person in order to avoid their long term negative implications for the organisations.

Situational factors are those characteristics of the person's environment or surroundings that affect the person at the time of the behaviour in question. They can include such elements of the work environment as the immediate task to be accomplished, the compensation system, the individual's relationship with co-workers, and the nature of the total organisation. Situational aspects can also include factors outside the work environment, such as the person's family life and the values of the community in which the person lives.

Many employees are interested in what they will get at the end of the month rather than what they will contribute to the growth of the organisation. Some will be concerned about the items that they have brought to the workplace to sell, like jewelries, shoes and bags.

Some others will use the departmental refrigerator to sell biscuits and soft drinks. What time of the day do they have for their official duties? None. Some use their office as a business centre to type projects and photocopy documents for students. They are looking for money at all costs. Some have turned their office to a prayer ground and all that they do from morning till evening is praying and casting out demons in the office. What time do they have to do what they will be paid for at the end of the month? Some employees spend the greater part of the day jesting and discussing with coworkers about events of the previous day/weekend. Some spend a whole night at a vigil and only come to the office to sleep. We cannot cheat nature. Some employees are so nonchalant that even when there are customers or clients in front of them, they will just appear as if they do not see them. If there are files to attend to, they are less concerned. All that they are interested in, is their salary at the end of the month. Pay increase and promotion are all that they know, even when they do not merit either. A good number of employees go around with such mindset as : (i). 'It does not matter whether there is gain or not, my salary will be paid at the end of the month' – "*Ògó tà, ògo ò tà, owó aláàárù á pé*" (ii). "One does not sweat when doing government work" – "*Akì í se isé Oba làágùn*". (iii). 'Small work, big money' - "*Isé kékeré owó nlà*". Some supervisors can never be pleased. They are too difficult to please. A few individuals at work always have reasons to complain. Some have found this type of behaviour so convenient that at times they



complain about themselves. These few individuals must be recognized as poorly adjusted employees whose complaints are symptoms of disorder rather than descriptions of grievances. They need to be helped rather than being ignored. Some employees hide under the excuse that they are sick and use that period to attend to personal issues. They continuously submit medical report as a cover-up for their regular absence from work. This type of improper behaviour is tantamount to indiscipline and it is unacceptable, dysfunctional and unethical. When an employee continues to give excuses on regular basis, he/she needs to be watched very closely. It is very much likely that such an employee is dissatisfied with his or her work and looking for another job elsewhere. These group of employees are generally susceptible to leaving the organisation with or without notice. If an employee's attitude to work is negative, his or her behaviour will be negative, *ceteris paribus*.

## **THE BASIS OF INDIVIDUAL WORK BEHAVIOUR**

Psychologists have long been interested in determining the ultimate cause of individual differences among people. Usually they have divided the major causes of individual work behaviour into the two general categories of *heredity* and *environment*. Those who emphasize the importance of one of these factors often minimise or even completely ignore the possible influence of the other. It seems probable that both factors are usually operative but that their relative importance differs markedly in the determination of different

personal characteristics. Heredity seems to be of most importance in determining such physical traits as height, weight, and strength, although it is clear that environment also has some effect upon these factors.

On the other hand, environmental factors generally have a more dominant influence on personality traits and interests. With respect to mental abilities, there is reason to believe that hereditary factors determine the potential level of development that an individual can optimally achieve. Within this potential limit, however, environmental factors have an important influence on the level of development that actually occurs.

An individual's nature depends upon the way he grew and was modified by experience. How he grew depends upon the quality of the chemical substance in the fertilized egg, which his parents produced, as well as upon the environmental conditions under which this egg developed into a living person. Since an egg does not grow unless conditions are favourable, the early environmental factor is very similar for the majority of people. Such differences in growth as do appear therefore are largely influenced by the chemical construction of the egg. We speak of this influence as "heredity". These differences, in turn, may be transmitted to the next generation. Clearly, heredity is an important factor in determining the nature of the individual. Its importance can be seen when we compare the physical likenesses of parents and offspring. The potential abilities of offspring also tend to show similarities with those of

their parents. If one member of the family is a good worker on a given kind of job, there is some probability that his siblings will be equally satisfactory both in temperament and in potential ability. This relationship is perhaps as good a recommendation as any that can be given without resorting to psychological tests. To a lesser degree, cousins show similar abilities. It is partly because of this hereditary factor that we may expect musicians, football players, expert machinists, and the like to appear in certain families.

As a child grows, his ability to learn increases; as a consequence, his behaviour is further modified. We speak of such changes in behaviour as “acquired”. Knowledge, skill, and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. Learned modifications in behaviour are not passed on to children, but must be acquired by them through their own personal experience.

## **PREDICTING WORK BEHAVIOUR FROM PERSONALITY TRAITS**

Six personality traits have received most of the attention in the search to link personality traits to behaviour in organisations. They constitute locus of control, authoritarianism, Machiavellianism, self-esteem, self-monitoring, and risk propensity (French, Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985; Robbins, Judge & Sanghi, 2009).

**Locus of Control:** Some people believe that they control their own fate. Others see themselves as pawns of fate,

believing that what happens to them in their lives is due to luck or chance. The locus of control in the first case is internal; these people believe that they control their destiny. In the second case, it is external; these people believe that their lives are controlled by outside forces. Research evidence indicates that employees who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, more alienated from the work setting, and less involved in their jobs than those who rate high in internality. A manager might also expect to find that externals blame a poor performance evaluation on their boss's prejudice, their co-workers, or other events outside their control; whereas internals explain the same evaluation in terms of their own actions.

**Authoritarianism:** The term authoritarianism refers to a belief that there should be status and power differences among people in organisations. The extremely high authoritarian personalities are intellectually rigid, judgemental of others, deferential to those in positions above them, exploitative of those in positions below them, distrustful, and resistant to change. However, few persons are extreme authoritarians. It seems reasonable to expect that possessing a high authoritarian personality would be negatively related to the performance of a job that demands sensitivity to the feelings of others and the ability to adapt to complex and dynamic situations.

**Machiavellianism:** Closely related to authoritarianism is the characteristic called Machiavellianism ("Mach"), named after Niccolo Machiavelli, who wrote in the

sixteenth century on how to gain and manipulate power. An individual who is high in Machiavellianism (in contrast to someone who is low) – is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance, and believes that ends can justify means “if it works, use it” is consistent with a high-Mach perspective. In jobs that require bargaining skills (such as labour negotiator to purchasing manager) or that have substantial rewards for winning (such as a commissioned salesperson), high Machs are productive. In jobs where ends do not justify the means or that lack absolute measures of performance, it is difficult to predict the performance of high Machs.

**Self-Esteem:** People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. This trait is called self-esteem. The research on self-esteem (SE) offers some interesting insights into organisational behaviour. For example, self-esteem is directly related to expectations for success. High SEs believe that they possess more ability than they need in order to succeed at work. Individuals with high SEs will take more risks in job selection and are more likely to choose unconventional jobs than people with low SEs.

The most common finding on self-esteem is that low SEs are more susceptible to external influence than are high SEs. Low SEs are dependent on receiving positive evaluations from others. As a result, they are more likely to seek approval from others and more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect that are high SEs. In managerial positions, low

SEs will tend to be concerned with pleasing others and, therefore, less likely to take unpopular stands than are high SEs.

**Self-Monitoring:** This is another personality trait that has received increasing attention. It refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external, situational factors.

Individuals who are high in self-monitoring show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviours to external, situational factor. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. High self-monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public personal and their private selves. Low self-monitors can't deviate from their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitudes in every situation, and there's high behavioural consistency between who they are and what they do. The high self-monitor is capable of putting on different "faces" for different audiences.

**Risk Taking:** People differ in their willingness to take chances. This propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require before making their choice.

Individuals with a high risk propensity make more rapid decisions and use less information in making their choices than low risk propensity individuals. Managers might use this information to align employee risk taking

propensity with specific job demands. For instance, a high risk taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stock trader in a brokerage firm. This type of job demands rapid decision making.

## **MATCHING PERSONALITIES AND JOBS**

Obviously, individual personalities differ. So, too, do jobs. Following this logic, efforts have been made to properly match personalities with jobs. The most researched personality job-fit theory is the six-personality types proposed by Holland (1977).

These personality types along with their compatible occupations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Personality Types and Compatible Occupations

S/N	Personality Types	Meaning	Occupations
1	Realistic	Involves aggressive behaviour, physical activities requiring skill, strength and coordination	Farming, forestry, mechanic, drill press operator
2	Investigative	Involves activities <b>requiring thinking, organizing, and understanding</b> rather than feeling or emotion.	News reporting, mathematics, <b>police</b>
3	Social	Involves interpersonal rather than intellectual or physical activities.	Foreign service, social work, Salesman
4	Conventional	Involves rule-regulated orderly activities and sublimation of personal needs for an organisation or person of power and status	Accounting, corporate <b>management, finance.</b>
5	Enterprising	Involves verbal activities to influence others, to attain power and status	Law, public relations, real estate agent
6	Artistic	Involves self expression, artistic creation or emotional activities	Art, music, writing, painting



Holland developed the Vocational Preference Inventory which contains 160 occupational titles. Respondents indicate which of these occupations they like or dislike and their answers are used to form personality profiles.

The Person-Organisation fit approach states that satisfaction is highest and turnover lowest where personality and occupation are in agreement. Social individuals should be in social jobs, conventional people in conventional jobs, and so forth. A realistic person in a realistic job is in a more congruent situation than a realistic person in a social job which is an incongruent situation. People in job environments congruent with their personality type should be more satisfied and less likely to voluntarily resign than people in incongruent jobs. Matching people's personality to the type of job that they will be asked to do is a mechanism for satisfaction on the job and enhanced job performance (Holland & Gottfredson, 1992).

## **INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN WORK BEHAVIOUR**

That people differ from one another is especially obvious from their physical appearance. That differences exist in their abilities is also a commonly recognised fact. Many people believe that practice makes perfect, yet no amount of practice on the part of one worker will make him or her as proficient in his or her work as less practice will make another. We also know that people are classified as good or poor worker, easy-going or hot-tempered.

In organisations, a common practice is to pay workers by the hour or week or month. This indicates that a worker's time is what counts rather than how he/she accomplishes (not the amount of work done) Paying for time spent encourages workers to put in their time rather than to produce according to their abilities. If an employee performs below a certain level of performance, he or she may be discharged; but frequently the discharge is based upon factors unrelated to production.

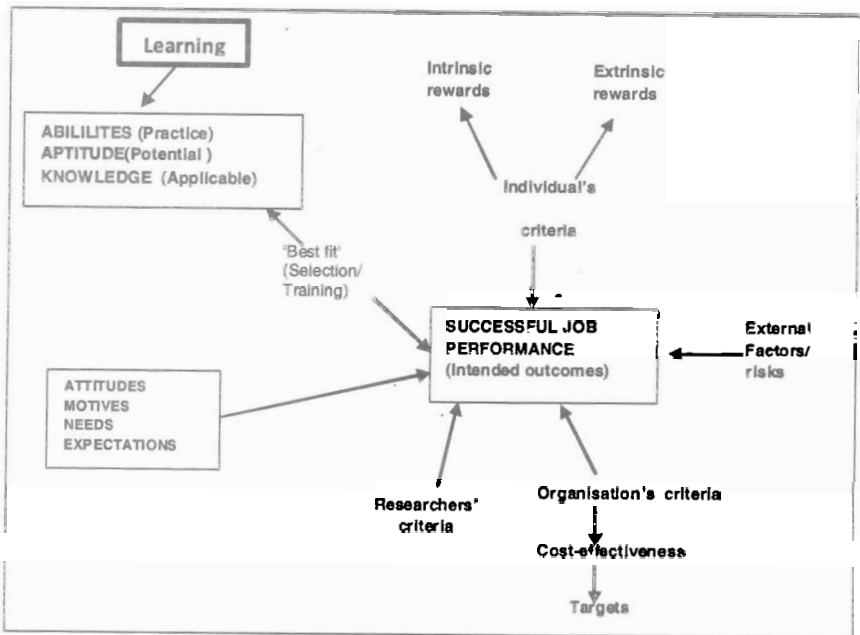
Since marked differences in ability do occur, proper selection alone would greatly increase production. Once the most capable applicants are selected, pains can be taken to keep them and to utilize their superior ability. Because superior individuals can do quite satisfactory work without much effort, they ordinarily need not exert themselves to keep their jobs. Inducements must be offered to encourage them to produce more in accordance with their ability (Ajila, 1998).

The first step in meeting the problem of individual differences in ability is to recognize them and to accept the differences as facts. To expect the same from all workers can at best lead to a condition in which the slowest one sets the pace for all. The essence of psychological tests in industry is to measure human ability. For the psychologist, this is always a relative matter. To appreciate any one individual, we must know how such a person compares with the population as a whole.

The recognition of differences in the abilities of individuals immediately suggests the desirability of measuring the amount of work that they do on a job. Such measurement would not only bring to light the existing differences in ability but would serve other purposes as well. They would make it possible to differentiate between superior and inferior workers and thus permit analysis of their respective abilities. By measuring the characteristics of workers differing in productive capacity, it would be possible to determine whether specific traits are present to a different degree in efficient and inefficient workers.

What a person is capable of doing and what he actually does are not necessarily the same. The term ability refers to a person's potential performance, whereas the term performance refers to what a person actually does under given conditions. How a person performs on a job depends upon his/her ability and his/her motivation (Ajila 1997a; 2006).

Figure 2 shows a model of successful job performance which is a function of many factors which include: individual's criteria (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards), learning (abilities, aptitudes and knowledge), appropriate behavior (attitudes, motives, needs and expectations), organisational criteria and external factors/risks.



**Figure 2 : Successful Job Performance**

In organisations, the basic variables that affect performance are as follows:

- (i).  $\text{Performance} = f(\text{Ability, Effort, Opportunity})$
- (ii).  $\text{Ability} = f(\text{Technology, Knowledge, Skill, strength})$
- (iii).  $\text{Effort} = f(\text{Needs, Goals, Expectations, Rewards})$
- (iv).  $\text{Opportunity} = f(\text{Current Situation, Past Performance})$

In equation (i), the relationship is multiplicative. That is, if any of the three variables is zero, then performance is also zero. Given a reasonable Opportunity, Ability x Effort will yield Performance. Holding opportunity and ability constant, performance then depends on effort (motivation). Effort, in turn, (equation iii), is a function

of several factors that may be additive : needs, goals, expectations and rewards. Needs and goals represent gaps that occur naturally or are created by the individual. In either case, the person acts (expends effort or is motivated) to close the gap and restore equilibrium. Expectations and rewards also help us account for people's actions by focusing our attention on the consequences of behaviour and the relation of subsequent effort to past consequences.

## **PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING AND PERSONNEL SELECTION**

In order to select a right person for the job, individual differences in terms of abilities and skills need to be adequately measured for comparison. This is done through the use of psychometric or employment tests whose objective is to solicit further information to assess employees' suitability to the job (Ajila & Okafor, 2012). Thus, the process of staffing which is one of the major activities of Human Resource Management involves the use of psychometric (employment) tests. The history of personnel testing in Industrial-Organisational Psychology goes back to the First World War when intelligence testing of armed forces recruits (the army alpha and army beta) was used for personnel placement. Today, the use of tests for employment screening and placement has expanded greatly. A considerable percentage of large companies and most government agencies routinely use some form of employment tests to measure a wide range of characteristics that are predictive of successful job performance. For example, some tests measure specific

skills or abilities required by a job, while others assess more general cognitive skills or mechanical aptitude believed to be needed for the successful performance of certain jobs. Some of the types of tests that are used in industries to measure employees job related behaviour are The Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Tests, The Crawford Small Parts Dexterity Test and the Purdue Pegboard which are timed performance instruments that require the manipulation of small parts to measure the fine motor dexterity in hands and fingers required in jobs such as assembling computer components and soldering electrical equipment. There are aptitude tests which measure the potential of an individual for a particular job and achievement tests which measure skills already acquired by an employee through training and experience. Various standardized tests also assess specific job skills or domains of job knowledge.

Personality tests are designed to measure certain psychological characteristics of workers. A wide variety of these tests are used in personnel screening and selection to attempt to match the personality characteristics of job applicants with those of workers who have performed the job successfully in the past. And, the most commonly used personality tests in personnel selection are the Bersenter Personality Inventory, The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), The California Psychological Inventory, Thurstone Temperament Survey, The Rorschach Inkblot Test and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) which is used to screen out applicants who

possess some psychopathology that might hinder the performance of sensitive jobs. Miscellaneous tests such as Polygraphs or lie detectors have also been used in employee selection. Most often polygraphs are used to screen out “dishonest” applicants for positions in which they would have to handle cash or expensive merchandise. Polygraphs are instruments designed to measure physiological reactions such as respiration, blood pressure or perspiration that are presumably associated with lying. As the applicants are asked questions about past honest and dishonest behaviour, the examiner looks for physiological changes that may indicate deception.

## **ATTRIBUTION**

Attribution is the act of explaining a phenomenon by coming up with a cause for that phenomenon. Applied to human resource management, attribution theory concerns the way managers arrive at causes to explain an employee’s job performance or the way employees arrive at causes to explain their own job performance. The theory identifies what leads both managers and employees to attribute good performance to personal factors (such as the employee’s superior ability or strong effort) or to situational factors (such as luck or easy work).

People who regard themselves as responsible for something that happens in their lives are making an internal attribution; whereas, people who hold some outside forces responsible are making an external

attribution. People differ in their tendency to make one or the other attribution, and situations differ in their tendencies to elicit one or the other attribution from people.

Understandably, people tend to be sensitive about attributions for their own success and failure. Making an internal attribution means taking personal responsibility, something that is easy to do for success but more painful to do for failure, particularly if the internal factor involved is the person's ability. If people attribute their success to their own ability, it enhances their self-esteem. Students would say "I got 70A" in that lecturer's course. That "lecturer gave me 30F or 40E". People make internal attribution for success, "I got" and external attribution for failure "the lecturer gave". Success is more pleasurable, and failure more painful, when it is attributed to internal factors than when it is attributed to external factors. Making an internal attribution means taking personal responsibility, something that is easy to do because success is sweet. It has many friends. Failure is an orphan. Nobody wants to be associated with failure. But it is an inevitable part of life. If people attribute their successes to their own ability, it enhances their self-esteem. If, however, they attribute their failures to some lack of ability they call into question their own competence.

The way in which a worker may think of each of the other workers will affect his relationship with them. A supervisor's perception of the workforce will influence



his/her attitudes in dealing with people and the style of leadership adopted. The way in which supervisors approach the performance of their jobs and the behaviour they display towards subordinates and other workers are likely to be conditioned by their predispositions about people and work.

Differences among persons: Locus of control has significance for selection and other personnel decisions that attempt to match the person with the job. According to expectancy theory people with an internal locus of control will be better suited for a job requiring initiative and special effort. Such persons will put forth more effort on a task because they believe that they have more control over the accomplishment of the task (high expectancy) and more influence over whether accomplishment will be rewarded (high instrumentality). Similarly, locus of control also has implications for job enrichment, a HRM program that gives employees greater responsibility. Job enrichment should reduce dissatisfaction more for employees with an internal locus of control than for employees with an external locus of control because the former are more likely to think that they have control over their own destiny, and thus are more likely to regard the added responsibility as an opportunity to make their work more satisfying.

Differences in situations: Task difficulty is one situational factor that affects whether the person makes internal or external attributions. Easier tasks are generally more conducive to an internal attribution for failure,

because it is harder to blame failure on the difficulty of the task. Incompetence is more plausible. In a sense, then, easier tasks pose a greater risk to self-esteem. One way of protecting self-esteem is to devote less effort to easier tasks. Then, if failure occurs, the person can say, "I had the ability to do it, I just didn't feel like trying" - an internal attribution to effort rather than to ability. Threats to self esteem that come from incompetence attributions may underlie a number of behaviour problems at work. For example, a person who is worried about the possibility of failure may deliberately do something improper to provide an alternative attribution for failure - fail to prepare, go to bed late, get drunk - anything to avoid an incompetency attribution.

## **SELF AND OTHERS AT THE WORKPLACE**

Mistakes in perception of visual stimuli could be mirrored in mistakes in our perceptions of other people. It might be interesting if we could isolate potential mistakes we might make in our judgements of social or managerial situations or in our judgements of others. If such mistakes are made, it is essential that we are aware of them and eliminate them from the judgement of management situations. It must be stressed that the potential mistakes made are merely predisposed tendencies to judge situations or other people. They take the form of subtle mistakes rather than crude mistakes and as such they are not easy to detect. That is, in the judgement of another person, the supervisor will not

necessarily misjudge the person but the judgement will be clouded by perceptual errors.

### Perceptual Distortions and Errors

Differences in perception result in different people seeing different things and attaching different meanings to the same stimuli. Every person sees things in their own way and as perception become a person's reality, this can lead to misunderstanding.

The accuracy of interpersonal perceptions and the judgements made about other people are influenced by.

1. the nature of the relationship between the perceiver and the other person
2. the amount of information available to the perceiver and the order in which information is received.
3. the nature and extent of interaction between the two people.

There are three main features, which can create particular difficulties and give rise to perceptual problems, biases or distortions, in our dealings with other people. These are stereotyping, halo effect and projection.

1. Stereotyping - This is the tendency to ascribe positive or negative characteristics to a person on the basis of a general categorization and perceived similarities. It occurs when an individual is judged on the basis of the group to which it is perceived that person belongs. When we see all people belonging to a particular group as having the same characteristics or trait, we are stereotyping individuals. Pre-judgements are therefore made about an individual without ever really knowing

whether such judgments are accurate; they may be wildly wrong.

Example of common stereotyping may be based on Age = all young people are unreliable: no old person wants to consider new ideas.

2. The Halo effect --- This is the process by which the perception of a person is formulated on the basis of a single favourable or unfavourable trait or impression: The halo effect tends to shut out other relevant characteristics of that person. For example, a single trait such as good attendance and time-keeping may become the main emphasis for judgement of overall competence, rather than other considerations such as quality and accuracy of work.

A particular danger with the halo effect is that where quick judgements are made on the basis of readily available stimuli, the perceiver may become "perceptually blind" to subsequent stimuli, at variance with the original perception, and (often subconsciously) notice only those characteristics which support the original judgement. For example, a candidate is seen arriving late for an interview. There may be a very good reason for this and it may be completely out of character. But on the basis of that one particular event the person may be perceived as a poor time-keeper, unreliable and/or a perpetual latecomer.

3. Projection - Attributing or projecting, one's own feelings, motives or characteristics to other people is a further distortion, which can occur in the perception

of other people. Judgements of other people may be more favourable when they have characteristics largely in common with, and easily recognized by the perceiver.

Discussed by Sigmund Freud, the Swiss Psychoanalyst, projection is a way in which we protect ourselves from acknowledging that we may possess undesirable traits and assign them in exaggerated amounts to other people. For example, a supervisor who considers all subordinates as insincere may be projecting one of his own characteristics.

For effective human relations at the workplace, a good supervisor must realize that immediate judgements, most often, may be wrong. Supervisors should never assume that others judge the world as they do. They should never assume that they have a monopoly of wisdom and that everyone shares their enthusiasm for a particular idea or solution to a problem. They must consider every problem from the widest possible perspective and make judgements only after rigorous analysis of the problem. They must understand that other people's views are important.

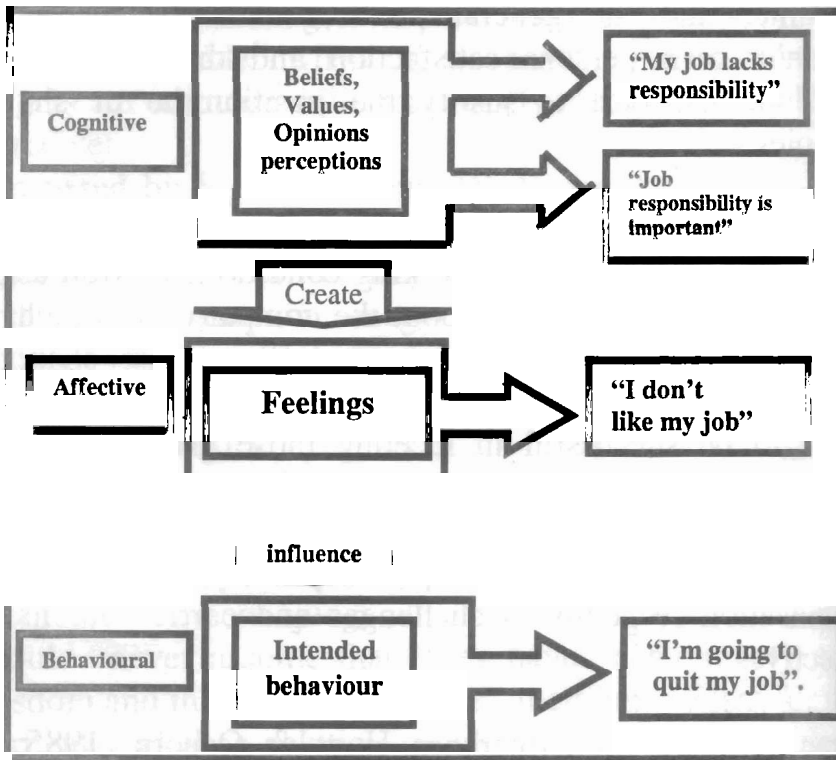
## **ATTITUDE AT THE WORKPLACE**

The study of attitude at the workplace is the study of the dynamics of workplace behaviour. It is the study of why people behave the way they do in organisations (Ajila, 2010a; Ajila, 2010b). Job attitude is the ideal outlook to a given job. No matter the type of job, the outlook must show that the individual has the 'will' to do the job, to meet the satisfaction of an employer,

consumers and the general public, and above all the person's own personal satisfaction and that he or she has done the best to justify the position he or she occupies.

Everyone has attitudes. In the workplace, attitudes reflect how people evaluate their working conditions as well as how they think and feel about the company for which they work. Members of an organisation must share common attitudes toward the goals of the organisation for it to be successful in meeting those goals. These shared attitudes make up much of the organisation's culture. They govern the communication and interactions within the group. They control how the organisation responds to challenges and carries out its objectives.

Some scholars (Schermerhorn Hunt & Osborn, 1985; Morgan & King 1975; Rosenberg 1960; Katz, 1960) conceptualized attitudes as consisting of three basic components: cognitive, affective and behavioural. The affective component includes the worker's feelings about a job that is positive, neutral or negative. The expression of emotion (feeling) is also important to work behavior because it is based upon cognitive processes and is an antecedent of behaviour. The cognitive component consists of beliefs, values and information the worker has about the job. The intention to act constitutes the behavioural component. A work-related example of the three components of attitudes is presented in Figure 3.



**Figure 3: The Three Components of Attitudes**

Attitudes influence how people interact within the organisation. Shared attitudes also shape the individual's behaviour within the organisation. They influence the effectiveness of the organisation's human relations. Exploring the basics of attitudes will provide an understanding of how attitudes affect human relations and people's behaviour. While attitude is covert, behaviour is overt. Covert behaviour is thus a manifestation of our attitude. We generally do not see attitude physically. It is behaviour that we see.

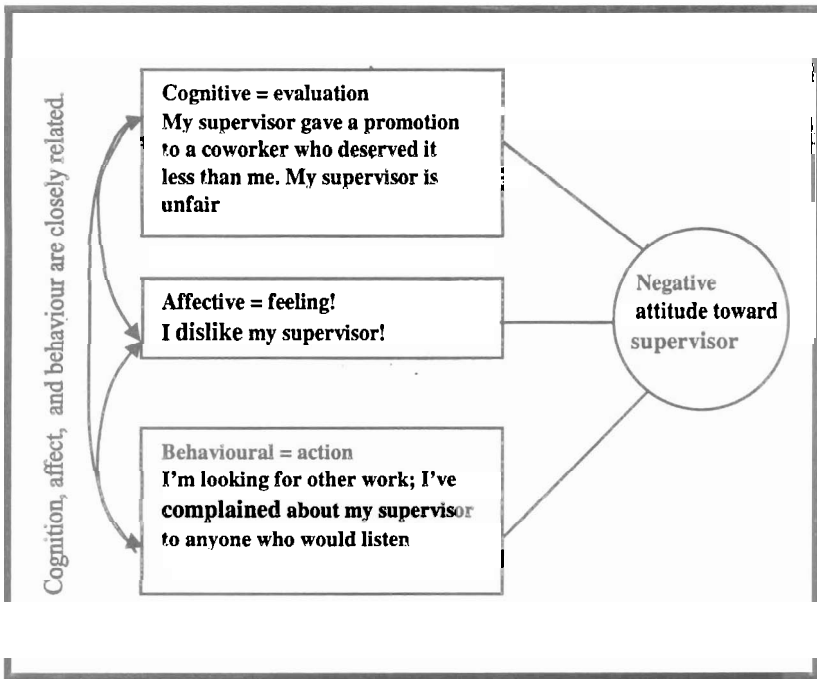
Psychologists who study attitudes consider thoughts as the cognitive component, feeling as the affective component and intention to act represents the behavioural component of attitude.

The ability to influence or control the attitudes of others is critical for personal and organisational success. Convincing others to buy a product, to enter a contract for specific services, or to select one person over another for leadership, requires a change or control of attitudes. Once attitudes change, behaviour should follow. (Robbins, Judge & Sanghi, 2009).

Figure 4 further illustrates how the three components of an attitude are related. Although we often think that cognition causes affection, which then causes behaviour. In reality, these components are often difficult to separate. In the example below, an employee didn't get a **promotion** he thought he deserved; a coworker got it instead. The employee believes that the supervisor is unfair. He dislikes his supervisor and he is ultimately looking for another job or a transfer.

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**Figure 4: Negative Attitude Towards Supervisor**

## **BEHAVIOURAL EVIDENCES OF JOB ATTITUDE**

Some behavioural evidences of job attitude which include discretion, amiability, politeness, mannerliness, cheerfulness and attention and their meanings are contained in Table 2.

**Table 2: Behavioural Evidences of Job Attitude**

<b>S/N</b>	<b>Behavioural Evidences</b>	<b>Meaning</b>
1	Discretion	The exercise of individual choice or judgement within limits allowed without unnecessary influence or pressure.
2	Amiability	The display of friendly, agreeable and congenial disposition that makes others feel welcomed
3	Politeness	The display of consideration, tact and courtesy characterizing a refined personality and advanced culture.
4	Mannerliness	The display of warm style of approach and presentation that eases tension and makes one want to come along.
5	Cheerfulness	The display of high spirit that helps to dispel gloom or worry and which shows that the individual has pride in his work and thus radiating that spirit toward high performance.
6	Attention	The display of physical and mental readiness to apply oneself with dispatch to a given situation – giving immediate response or service

These signs of desirable job attitude constitute basic psychological and human traits needed for given occupations (Ajila, 2010a)

## **BUILDING POSITIVE ATTITUDES**

Positive attitudes are important for good health, psychological well-being, and effective cooperation with others. Being able to develop and improve positive attitudes then is an important skill. We must focus on all the three components of attitudes – affective,

behavioural, and cognitive – and search for ways of improving each component (Ajila, 2010b).

We can further improve on our attitude to work and ultimately our workplace behaviour if we attend to the following issues

- Do your best to be friendly with your co-workers. Maintain a positive, cheerful attitude about work and about life. Smile often but not unnecessarily.
- Find one positive thing about everyone you work with and let them hear it. Be generous with praise and kind words of encouragement. Say “thank you” when someone helps you. Make colleagues feel welcome when they call or stop by your office. If you let others know that they are appreciated, they will want to give you their best.
  - Observe what’s going on in other peoples’ lives. Acknowledge their happy milestones, and express concern and sympathy for difficult situations such as an illness or death. Ask others for their opinion.
  - To actively listen is to demonstrate that you intend to hear and understand another’s point of view. It means restating, in your own words, what the other person has said. In this way, you know that you understood their meaning and they know that your responses are more than lip service. Your co-worker will appreciate knowing that you really do listen to what they have to say.
  - Create an environment that encourages others to work together. Treat everyone equally, and do not play favourites. Avoid talking about others behind

their backs. Follow up on other people's suggestions or requests. When you make a statement or announcement, check to see that you have been understood. If your co-workers see you as someone solid and fair, they will grow up to trust you.

- Take step beyond simply bringing people together, and become someone who resolves conflicts when they arise. Learn how to be an effective mediator. If co-workers bicker over personal or professional disagreement, arrange to sit down both parties and help sort out their differences. By taking on such a leadership role, you will garner respect and admiration from those around you.
- Pay close attention to both what you say and how you say it. A clear and effective communicator avoids misunderstandings with co-workers, colleagues and associates. Verbal eloquence projects an image of intelligence and maturity, no matter your age.
- Don't be afraid to be funny. Most people are drawn to a person that can make them laugh. Use your sense of humour as an effective tool to gain people's affection.
- Empathy means being able to put yourself in someone else's shoes and understand how they feel. Try to view situations and responses from another person's perspective. This can be accomplished through staying in touch with your own emotions. Those who are cut off from their

own feelings are often unable to empathize with others.

- There is nothing worse than a chronic complainer. If you simply have to vent about something, save it for your diary. If you must verbalize your grievances, vent to your personal friends and family, and keep it short. Spare those around you, or else you will get a bad reputation.

## **DEVELOPING INTERPERSONAL SKILLS**

Factors associated with good professional interpersonal skills help to set the scene and to identify those things that we should and should not expect in our dealings with others. They help us to be realistic and perhaps even to modify some of the demands we make upon ourselves as well as some of the demands we make upon the people with whom we work. Not all of them apply equally in all professional relationships as these relationships operate at a number of different levels, and some are relevant to personal as well as professional encounters. Meanwhile, they indicate the mutual give-and-take that is a feature of successful interpersonal interactions (Ajila, 2010c)

In most workplaces human relationships, some of the qualities that contribute to making a good first impression are;

- Remembering names
- Showing acceptance
- Making appropriate self-disclosures

- Giving praise and encouragement  
Showing agreement.

Long term human relationships in the workplace also go with fairness, consistency, loyalty, honesty, a sense of humour, warmth, sympathy, and openness. The professionals do not set out primarily to be popular, but to be effective and helpful. More specific studies into the role of professionals suggests that those who have good relationship with people also do the following:

- Convey respect to people
- Clarify the help that can and cannot be given
- Accept justifiable criticism
- Avoid undue exercise of professional power

It is also important to consider the different levels within workplace at which interpersonal skills are needed, as each of the levels requires different approaches. The casual relationship we have with those colleagues with whom we only come into peripheral contact is different from that which we have with those who work closely with us (especially our bosses), which is different again from that which we have with visitors and students. The five levels and their corresponding relationships are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Workplace Levels and their Corresponding Relationship

S/N	Levels	Relationships
1	Level 1	Peripheral Relationships with securities, office cleaners and anyone else whose job is not directly related to ours
2	Level 2	Superordinate Relationships with those working under us or directly answerable to us.
3	Level 3	Equality Relationships with colleagues on the same grade or doing the same job as ourselves
4	Level 4	Subordinate Relationships with those working over us or to whom we are directly answerable
5	Level 5	Client-Centred Relationship with those who are professionally dependent on us (depending on our unit/department).

These levels are not in any absolute hierarchical order. But whereas the skills needed to make a success at level 1 are relatively straightforward, those from level 2 onwards become increasingly complex. It is sometimes argued that the ability to get on well with others at level 1 can be a touchstone of one's likely success at higher levels (especially levels 2, 3, and 5). If this argument is true, it is probably because the qualities required for success at level 1, although straightforward, are among the most important and operate at all of the other higher levels. For example, as discussed earlier, it is clear that respect for others, the ability to listen to others, to avoid status battles with them, and show honesty and

consistency are qualities of value in relating to people at all levels.

So, a smile or a word of two or greetings when we see a colleague or boss reassures him/her that they matter. Sailing past them without a nod or a wave indicates to them that we view their importance roughly and that they are of no consequence. Also, we can send verbal appreciation for their contributions to our professional life. We can as well show interest in colleagues/boss' personal lives. People are always pleased to know you remember their hobbies. We also need to develop good listening skills when people want to talk. If we never have time to spare for a person, it suggests we think very little of them. Lastly, we should do whatever we can to help attend to the many grievances and injustices that people in low status positions have to face. At all the five levels of relationship, the successful employee is a person who can enhance the self-esteem of the person with whom he or she works.

Another essential ingredient of interpersonal skills is effective communication. This comprises being a good talker and good listener. At work it is sometimes necessary to talk formally and very much to the point. At other times it is enough to be at social ease with others, whether they be clients, superiors, colleagues, juniors, guests or whoever. One key to being a good talker at any level of relationship is the ability to amuse others. Another is the sense not to monopolize the conversation. However successful a talker you are, other people want



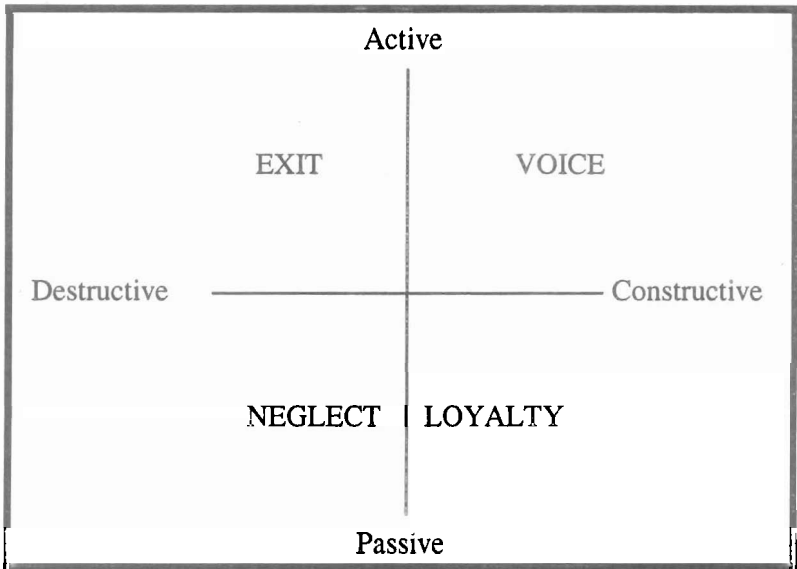
to have their say too. A further vital key is of course interest. If we interest the person or persons to whom we're talking, they'll want to listen. Most people demand relevance in a good talker, and this simply means talking about things that clearly relate to their difficulties and to the solutions to these difficulties, or their interests and to ways of advancing these interests. Being a good talker also means talking at the right level for our listeners. At work we might be called upon to talk to people who know much less about things than we do, or who are at a much lower level of understanding. Without talking down to them, we have to put things in a form which they can follow. Another feature of the good talker is an absence of annoying mannerism of speech or gesture. Constant repetitions of such redundant expressions as 'you know', 'and so on', 'I mean', can drive even the most patient listeners to distraction. Almost as infuriating are hands that fiddle incessantly with spectacles or handkerchiefs.

The ability to listen is just as important an ingredient of effective communication as the ability to have your say. Good listening implies the ability to take as much interest in the other person's side of the discussion as in your own. If you study closely the behaviour of a colleague to whom you are talking (or maybe your own behaviour when someone is talking to you) you will see how he or she often cannot wait for you to finish what you are saying so they can get in their own contribution.

In addition to good talking and listening, the art of questioning is also vital in forming judgement and in getting to know more about people with whom we work. As secretaries, we must learn how to ask questions on instructions that are not clear to us. Nonverbal signals are part of communication. People who smile are rated as warm, empathetic and understanding in both professional and personal relationship.

## **LIKING AND DISLIKING JOBS**

There are consequences when employees like their jobs and when they dislike their jobs. One theoretical model – the exit-voice-loyalty-neglect framework – is helpful in understanding the consequences of job dissatisfaction.. Figure 5 illustrates the framework of four responses which differ from one another along two dimensions: constructive/destructive and active/passive. These two dimensions revolve around exit, voice, loyalty and neglect responses.



**Figure 5: Employees Responses to Job Dissatisfaction**

**Exit:** the exit response involves directing behaviour toward leaving the organisation, including looking for a new position or job as well as resigning.

**Voice:** The voice response involves actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors and undertaking some forms of union activity.

**Loyalty:** The loyalty response involves passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organisation in the face of

external criticism and trusting the organisation and its management to “do the right thing”.

**Neglect:** The neglect response involves passively allowing conditions to worsen, including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort and increased error rate.

Exit and neglect behaviours encompass the destructive dimension which covers absenteeism and labour turnover. The model expands employees’ response to include voice and loyalty which are constructive behaviours that allow individuals to tolerate unpleasant situations or to revive satisfactory working conditions. Union members often express dissatisfaction through the grievance procedure or through formal contract negotiations. These voice mechanisms allow them to continue in their jobs while convincing themselves that they are acting to improve the situation.

## **PEOPLE AND ORGANISATIONS: RESEARCH FINDINGS**

An organisation is productive if it achieves its goals and does so by transferring inputs to outputs at the lowest cost. As such, productivity implies a concern for both effectiveness and efficiency (Ajila, 2006; 2011).

A hospital, for example is effective, when it successfully meets the needs of its clientele. It is efficient when it can do so at a low cost. If a hospital manages to achieve

higher output from its present staff by reducing the average number of days a patient is confined to a bed or by increasing the number of staff-patient contacts per day, we say that the hospital has gained productive efficiency. A business firm is effective when it attains its sales or market share goals, but its productivity also depends on achieving those goals efficiently. Popular measures of organisational efficiency include return on investment, profit per naira of sales and output per hour of labour. Thus, the output per employee per hour results not from people's efforts alone, but jointly from all the factors used in production. When twenty units of a particular item were produced by one person in one hour last month and twenty-two identical units are produced by one person in one hour today, productivity has risen by 10 percent. If, however, 20 units were produced last month and 20 units of higher quality are produced today, productivity has also risen although the measurement of it is more difficult.

Productivity might be expressed in terms of output per ₦100 invested, or output per 100 kilogramme of raw materials or output compared with any other input factor. The successful performance of a given job therefore is a function of ability (skill, knowledge, technology), effort (needs, rewards, expectation, goals), and opportunity (current situation, attitude, past performance).

P (Performance) therefore is a function of Ability x Effort x Opportunity.  $P = f(A \times E \times O)$ . The relationship is multiplicative such that if any of the three

variables (A, E and O) is zero, then performance will also be zero. Absolutely, performance might not be zero even where one of the variables is missing or not present. Under that situation, given the appropriate organizational characteristics, individual with deficient performance index may experience a turn around as a result of drive in the system that might bring about an improvement in his performance, which would have even deteriorated in another system where such a variable is absent.

Several factors affect productivity in one way or the other. According to Akerele (1991) they range from environmental, technological, organisational, cultural, sociological, economical, government measures and policies to human factors. Of all these factors, it has been recognised that human resource is the unique element that makes the difference between one organisation and the other.

Thus, in reviewing the socio-cultural factors affecting productivity and excellence in Nigeria, Oloko (1991) presented among others, the following as factors that could reduce employees productivity in an organisation.

- reluctance of superiors to delegate responsibilities to subordinates
- reluctance of subordinates to accept responsibility which is a rational reaction to the fixed sum view of power held by their superiors
- absence of cooperative relationship between and within grades of employees

- Treatment of members and time with careless abandon.
- Low morale, which often manifests in form of absenteeism, punctuality problem, absconding from duty post, accidents at work, high labour turnover and poor performance.
- inability of management to provide fair working conditions.
- Ineffective management of human resource (human capital) often leads to industrial unrest, strikes, work-to-rule and protracted negotiations.
- poor remuneration in relationship to profits made by organisations
- inflationary trend in the Nigerian economy.

Quite a number of studies have been carried out on the relationship among attitude to work, job satisfaction and productivity, motivation reward system and performance /productivity and leadership styles and performance. A review of few of such studies is presented below.

Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman (1957, 1959) examined studies in which the effect of job attitudes on productivity was measured. They found that in 54 percent of the reported surveys, high morale was associated with high productivity. They concluded that positive job attitudes are favourable to increased productivity. Other researchers like Lewin (1963); Likert (1969); and McClelland (1961) have also worked on the

problem of motivation. The focus has been on the relationship between job motivation and employees' performance (Ajila, 1996).

For an organisation to continue to exist or function effectively, it is necessary that its workers are satisfied with the job that they do. A happy worker is a productive worker. Five theories of job satisfaction which describe the processes by which job satisfaction is determined for individuals were critically appraised (Ajila, 1997c). This research work contended that Nigeria's history of labour unrest and cases of violent clashes between employees and their employers have been a clear indication of gross job dissatisfaction.

Employees are generally dissatisfied because their employers have failed to cater for their personal and social needs. In Olasupo & Ajila (2010), the link among organisational culture, leadership styles and job satisfaction was re-established within the field of Industrial-Organisational Psychology. The study provided information on management practices that could enhance job satisfaction.

Ajila (1996) investigated the relationship between employees' perception of job motivation factors and determinants of productivity. He found that positive relationship exists between job motivation factors such as pay, promotion, commendation, creativity, working conditions, personal recognition and feeling of achievement and workers productivity.



Ajila & Adegoke (1998a) in another study investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and working conditions among workers in a federal university in Southwestern Nigeria. They found that it is an individual's physical well being that determines his productivity. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings about his or her job, while a dissatisfied person holds negative feelings.

In another study, (Ajila 2002a) investigated the relationship between demographic factors, employees attitude to work and productivity and found a low negative relationship between employees attitude to work and productivity. He also found a significant difference in the attitude to work of married and single as well as junior and senior company employees. Workers sex has nothing to do with the attitude of employees to work.

Maslow's studies into human motivation led him to propose a theory of needs based on an hierarchical model with basic needs at the bottom and higher needs at the top. The starting point of Maslow's hierarchy theory, first published in 1954, is that most people are motivated by the desire to satisfy specific groups of needs (Maslow, 1943; 1954). These needs are as follows:

- Physiological needs - needs for food, sleep sex etc.

- Safety needs – needs for stable environment relatively free from threats.
- Love needs – needs related to affectionate relations with others and status within a group.
- Esteem needs – needs for self respect, self esteem and the esteem of others.
- Self-actualisation needs - the need for self fulfillment.

*Until a particular group of needs is satisfied, according to Maslow (1943), a person's behaviour will be dominated by them.*

The two significant features of the theory besides specifying the general classes of needs that people presumably possess are that a satisfied need does not motivate and that human needs are arranged in an ascending hierarchy of prepotency. Needs that are low in the hierarchy must be largely satisfied before needs further up the hierarchy will motivate.

The needs that have the greatest potency at any given time dominate behaviour and demand satisfaction. The individual feels driven by a high-priority need, when the need is satisfied, a higher-order motive makes its appearance and demand satisfaction, and so, on to the top of the hierarchy. If however, one of the needs is unsatisfied, the individual is dominated by the need. Maslow's theory thus implies that dissatisfaction occur in

the work place when a job fails to provide the opportunity for fulfilling the dominant need of the employees. An employee whose dominant need is that of recognition (esteem need) will be dissatisfied with an increase in pay (physiological need).

The argument in Maslow's proposition according to Asonibare and Mordi (1986) is that the basic (physiological needs, such as the need to quench one's thirst, satisfy one's hunger, appease one's sexual urges, get rest for the tired body and put one's soul under a roof, have to be satisfied to a considerable extent before a person's energy would be concentrated on satisfying needs at higher levels. A Yoruba proverb illustrates this very well: "*Ebi kì í wọ inú kí ọ̀rọ̀ mǐràn wọ́ọ́.*" Meaning that : "For a hungry stomach, no other pressing issues are to be tolerated"

Some individuals function predominantly in the lower states of the hierarchy throughout their work life and thus are hardly motivated to think about, let alone make attempt to seek beauty around them, peace and understanding among neighbours, valour, respect or "a good name".

On the other hand, some individuals have learnt ways of coping with lower needs to such an extent that that which is "pure, holy, respectful and of good reputation" are things that occupy their attention. The

values and goals of those individuals who operate often at this stage are indeed far removed from those of a person whose existence is meaningful to him only as long as he can put “soul and body” together.

### **Expansion of Maslow's pyramid**

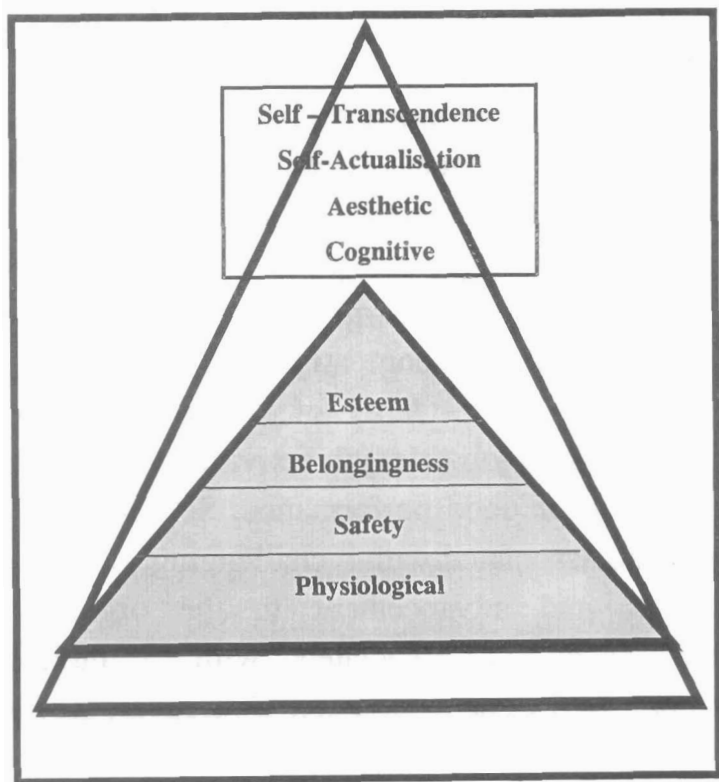
In Maslow's (1968) later years, he became more interested in the higher order or meta-needs and tried to further distinguish them. Maslow theorized that the ultimate goal of life is self-actualisation, which is almost never fully attained but rather is something we try to always strive for. Human beings are never self-satisfied. There is that thing in us that continues to drive us towards trying/striving to acquire more. Some individuals after they must have acquired wealth in large quantity, will still want to acquire power. The insatiability of human needs in most cases often lead to death.

The later version of the hierarchy of needs model with added motivational stages are not attributable to Maslow. These extended models have instead been inferred by others from Maslow's work (Chapman, 2001; Wahba & Bridwell, 1976; Woolfolk, 2013). Specifically, Cognitive, Aesthetic and Transcendence have been shown as distinct needs levels in some interpretations of Maslow's theory. They are additional aspects of

motivation, but not as distinct levels in the Hierarchy of Needs.

Cognitive needs refer to the need to know and understand. At this point, we feel the need to increase our intelligence and we chase knowledge to gain a better understanding of the world around us. We feel a need to explore and desire the world. Aesthetic needs entails the need to admire beauty and possess beautiful things. With the previous needs satisfied, we now find we need to refresh ourselves with the presence of beauty, nature, art, music and the other aesthetically beautiful things the world has to offer. Transcendence needs come up after we must have been personally self-actualised. Transcendence level recognizes the human need for ethics, creativity, compassion and spirituality. Without this spiritual or transegoic sense, we are simply animals or machines.

Figure 6 shows the expansion of the Maslow's hierarchy of needs to include Cognitive, Aesthetic and Transcendence needs.



**Figure 6: Expansion of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

*Note that the four meta needs (above the inner pyramid) can be pursued in any order, depending upon a person's wants or circumstances, as long as the basic needs have all been met.*

In the organisational context, the needs in Maslow's hierarchy become associated with certain factors in the

work place (Petri, 1981; Donnelly, Gibson & Ivancevich, 1987).

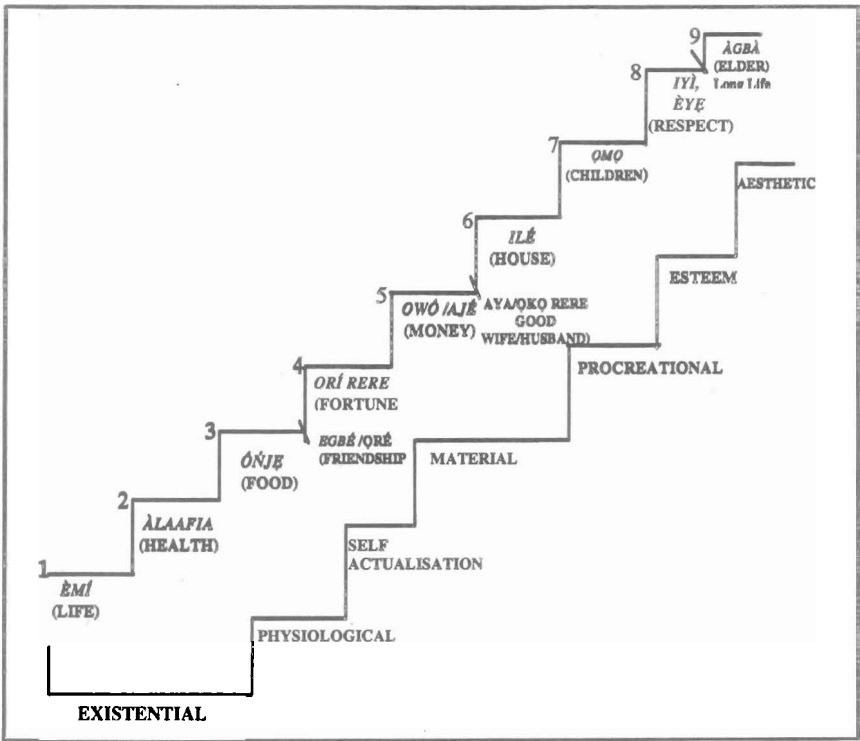
Physiological needs become associated with basic salary, canteen facilities, space, lighting and comfortable working conditions. Safety needs approximately become job security, and safe working conditions. Social/belongingness needs become associated with professional friendship, compatible work group, good social interaction and quality of supervision. Esteem needs are linked to job title, job activities, responsibility and recognition of good performance. Self-actualization needs become associated with a challenging job, creative opportunities and advancement in the organisation. Cognitive needs is associated with intellectual achievement, knowledge, and self awareness; Aesthetic needs involve relating in a beautiful way with the environment and carefully absorbing and observing the surroundings to extract the beauty that the world has to offer. Transcendence needs involve helping others to achieve self actualization, and mentoring at the workplace.

In spite of the widest recognition among practising managers that Maslow theory of needs hierarchy has received, there is little substantive evidence to indicate that following the theory will lead to a more motivated work force. Also, although the available evidence

suggests that physiological needs dominate behaviour, if severely deprived, there is essentially no empirical support for the particular ordering of needs suggested by Maslow in the rest of the hierarchy. The result has been the large number of studies that have been conducted, not only in the Western countries but also in Nigeria, testing the relevance, applicability and validity of the theory. Ajila (2002b) examined the applicability of Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Human Needs to the Nigerian industrial setting. The study concluded that employees perceptions of lower order needs, higher order needs and determinants of productivity are not related to each other. Employees, particularly junior members of the organisation attached more importance to Maslow's lower-order needs than to the higher-order needs. Economic and security needs were considered more important than the need for friendship. The ordering of human needs to some extent was not supportive of Maslow's presentation. Although Maslow presents pay as a lower order need, a higher percentage of the sampled subjects consider pay a top-priority need.

The probable need hierarchy of Yoruba-Nigerians which in itself is not absolute further shows the disagreement with Maslow's ordering of needs. A probable need hierarchy for Yoruba -Nigerians as presented by Morakinyo (1977) is shown in Figure 7 below.





**Figure 7: The Probable Need Hierarchy of a Yoruba-Nigerian Individual**

Studies (Eze, 1981, 1995) revealed that some of the variables that affect the work motivation of Nigerian employees include: money, cultural needs, religious/moral life, foreign lifestyles, foreign-made goods, basic needs and fear of retirement.

A study on identified motivators to higher performance for dentists in Osun State, Nigeria showed that monetary reward plays an important role (Folayan, Ajila & Oribabor, 2000a). Another study on the applicability of Herzberg motivation-hygiene concept (Folayan, Ajila & Oribabor, 2000b) found those factors that Herzberg considered as hygiene factors as motivating factors by the group of professionals used in the study. Rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) were found according to Ajila & Awonusi, (2006) to influence workers performance.

Porter and Lawler (1968), in their study of managerial attitudes and performance also state that if an individual is attracted by the value of the reward envisioned for a higher level of

performance, and if he perceives as highly probable that increased effort will lead to that reward, he will increase his effort. Ajila (1997a) investigated the relationship that exists between employees' attitude to work and productivity. The results showed a low negative relationship. The reason for the negative relationship may not be unconnected with the fact that employees whose needs were not reasonably met tend to avoid the job situation entirely by absenting themselves or not taking

active part in the job process. They must have been working grudgingly. They are not interested in productivity, but what they can benefit from the system.

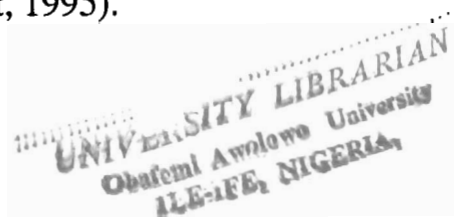
Several studies have been carried out on the relationship between demographic factors and organisational commitment. Ajila and Okeowo (2004) found a significant difference between younger and older employees in their commitment to work. Also, male employees differ in their commitment to work from their female counterpart.

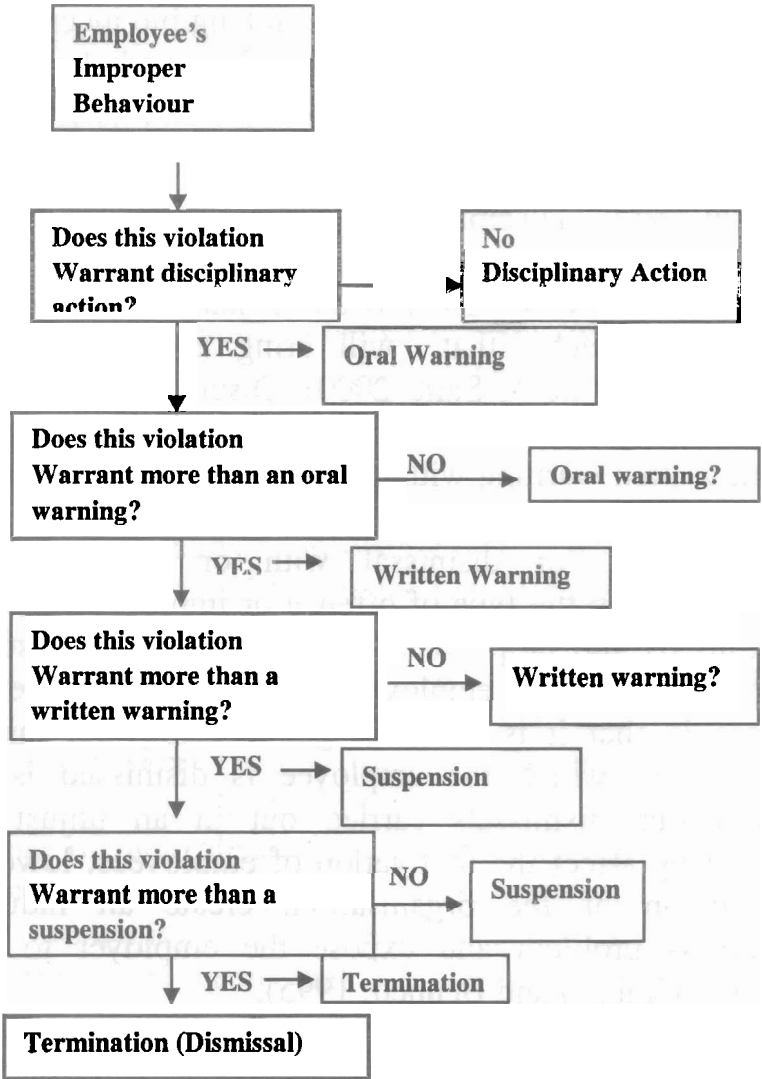
The use of threat as a motivating device was reported by Goode and Fowler (1949) in their studies. They described a factory in which morale and productivity were negatively related, but productivity was kept high by the continuance of threats to workers. In this factory, the essential workers (people with considerable skills) were marginal to the labour force because of their sex or because of their physical handicaps. Since the plant was not unionized, it was possible for management to demand high productivity from these workers on threat of discharge. This means that the workers although most dissatisfied with their jobs, produced at a very high rate because of the difficulty they would face in finding another position should they be discharged.

There is no doubt that threat was used in the past as a motivating device and presently used in more authoritarian societies. For a number of reasons management has settled upon rewards for motivating

workers to produce, including such tangible incentives as increased pay and promotion, as well as verbal and other symbolic recognition (Sutermeister, 1969).

Figure 8 shows the model of disciplinary procedure at the workplace. Discipline is a systematic instruction intended to train an employee towards putting up good behaviour at work. The procedure that must be followed has to be such that will bring about the desired behaviour (Ajila & Saliu 2000). Disciplinary procedure starts with oral warning. In some other cases, it may start with written warning without any previous oral warning.. Discipline ultimately ends with termination of appointment. or dismissal with or without notice depending on the type of offence or improper behaviour put-up by the employee. Because dismissal is such a serious matter, the employer must be careful to ensure not only that it is done for good reason, but that the manner in which the employee is dismissed is fair. Capricious dismissals carried out in an unjust way adversely affect the motivation of employees, lower the reputation of the organisation, create an industrial relations problem and expose the employer to legal action (Graham and Bennett, 1995).





**Figure 8: A Model of Disciplinary Procedure**

Wood (1974) investigated the correlation between various workers attitudes and job motivation, and performance and absenteeism using 290 skilled and semi skilled male and female paper workers. The study revealed that highly involved employees who were more intrinsically oriented towards their job, did not manifest satisfaction that was commensurate with company evaluations of performance. They depended more on intrinsic rewards as compared to those who were more extrinsic in orientation. Brayfield and Crockett (1975) in their article "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance" emphasize that there is no necessary relationship between employees attitude and productivity. Although employees whose needs are not reasonably well met may avoid the job situation entirely by having accidents, absenting themselves or resigning.

In Nigeria, some studies have also been conducted on the relationship between job motivation, satisfaction and productivity. For instance, Egwuridi (1981) investigated motivation among Nigerian workers using a sample of sixty workers of high and low occupational levels. His prediction that low income workers will be intrinsically motivated was not confirmed and the expectation that higher income workers will place greater value on intrinsic job factor than low income workers was also not confirmed. Both groups placed greater value on intrinsic job factors (i.e acceptance, independence and recognition) than extrinsic job factors. (i.e bonuses, benefit package)

Jibowo's (1977) study which was based on Herzberg's Two-Factor theory of motivation identified the factors which made field level agricultural extension workers in the Western State of Nigeria happy at work. These were referred to as motivators. The study also identified those factors which led to the extension workers' bad feelings. They were referred to as hygiene factors. Jibowo further examined the feelings of the extension workers resulting from similar difficulties and how such feelings affected their job performance. The motivator stories told by the respondents were classified into various factors in descending order of frequency as follows: achievement, recognition, the work itself, advancement and responsibility for work. The hygiene factors stories told were also classified into various factors in descending order of frequency as follows: ministry's policy and administration, working conditions, salary and wage administration, technical supervision, and interpersonal supervision. Based on the analyses, he found that the factors which make field level extension workers feel exceptionally good, referred to as motivator, are different from those which make them feel exceptionally bad, referred to as hygiene factors. He also found that the presence of motivator contributed to increase in workers productivity, interest and enthusiasm.

Assan's (1982) studies on the effects of extrinsic and intrinsic job factors on job motivation and satisfaction showed that though there was not a significant difference in motivational level and job satisfaction, there was a significant difference in motivational level and job

satisfaction across various categories of workers in different organisations.

In a related study conducted by Nwachukwu (1980) to determine what motivates female managers, the result suggested that the female managers were motivated by giving them challenging assignments, meaningful tasks that offered them the use of their acquired skills and gave room for personal initiatives. Oloko (1977; 1991) found that Nigerian workers are more committed and motivated to work in organisations managed by fellow Nigerians in which they foresee the opportunity for advancement as limitless than in organisations managed by non-Nigerians where management and supervisory positions were regarded as belonging to a special class.

Supporting the fact that a possibility of immediate improvement in productivity lies in stimulating and helping workers to do a better job, Ouchi (1982) explored the reasons why Japan's national productivity rate is soaring while the U.S. productivity growth rate has stalled. According to him,

The secret of the Japanese success is the great concern Japan's managers show for the well being and development of employees. The Japanese recognize that motivated People do make a difference.

The only key to improved performance according to Ouchi is the creation of a motivational climate that



encourages workers to join together and rely on each other. Also, in their contribution, Iribhogbe (1995), Onafuwa (1995) and Kazuo (1981) stated that the Japanese success in industrialisation can be traced to the three pillars of their “unique” labour practices viz. life time employment, seniority based wages and the enterprise union.

Ajila & Okeowo’s (2004) findings revealed that the interwoven nature of age, gender, education and employees’ commitment should not be ignored in the management of human resources for effective individual and organisational performance. Employees’ commitment have a lot of positive implications and influence on the functioning of the individual and the organisation (Ayinde, Ajila & Akanni, 2012)..

A number of forces have contributed to blurring the lines between employees’ work life and personal life. First, the creation of global organisations means that our world never sleeps. Many academics go into “moonlighting” and getting themselves involved in unending number of part-time teaching (visiting or adjunct). The need to consult with colleagues or customers many miles away means that many employees of service providing organisations of the global type are “on call” 24 hours a day. Second, communication technology allows employees to do their work at home and even in their cars. This lets many people in technical and professional jobs do their work anytime and from any place. Third, organisations are asking employees to put in longer hours without any additional remuneration. The time to

leave work is often extended beyond the time officially stated on paper. This has started to affect the work-life balance of employees. There are complaints from wives and even children that fathers (husbands) do not stay at home any longer. Some wives particularly those that are working in the banking sector are worst off than those in the nursing profession. They go to work early in the morning and return home late at night. Fewer families have only a single breadwinner. In fact bread winnership that used to be a male-related concept particularly in the traditional setting in the 1950s and 1960s has changed to either gender. Today's married employee is typically part of a dual-career couple. Wives struggle with their husband in meeting financial obligation of the family. They go into many things to be able to meet their personal and family needs. The fact that a lot of time is spent working, or staying outside the home, it has become increasingly difficult for married employees to find the time to fulfill commitments to home, spouse, children, parents and friends.

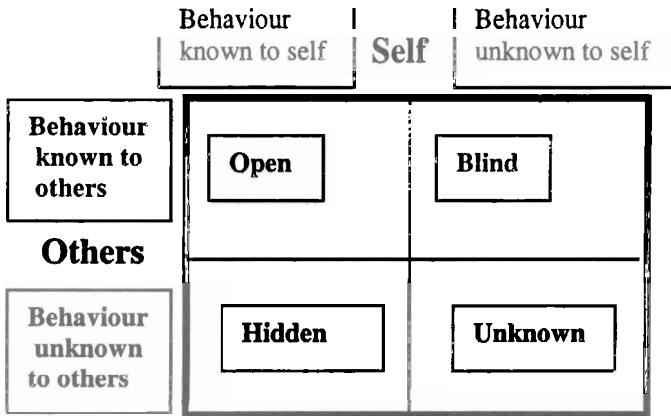
Employees are increasingly recognizing that work is infringing on their personal lives, and are not be happy about it. For example, studies suggest that employees want jobs that give them flexibility in their work schedules so they can better manage work-life conflicts (The 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce). A study that was carried out among employees of manufacturing companies revealed that workers who received sufficient support at work and home were able to balance work and family roles (Akanni, 2013)

Committed employees do better work than uncommitted employees. Thus, no organisation can perform at its best unless each employee is committed to the corporate objectives and works as an effective team member (Ajila, Ayinde & Adegoroye, 2007). Improving employees' job performance begins by assisting and helping the employees to grow personally and professionally. When employees' job performance is appraised, it helps give individual workers feedback about their job performance. It ensures goal setting and desired performance reinforcement and enhancement of employee focus through promoting trust. An effective disciplinary action should address the employee's wrongful behaviour and not the employee as a person (Ajila & Saliu 2000)

## **IMPROVING INTRA- AND INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONSHIP AT WORK**

The first step towards improving our intra- and inter-personal relationship is to know more about oneself; to develop an explicit picture of one's conceptual system, including values and beliefs. This might be done by doing something about them. However, it is probably helpful to get feedback from others in terms of their perceptions of us, inferred from our overt behaviour. A simple framework for looking at self-insight, which is used frequently to help individual at the workplace to improve on their intra- and inter- personal relationship is the Johari Window. The model is called the Johari Window because it is derived from the first name of its originators, Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham (French, Kast

and Rosenzweig, 1985). This classifies behaviour in matrix form between what is known to self and what is unknown to self and what is known to others/what is unknown to others (Luft 1970). Figure 9 shows the framework for Intra- and Inter- personal relationship among employees.



**Figure 9: Intra- and Inter-personal Relationship**

The two basic dimensions are self and others. And, on each dimension are Known and Not known. The upper left quadrant is that part of a person that is known to oneself and to others.

Characteristics such as values and beliefs are open and evident. The lower left quadrant may be known by the person but not known to others. The person knows that others do not know them. Animosity for the boss may be hidden on purpose. The upper right quadrant, the blind area, is known to others and not known to self. An eye twitch when nervous, or a silly grin when angry are

examples. The lower right quadrant is unknown by both the person and others. It is that part of ourselves that we are not aware of and that does not come to the attention of others.

If our goal is to increase the open area of our personality, we need to do two things. First, we need to engage in more self-disclosure, thus reducing the hidden area. Expressing our opinions, attitudes, and feelings about various issues in the presence of others can do this. In a sense, we exhibit more behaviour for others to observe and reflect on. Second, we need to solicit feedback from others about their impressions of our behaviour. This type of feedback, if it is accepted and internalized, can reduce the blind area. Simultaneous reduction of the hidden and blind areas results in more of our person being open to the world, particularly to those with whom we interact on a continuing basis.

It is obvious that our open window might vary in size depending on the particular group we are involved with. With our family it may be larger than with our work organisation. Self-disclosure and feedback is a functional process that depends on trust and willingness to take risk. If it turns out to be a rewarding process, it will continue. If the results are threatening (i.e., the feedback is painful), the process will probably decrease or cease. Thus, it requires care and nurture to develop an open personality.

A central feature of the framework is reduction of the individual's 'hidden' behaviour through self disclosure

and reduction of the ‘blind’ behaviour through feedback from others. Hidden behaviour is that which the individual wishes to conceal from, or not to communicate to others. It is part of the private self. The blind areas (that is behaviour known to others but unknown to self) include mannerisms, gestures and tone of voice which represent behaviour of the impact of which others are unaware. Members must establish an atmosphere of openness and trust in order that the hidden and blind behaviours are reduced and the open behaviour enhanced. Figure 9 below shows the model for intra- and inter- personal relationship among employees.

As a follow-up to the foregoing, the following principles have been offered by Zak, Gold, Ryckman & Lenney (1998) for better understanding of the relationship between trust and mistrust.

- Mistrust drives out trust – people who are trusting demonstrate their trust by increasing their openness to others, disclosing relevant information, and expressing their true intentions. People who mistrust do not reciprocate. They conceal information and act opportunistically to take advantage of others. To defend themselves against repeated exploitation, trusting people are driven to mistrust. A few mistrusting people can poison an entire organisation.
- Trust Begets Trust. In the same way that mistrust drives out trust, exhibiting trust in

others tends to encourage reciprocity. Effective leaders increase trust in small increments and allow others to respond in kind. By offering trust in only small increments, leaders limit penalty or loss that might occur if their trust is exploited.

- Trust can be regained – once it is violated, trust can be regained, but only in certain situations. When an individual's trust in another is broken because the other party failed to do what was expected of him, it can be restored when the individual observes a consistent pattern of trustworthy behaviours by the transgressor. However, when the same untrustworthy behaviour occurs with deception, trust never fully recovers, even when the deceived is given apologies, promises or a consistent pattern of trustworthy actions.

Mistrusting Group self-distrust. The corollary to the previous principle is that when group members mistrust each other, they repel and separate. They pursue their own interests rather than the group's. Members of mistrusting groups tend to be suspicious of each other, are constantly on guard against exploitation, and restrict communication with others in the group. These actions tend to undermine and eventually destroy the group.

- Mistrust generally reduces productivity. Mistrust focuses attention on the differences in members interests, making it difficult for people to visualize common goals. People respond by concealing information and secretly pursuing their own interests. When employees encounter problems, they avoid calling on others, fearing that those others will take advantage of them. A climate of mistrust tends to stimulate dysfunctional forms of conflict and retard cooperation.

Where there is no cooperation among employees, morale will be low, attitude to work will be negative, the quality of work output will be poor and productivity will ultimately be low.

## **WORK BEHAVIOUR: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LINE-STAFF PERSONNEL**

According to Gray & Starke (1977), line-staff structure emerged as a response to the increasing environmental and functional complexities facing organisations. Line functions are those which have direct responsibility for accomplishing the objectives of the enterprise. "Staff" refers to those elements of the organisation that help the line to work most effectively in accomplishing the primary objectives of the enterprises. Theoretically, line functions are basic and the manager has authority



whereas staff personnel are supportive and provide advice.

In any organisation, certain functions are considered central (primary) to goal attainment (line functions) and others are considered secondary (staff functions). For example, in the military, the line engages in battle, the staff (i.e. medical and health officers) provides support functions for those in battle. Likewise in the university, the line engages in teaching, the staff (administrative, technical and bursary) provide support functions for the teachers. In the local government council, the line (Chairman, Supervisors and Councillors) engage in making laws, while the staff (administrative, secretarial, accounting and technical) provide support functions.

Based on the foregoing, it would be wrong to say that the line functions are the “most important”, while staff functions, although secondary in relation to goals are nevertheless quite important. The accountability of line staffers is preserved by the right to reject advice provided by staff personnel. This is so because if line personnel were forced to take the advice of staff personnel, then, staff personnel would be making decisions within the line staffers area of responsibility and this would mean that line officials could not subsequently be held accountable for the performance of their areas of responsibility. Hence, in order to improve on the relationship between line and staff and also to effect a greater cooperation and coordination, Flippo (1980) highlighted the following three principles:

- (i) Principle of staff advice which states that staff personnel can only advise line on what to do, and never command or order.
- (ii) Principle of compulsory staff advice which compels the line officials to listen to staff advice
- (iii) Principle of staff independence which indicates that staff personnel should have sufficient security to be able to give truthful advice to line personnel without fear of losing their jobs.

In view of the behavioural implications that could result mainly from the confusion of authority relationships between line-staff personnel, Ajila (1995) had argued that the relationship should involve give and take, and, that much as line officials cannot always have their way and vice versa for staff officials, there would be harmony, cooperation and cordial relationship as long as there is tolerance, patience and the recognition of each other's limitation and capability as structurally stipulated in consonance with the goals and objectives of the organisation which require in most cases impersonality.

## **REWARDING INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEES**

There are many ways to pay employees. The process of initially setting pay levels can be rather complex and entails balancing internal equity – the worth of the job to the organisation (usually established through a technical process called job evaluation) and external

equity – the external competitiveness of an organisations pay relative to pay elsewhere in its industry (usually established through pay surveys). The best pay system pays the job what it is worth (internal equity) while also paying competitively relative to the labour market.

Some organisations prefer pay above the market, while some may lag the market because they cannot afford to pay market rates, or they are willing to bear the costs of paying below market (namely, higher turnover as people are lured to better paying jobs).

If an organisation pays more, the likelihood that it would get better-qualified, more highly motivated employees who will stay with the organisation longer is very high. But pay is often the highest single operating cost for an organisation, which means that paying too much can make the organisation's products or services too expensive. It is a strategic decision an organisation must make, with clear trade-offs.

Rewards and compensation shape employees' behaviour and performance output, and encourages retention of talented personnel (ALDamoe, Yazam & Hamid, 2013). A number of organisations are moving away from paying people based solely on credentials or length of service and toward piece-rate plans, merit-based pay, bonuses, profit-sharing, gain-sharing and employee stock ownership plans.

## **POWER AND POLITICS IN THE WORKPLACE**

The use of politics occurs daily in all organisations at all levels (Schein, 1980). For example, a qualified individual is passed over for a promotion that goes to a co-worker who is clearly less qualified: organisational members say that it was a political decision. Two office workers who have a history of never getting along suddenly file a joint formal complaint about a mutually disliked supervisor. Observers explain that their collaboration is due to office politics. Anyone who has had the chance to observe the operations of an organisation would have seen organisation politics in action.

The same political behaviour may be either functional or dysfunctional depending on how it affects the goals of the organisation. For example, a salesman may use high-pressure tactics to make a sale, despite an organisation policy that frowns on such techniques. However, if the sale is made and the customer is satisfied, the tactics are functional because the goals of both the salesperson and the organization have been met. However, if the salesperson uses the unapproved techniques and makes the sale but the customer is unhappy with being subjected to high-pressure tactics and vows never to buy another of the company's products, the political behaviour can be termed dysfunctional. The salesperson's goals have been met, but the organisations' goal of keeping customers happy and loyal has been thwarted. It is not always easy to distinguish between functional and dysfunctional political behaviour because the difference between the two depends on the outcome of the behaviour.

Ideally, if political behaviour is going to occur in organisations (and it is), it should be functional. However, in any organisation some of the political behaviour will be functional and some will be dysfunctional. The politics of a worker who reports any sort of misbehaviour by co-workers to management and who later gets a promotion because of it might also be judged negatively. Political behaviour that operates to further the individual's own ends, without considering its effects on others, is likely to be viewed negatively by others.

While some of the political behaviours that take place in work organisations are dysfunctional, oriented toward achieving personal goals to the detriment of organisation goals, much political behaviour is actually functional, helping both the individual and the organisation achieve respective goals. However, it is the dysfunctional politics that often gains the most attention because it sometimes violates the organization's codes of ethical and moral behaviour. For example, in one organisation reporting negative information about another worker to management might be considered a breach of ethic, while in another organisation such political behaviour might be more accepted. In one company, management might view worker's unionization as an accepted political practice, while the management of a rival organisation might see it as mutiny.

When resources, such as money, promotion, and status are scarce, people may try to exercise their power to obtain what they need to satisfy their goals. The more

scarce the resources and the more difficult they are to obtain due to "red tape" or arbitrary allocation procedures, the greater the potential that organisation members will act politically to get what they want. For example, an individual who forms a relationship with someone in the organisation who has control over distributing important resources may be able to get a larger share of the resources (and to get it more quickly). In an organisation, a manager noticed that new word-processing equipment was often distributed first to persons who were friendly with the departmental manager rather than to those who needed them most. Generally, competitions for power resources increase the incidence of organisation politics.

When job performance is not measured objectively, it means that performance may be unrelated to career success. When personnel decisions, such as pay raises and promotion are based on subjective criteria, workers will resort to political tactics such as forming alliances, discrediting others, and lobbying to gain favour with the appraisers and get ahead.

When criteria other than performance, such as dressing a certain way, are emphasized in personnel decisions, workers may make efforts to look good rather than to perform well. When managers make comments like, "He looks like a real company man," they are likely giving weight to factors that are unrelated to good work performance.

When jobs are ambiguous and workers do not know how to perform them correctly, there is the potential for dysfunctional political behaviour as the worker try to look as if they know what they are doing. Defining jobs and work procedures clearly reduces the likelihood that workers will engage in political behaviour to compensate for being confused or inadequate.

The more group decision-making procedures are used in organisation, the greater the potential for politics. Group decision-making is basically a political process, with members lobbying for certain courses of action and engaging in a variety of exchanges of favours and supports to obtain certain outcomes. For the most part, group decision-making, when properly regulated, leads to functional outcomes. However, if the process begins to break down so that high-quality decisions are not being accepted because of opponents' political say and power, the results can be dysfunctional.

Group decision-making processes, workers' critiques of established work procedures and suggestions for alternatives and improvements and competition among workers may all results in functional political behaviours and improved organisational outcomes.

## **LEADERSHIP IN ORGANISATIONS**

In the description of organisations, no word is more often used than leadership. Leadership is sometimes used as if it were an attribute of personality, sometimes

as if it were a characteristic of a certain position, and sometimes as if it were an attribute of behaviour. But in all cases, leadership is a relational concept implying two terms: the influencing agent and the persons influenced (Maier, 1973; Ajila & Adegoke, 1998b; Eze, 1995). Good leaders that want to sustain the confidence of followers in the quest for organisational effectiveness and successful attainment of corporate goals must endeavour to acknowledge that their perspective influences their subordinate (Akindele & Afolabi, 2013). This means that what differentiates the very effective supervisor from his colleagues is the ability to use more than a formal role in relating to people.

Most experienced supervisors and managers in their day-to-day work are continually worried about the major issues of leadership, namely: responsibility and authority, delegation, target setting, control, performance evaluation, team building and the management of conflict (Ajila, Akanni & Ekundayo, 2012). From their experiences with these issues come a host of questions about the process of leadership: How can I get a job done most effectively? When should I listen and when should I give orders? How should I use my power to reward and punish? Many theories of leadership styles have been developed in attempts to answer these questions (McGregor, 1960; Fiedler, 1967; Yukl, 1998). Almost all these theories, as well as data on leadership behaviour, distinguish between two types of leadership:



	<b>Type I</b>		<b>Type II</b>
(a)	<b>Theory X-type</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Theory Y-type</b>
(b)	<b>Job-centered</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Employee-centered</b>
(c)	<b>Initiating structure</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Consideration</b>
(d)	<b>Exploitative-authoritative</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Consultative-democratic</b>
(e)	<b>Directive, task-oriented</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Human relations-oriented</b>
(f)	<b>Bureaucratic</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Participative</b>
(g)	<b>Autocratic</b>	<b>vs</b>	<b>Democratic</b>

Both types create different social and organisational climates which are exemplified by the assumptions of McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y.

For a manager or supervisor to be successful, there are three major groups of factors that he or she must consider in deciding how to lead subordinates /workers: These are (i) Forces in the manager, (ii). Forces in the subordinates, and (iii) Forces in the situation.

1. *Forces in the Manager:* the manager's behaviour in any given situation will be influenced greatly by the many forces operating within his own personality which has developed as a result of his background, knowledge and experience. These include (a) his value system and belief system; (b) his confidence in his subordinate; (c) his own leadership inclinations (his comfort with different leadership styles); (d) his feelings of security in uncertain situations; and (e) his assessment of his subordinate's competence.

2. *Forces in the Subordinates:* Before deciding how to lead a certain group, the manager must remember that each subordinate, like himself, is influenced by many personality factors, and has a set of expectations about how the leader should act in relation to him. Other forces in the subordinates include: (a) their needs for dependency or dependence; (b) their readiness to assume responsibility; (c) their interest in the problem; (d) the extent to which they understand and identify with the organisation's goals; (e) their knowledge and experience about the work; (f) their tolerance of ambiguity; and (g) their expectations.
  
3. *Forces in the Situation:* In addition to the above forces, certain characteristics of the general company situation greatly affect the manager's style of leadership. Among the more critical environmental pressures that surround him are those which stem from the type of organization (values, tradition, climate, markets, size, geographic spread and so on), the work group, the nature of the task, and the pressures of time.

Leadership plays a central part in understanding individual and group behaviour, for it is the leader who usually provides the direction toward goal attainment. A good leader facilitates the behaviour of subordinates towards the achievement of the goal of the group, while a bad leader dehumanizes the subordinates (Ajila & Adekoya, 2006)

## STRESS AT WORK

Although stress is typically discussed in a negative context, it also has a positive value (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling & Boudreau, 2000). It is not necessarily bad in and of itself. In short, some stress can be good, and some can be bad. Recently, researchers have argued that challenge stressors – or stressors associated with work load, pressure to complete tasks, and time urgency – operate quite differently from hindrance stressors – or stressors that keep you from reaching your goals (red tape, office politics, confusion over job responsibilities). Evidence suggests that challenge stressors are less harmful than hindrance stressors (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007; LePine, LePine, & Jackson). While some amount of stress is desirable to motivate workers to perform efficiently, severe and profound stress is disruptive.

The typical individual works about 40 hours a week. But the experiences and problems that people encounter in the other 120-plus non-work hours each week can spill over to the job. Job-related stress can cause job-related dissatisfaction. Studies have shown that when people are placed in jobs that make multiple and conflicting demands or in which there is a lack of clarity about the incumbent's duties, authority and responsibilities, both stress and dissatisfaction are increased. Similarly, the less control people have over the pace of their work, the greater the stress and dissatisfaction (Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

More typically, stress is associated with demands and resources. Demands are responsibilities, pressures, obligations and even uncertainties that individuals face in the workplace. Resources are things within an individual's control that can be used to resolve the demands. (Yperen & Janssen, 2004). When you undergo your annual performance review at work, you feel stress because you confront opportunities and performance pressures. A good performance review may lead to a promotion, greater responsibilities and a higher salary. A poor review may prevent you from getting a promotion. An extremely poor review might even result in your being fired. In such situation, to the extent that you can apply resources to the demands - such as being prepared, placing the review in perspective, or obtaining social support – you will feel less stress.

The behaviour of people at the workplace changes from positive to negative or vice versa depending on the amount of stress experienced. Low to moderate levels of stress stimulate the body and increase its ability to react and individuals then often perform their tasks better, more intensely or more rapidly. But too much stress places unattainable demands on a person, which result in lower performance.

Counselling at the workplace which arises due to various reasons in addition to stress comes as a panacea to solving personal and work related worries and problems (Ajila & Adetayo, 2013). The reasons for workplace counselling thus, include: to deal effectively with one's own emotions, interpersonal problems and

lack of team spirit at the workplace, inability to meet job demands, anger, stress, hostility at the workplace, confrontation with authority, conflicts with superiors, subordinates and management, health problems, career problems and even family problems. It is a process of helping individuals at the workplace to help themselves.

## **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The effective performance of every job is a function of the appropriate mixture of three interacting behavioural components - Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes (KSA). A job holder is thus expected to display the appropriate job knowledge (the know-how); job skills (the physical or demonstrative ability) and job attitudes (the will to work correctly). It is much easier to effectively train a job holder for the acquisition of knowledge and skills for the job, but training someone to acquire the attitudes appropriate for a job is not only complex but difficult. This is because of the innate tendencies and experiences which individuals have acquired and developed over a period of building their personalities which will manifest themselves on the job. Thus, people exhibit various shades of behaviour at the workplace which most often are manifestations of their attitudes.

Given the foregoing and the attendant dynamics of the workplace behaviour, the following recommendations are

found appropriate and relevant to modern day organisations:

- Management must recognize individual differences in behaviour, link rewards to performance and check the system for equity. For a meaningful person-organisation fit, the process of recruitment, selection and promotion must be competitively transparent. There must be less emphasis on godfatherism, nepotism, ethnicity and paper qualification.
- Management must respond to individual differences in ways that will ensure employee retention and greater productivity, while at the same time, not discriminating.

Management must provide constructive feedback to individuals by job results and staff appraisals. Develop an organisation culture in which attitudes towards employees are positive and where attention to service quality is reflected in respect for employees' knowledge, skills and contribution, and where mistakes are seen as learning opportunities rather than grounds for criticism.

Management must ensure that disciplinary procedure is fair, transparent, devoid of witch-hunting, and scapegoatism.

- Management must permit individual employees to express their feelings and anxieties to their bosses, and colleagues.
- Employers of labour must show concern for the welfare of her employees. Salaries and other benefits must be paid promptly. The physiological needs of employees must be satisfied by a wage that is sufficient enough to feed, shelter and protect them satisfactorily.
- Employers of labour should design a total employee package that would enhance their commitment and positive attitude to work. The welfare of members must be paramount in the mind of management to foster industrial harmony.
- Employers of labour must show the willingness to use result oriented, participatory management styles which are capable of providing challenging job, effective delegation, goal setting and performance measurement in order to enlist the commitment of employees.
- Training and development should become a definite component of corporate policy in which all employees will have an opportunity of being trained while on the job. This will aid the

acquisition of necessary skill for effective job performance.

- Managers and supervisors must lead by example. It should not be “do what I say”, but “do what I do”. Appointments and promotions must be based on merit and nothing more. Superiors and supervisors must be weary of sycophants. They should encourage complete reports, both the good and the bad, and positively reinforce those who give candid appraisals.
- On a final note, employees, regardless of job status must love their co-workers as themselves. The culture of trust, which should be predicated on reciprocity to ensure mutuality of the attendant benefits, must be developed among all employees

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