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# ADMINISTRATIVE
# BEHAVIOUR
# ANALYSIS IN
# EDUCATIONAL
# MANAGEMENT

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Rev. Fr. Dr. Stephen
Abuchi Ezenwagu

# Administrative Behaviour Analysis in Educational Management

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**Administrative Behaviour Analysis in Educational Management**
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# Dedication

This work is affectionately dedicated to all students of Administration and Educational Management whose desire is to improve the educational milieu.

# Acknowledgements

A work of this nature is the cumulative efforts of many. Although, this idea was mine, but many people contributed immensely to its commencement and completion. In view of this, I want to acknowledge the Sterling-worth contributions of my numerous persons whose spiritual and intellectual investments in me have made me who I am today.

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God bless you all.

# Foreword

# Blurb

Ordained on 8th July, 2006, **Rev. Fr. Dr. Stephen Abuchi Ezenwagu** is a priest of the Archdiocese of Onitsha. He attended All Hallows' Seminary, Onitsha, Anambra State and Bigard Memorial Seminary, Enugu, Enugu State. A graduate of Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Anambra State where he obtained his Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) in Educational Adminsitration. In 2016, he obtained his M.Ed in Educational Management. He also obtained his Ph.D. in Educational Management and Policy in November, 2021 from Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka.

A Lecturer in the Department of Education Management and Policy, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Rev. Dr. Stephen Abuchi Ezenwagu loves singing and sports (tennis and badminton).

# Chapter One

# BEHAVIOUR

## INTRODUCTION

Man is a complex being. As a social animal, his actions and responses towards situations and circumstances cannot be predicted with laser-like precision. In a given situation, you may think he would behave in a certain way, but he would not and when you think he would not, then he would surprise you by behaving true to type. At Matthew 21:28-31 we see this nature of man come alive. Jesus said:

> *"What do you think? There was a man who had two sons. He went to the first and said, 'Son, go and work today in the vineyard.' "'I will not,' he answered, but later he changed his mind and went. "Then the father went to the other son and said the same thing. He answered, 'I will, sir,' but he did not go. "Which of the two did what his father wanted?" "The first," they answered.*

The extent to which a person is understood depends largely on the extent to which his/her behaviour is known and predictable. However, since he/she as a being is a complex phenomenon, knowing him and predicting his actions are no easy tasks. According to Adomeh (2005) cited in Obiozor (2019):

> *"Human behaviour involves all aspects of human operations such as personal and coven thought processes including a configuration of chains of complex human information processing such as perception, conception, thinking, remembering,*

*memory processes and even creativity. There are dynamic emotional aspects of human behaviour which are equally complex conven behaviour patterns interacting very intricately with human cognitive processes and action."*

Such behavioural pattern which is shaded from the external observer can only be inferred from the overt behaviour of an individual, which only professional psychologists can do. Psychologists and sociologists are not just concerned with understanding and predicting human behaviours, their ultimate goal is to manage and control adaptive behaviours in humans. Management and control of adaptive behaviours in humans will help us to appreciate the concept of behaviour.
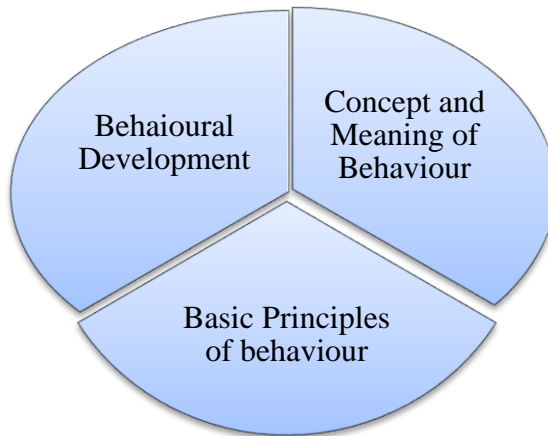


**Objectives**

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

1. Explain the meaning of behaviour.
2. Explain basic principles and assumptions about behaviour by psychologists

## Concept of Behaviour

The consensus among psychologists is that Psychology is the science of human behaviour and mental processes. Psychologists employ scientific methods in their daily work. Psychology makes use of empirical eveidence, not guess work. This means that psychologists make use of careful, systematic and objective observations to reach conclusions. Poets, novelists, playwrights, artists/artistes and philosophers are professionals in their own rights, because they make use of non scientific methods of study, they are not considered 'psychologists." This does not mean that they do not have something of value to say about human behaviours (Olusegun, 2015).

Psychologists study individual behaviours while sociologists study group behaviours. Many psychologists are interested in how behaviours of others affect individuals. The focus is on the individuals, not groups. Since behaviour is the central focus of psychology, it is pertinent that we define what behavior is all about. According to Onah (2013),

> *"Behaviour is the physical activity of an organism, including overt bodily movements and internal glandular and other physiological processes, constituting the sum total of the organism's physical responses to its environment.'*

The term also denotes the specific physical responses of an organism to particular stimuli or classes of stimuli. Obiozor (2018) defined behaviour as "everything we do that can be directly observed." Strictly speaking, behaviour refers to directly observable responses like pushing a button, kicking someone or talking. However, since such responses may be used to infer subjective events (goals, thoughts, and feelings

for example), and since subjective experience is what many psychologists are really most interested in, the subject matter of Psychology include virtually anything the individual does or experiences (Adomeh, 2005).

The word, "Behaviour" tends to be restricted to relatively large, global responses and is generally not applied to the more minute, specific phenomenon that interests most biologists. Many psychologists are interested in the body's physiological functioning, but they are unlikely to spend much more time studying the embryological development of the respiratory system, formation of blood clots or stages in the division of liver. Because of this specific interest of individual psychologists, Akinboye (1984) as cited in Adomeh (2005) noted that while there is a general consensus among psychologists on behaviour as the subject matter of Psychology, there is no such consensus among psychologists as to the precise meaning of the word, "Behaviour." Consequently, definition of *behaviour* ranges from the most general to the most specific depending on the points of view of those defining the concept or their areas of emphasis.

Thus, to some psychologists who are concerned with conduct, behaviour is the activities organisms engage in. Simply stated, observable activities are sometimes used to infer subjective events like goals, thoughts and feelings. In other words, behaviour are the activities performed by an organism on a regular basis. In relation to humans, therefore, behaviour is the activity that humans perform. Any form of expression in which man shows forth what he is could be considered as his behaviour since his activities cannot be separated from him as a human organism.

According to other psychologists who emphasize the neurological foundation of human behavior, it is the response of the neuromotor system to perceived stimuli. What this means is that behaviour does not occur in a vacuum. It is a reaction of the organism to some perceived environmental contingencies. For a human being or any other organism for that matter to engage in any activity that could be termed 'behaviour,' something must precede it or he must be prompted to act. Such environmental contingencies could either be internal or external to the human person or organism. Such a reaction to stimulus is considered a unit of behavior, hence, to behave, the organism must do something, that is, engage in activity.

As an activity, behaviour is considered one, albeit very important function of the physical structure of individual organisms. It is literally the action of muscles and glands caused by the coordinated effort of various structures in the central nervous system.

For *Behavioural Scientists*, behaviour is defined in terms of its function as an activity of the organism that changes in an orderly way with certain variables whether such can be demonstrated or not. When scientists study functions of behaviour, their first task, as in other Natural Sciences is to discover basic units of functional analysis. They do this, as Darwin did concerning the various life forms he encountered on his travels abroad the H.M.S. Beagle by asking about *functions* (Schlinger, 2002 cited in Adomeh, 2005).

Schlinger (2012) is of the view that Behavioural Scientists have made great in-roads in Functional Unit of Behaviour in the last one hundred years. Notable among such scholars are Parlov, Thorndike and Skinner, who each discovered a unit of

functional behaviour which they referred to as *Respondents, Operant* and *Discriminated Operants,* respectively. There are different principles and assumptions about behaviour. These, we shall now turn to:

## BEHAVIOUR: BASIC PRINCIPLES AND ASSUMPTIONS

The basic principles and assumptions about behaviour will be treated from Behaviourist, Psychoanalytic, Humanistic and Cognitive approaches:



## Behaviourist Approach

Behaviourists emphasise how environmental factors influence behaviours, to the near exclusion of innate or inherited factors. Essentially, this amounts to a focus on learning. The key form of learning is conditioning, either classical (Pavlovian or respondent), which formed the basis of Watson's Behaviourism or operant (instrumental), which is at the centre of Skinner's *Radical Behaviourism*.

Behaviourism is often referred to as "S-R" Psychology. "S" stands for *Stimulus* while "R" stands for *Response*. Both *Classical* and *Operant Conditioning* explains observable behaviours (responses) in terms of environmental events

(stimuli), but they define the *stimulus* and *response* in fundamentally different ways. In *Classical Conditioning,* stimulus is seen as triggering a response in a predictable automatic way. This is what is conveyed by *S-R* Psychology. Both types of conditioning are forms of associative learning where associations or connections are formed between stimuli and responses that did not exist before learning takes place. The mechanisms proposed by a theory should be as simple as possible. Behaviourists stress the use of operational definitions (defining concepts in terms of observable and measurable events).

According to Osuji (2015), the aim of science of behaviour is to predict and control behaviour.

## Psychoanalytic Approach

According to Sigmund Freud, much of our behaviour is determined by unconscious thoughts, wishes and memories, etcetera. What we are consciously aware of at any one time represents the tip of an iceberg. Most of our thoughts and ideas are either not accessible (preconscious) or are totally inaccessible (unconscious). These unconscious thoughts and ideas can become conscious through the use of special techniques such as free association, dream interpretation and transference, the very cornerstones of psychoanalysis. You will learn more about this concept later under *psychotherapy*.

Much of what is unconscious has been made so through repression, where threatening or unpleasant experiences are "forgotten." They become inaccessible and locked away from our conscious awareness. This is a major form of *ego defence*. Freud singled out *repression* as the cornerstone upon which the whole structure of psychoanalysis rests. It is the most essential part of it.

Freud's theory, though criticized as unscientific, contains some profound observations and understanding of human behaviour. These must be incorporated into human psychology, not only its theory, but also its methods.

## Humanistic Approach

According to Gross (2010), both *Psychoanalytic* and *Behaviourist* approaches are deterministic. Most times, people are driven by forces beyond their control, either unconscious forces from within (Freud) or reinforcements from outside (Skinner).

Humanistic psychologists believe in freewill and people's ability to choose how they act. A truly scientific psychology must treat its subject matter as fully human. This implies acknowledging individuals as interpreters of themselves and their world. Behaviour, therefore, must be understood in terms of an individual's subjective experiences, from the perspective of an actor. Abraham Maslow, a *Humanistic Psychologist* argued that Freud supplied the *sick half* of psychology through his belief in the inevitability of conflict, neurosis, innate self-destructiveness, etcetera while he and Rogers stressed the *healthy half*.

Maslow saw *self-actualisation* at the peak of a Hierarchy of Needs while Rogers talked about the *actualizing tendency*, an intrinsic property of life, reflecting the desire to grow, develop and enhance our capabilities. A fully functioning person is the ideal of growth. Personality development naturally moves towards healthy growth (unless it is blocked by external factors) and should be considered the norm (Gross, 2010 in NOUN, 2015).

## Cognitive Approach

Despite its undoubted influence within Psychology as a whole, it is most difficult to define the boundaries of *Cognitive Psychology* compared to other major approaches. Its identity is not as clearly established and cannot be considered to be a specific, integrated set of assumptions and concepts. It has several contemporary forms with many theories, research programmes and forms of Psychotherapy having a cognitive tilt (Nye, 2000). Looking at the various psychological principles and assumptions, our aim is to prepare your knowledge foundation on what you will learn when we shall discuss the different forms of Psychotherapy.

## CONCLUSION

You have learnt so far that behaviour is a physical activity of an organism. There is no consensus among psychologists as to the precise definition of behaviour. There are different approaches to behaviour, hence, we have different basic principles and assumptions among Behaviourist, Psychoanalytic, Humanistic and Cognitive psychologists.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, you have learnt the concept of behaviour. You also learned about the Pavlovian conception, which states that associations or connections are formed between *stimuli* and *responses*. While psychoanalytics believe that our behaviours are influenced by our unconscious thoughts, humanists believe in the subjectivity of human organism.

## Review Questions

1. Define the concept of behaviour.
2. Explain the basic principles and assumptions of behaviourist, psychoanalytic and humanistic psychologists on behaviour.

# Chapter Two

# TYPES OF BEHAVIOUR

## INTRODUCTION

In chapter one, you learnt the concept of behavior, which was defined from different perspectives. It was also explained that psychologists define behaviour from different points of view, hence, there is no consensus amongst scholars as to the definite meaning of behaviour.

In all, behaviour is observed as a response from living organisms. In this chapter, you will learn types of behavior: meaning of deviant behavior; *deviance as intrinsically real, deviance as an objective fact* and *deviance as determined behaviour.*

| Deviant behaviour | Deviance as intrinsically real | Deviance as an objective fact | Deviance as determined behaviour |
|---|---|---|---|
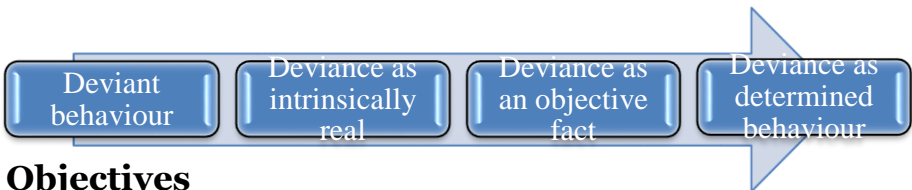
## Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:
1. List and explain types of behaviour.
2. Discuss deviant behaviour.
3. Explain deviance as classified by scientific sociologists.
4. Analyse deviance as classified by humanistic sociologists.

## TYPES OF BEHAVIOUR

Since behaviour is an activity of an organism, which does not occur in a vacuum, but is prompted by a stimulating event or a combination of events, which could be internal or external to the organism. This implies that classifications of behaviour must be done in relation to other organisms. Therefore, in

classifying behaviour, we must look at it from the point at which it affects other human organisms and society in general (Obi, 2017).

The view that behaviours are learnt or learnable brings us to the consideration of types of behaviour. Broadly speaking, there are two types of behaviours, namely, *adaptive behaviour* and *maladaptive behaviour*. Adaptive behaviours are those human activities and responses through which a person satisfies his needs and relates to other members of society in morally and accepted ways, which do not infringe on the rules and regulations of either his immediate environment or the larger society. Any other behaviour that does not fulfill all of the above conditions even if it helps an inidivudal to adapt to environmental contingencies is considered *maladaptive* (Adomeh, 2005).

*Maladaptive behaviour* infers that such a conduct is not normal. At the point of deviation, we refer to such a behaviour as *deviant*. Since it is this type of conduct that requires to be managed and restored to the point of departure, we shall now focus on deviant behaviour and its various types.

## Definition of Deviant Behaviour
Like behaviour itself, a lot of controversies surround the definition deviant behaviour. These controversies are not peculiar to lay people in behaviour modification, it is also common among sociologists themselves. In view of this, it is important to narrow our focus on some professional definitions before attempting a synthesis as was the case with Adomeh (2005 cited in NOUN, 2015).

According to Thio, Parsons defined *deviant behaviour* as a situation in which a person exhibits a conduct contrary to

societal expectations. In the same vein, Robert Merton, a student of Talcoth Parsons opined:

> *"Deviant behaviour refers to conduct that departs significantly from the norms set for people in their social statuses...when a man acts 'like a child' or a layman acts 'like a physician,' he engages in deviant."*

For Albert Cohen, deviant behaviour does not only mean violation of expectations about our social statuses and roles, it refers to violation of any rule anywhere as long as the violation attracts some disapproval, anger or indignation. Cohen went further to list the following as examples of deviant behaviours: crime, dishonesty, betrayal, cutting corners, immorality, corruption, wickedness and sinful activities.

Since such deviant behaviours as suicide and mental illness will not excite disapproval, anger, or indignation, Cohen excludes then from his list. But John Lofland includes them in his. To Lofland, deviants are persons toward whom there is experienced fear, hate, threat and defensiveness and on occasions, compassion, concern and hope of redemption.

While other sociologists restrict deviant behaviour to the acts of violating normative rules, Sagarin's definition includes both rule breakers and people who have not committed deviant acts. This later group includes those who are crippled, mentally retarded, spastic, leprous, blind, deaf and mute. Although these people have not broken social rules, they are similar to physically normal people who have because they are held in low social esteem. That notwithstanding, most sociologists limit the use of the term, "deviance" to what the public considers *objectionable behaviour*s. The term,

"objectionable" used by most sociologists to quality behaviour had led to classifying deviant behaviour into two main groups, namely, *Scientific* and *Humanistic*. Those sociologists who define deviance from scientific perspectives are known as *Scientific Sociologists.* According to Adomeh (2005) cited in NOUN (2015), they make three main assumptions:

1. That deviance is intrinsically real.
2. Deviance is objective fact.
3. Deviance is determined behaviour.

Now, we are going to learn more about deviance from the perspectives of these Scientific Sociologists.

### *Deviance as intrinsically real*

The first assumption by Scientific Sociologists is that deviance is intrinsically real. What this means is that a deviant possesses some characteristics that distinguish it from conforming behaviour. According to this school of thought, it is possible to distinguish *deviant persons* from *conforming persons*. They tend to view deviant behaviour as an attribute inherent in an individual, yet, relative to a given norm, time and/or society. It must also possess the ability to affect other person's disagreeably. Examples of deviant acts that affect others disagreeably are murder, rape, robbery, mugging, etcetera. Thus, deviance by any other name or label is real just as rose, by any other label, will smell as sweet (Adomeh, 2005 cited in NOUN, 2015).

### *Deviance as objective fact*

The second assumption by Scientific Sociologists is that deviance is an objective fact. In other words, deviance is an object of observation, perception and/or thought. It is not something left to someone's imagination. It is premised on the fact that deviant behaviour is something with an objective

nature. By treating a deviant person as an object, scientists have attempted to observe and study deviant behaviour and deviant persons, objectively.

Since personal bias plays certain roles in a sociologist's outlook, they no longer pass moral judgements on deviant behaviours, but instead they prefer to study the subject matter precisely as it is. By this, sociologists are very objective about the nature of deviant behaviour. Consequently, subjective notions like maladjustments, moral failings, debauchery, demoralization, sicknesses, pathology and abnormality are no longer in vogue. They have been replaced with such concepts as innovation, retreatism, ritualism, rebellion, culture conflict, subcultural behaviour, reinforced behaviour and so on.

### *Deviance as determined behaviour*
The third scientific perspective by Scientific Sociologists is that deviant behaviour is something that is determined or caused by some other things, events, occurrences or phenomena in the environment. Implicit in this determinist or causal view is that a given thing cannot simply appear out of nothing or nowhere. If a person is thought to determine his or her own behaviour, then it does not make sense to say that such a behaviour is caused by something else. If a murderer determines to commit a murderous act, it does not make sense to say that the murderous act is caused by the individual's physical or mental condition, family background or various social experiences in society. Therefore, in defending their scientific principle of determinism, early sociologists stuck to their denial of freewill. To them, causes of deviance can be located in social environments, namely, "broken homes, unhappy homes, lower-class backgrounds, economic deprivations, social disorganizations, rapid social changes,

differential associations and differential reinforcements, etcetera.

Conclusively, the scientific perspective on deviance, which is anchored on three related assumptions can be summed up in three sentences: first, deviant behaviour is intrinsically real; second, it is an objective fact; third, it is determined by other factors.

## DEVIANCE AS CLASSIFIED BY HUMANISTIC SOCIOLOGISTS

The second major group's view on deviance is the *Humanistic Perspective*. This group set out to challenge *Scientific Sociologists*. Like the later, the *Humanistic* made three assumptions, namely:

1.  Deviance is a label.
2.  Deviance is a subjective experience.
3.  Deviance is a voluntary act.

### *Deviance is a label*

The first assumption of the Humanistic perspective is that deviance is a label apportioned to a particular type of behaviour. Humanistic perspective, therefore, holds that deviant behaviour, by itself, does not have any intrinsic characteristics unless it is thought to have those characteristics. The so called intrinsically deviant characteristics do not come from the behaviour itself, instead they come from people's minds. Furthermore, since laws vary from one state to the other, the same type of behaviour may be defined as criminal in one state, but not so in another. There is then a relativity principle in deviant behaviour. Behaviour gets defined as *deviant* relative to a given norm, standard of behaviour or the way people react to it.

### *Deviance as subjective experience*

The saying, "Beauty is in the eye of the beholder" is perspective oriented. Since Humanistic perspective conceives deviance as a label, they proceeded to state:

> *"The supposedly deviant behaviour is a subjective experience and the supposedly deviant person is a conscious, feeling, thinking and reflective subject."*

As a result of their subjective and emphatic approach, Humanists often present an image of deviant as basically the same as conventional people. This implies that so-called *conventional behaviour* should not be controlled by society.

### *Deviance as voluntary act*

The third assumption of Humanistic perspective holds that deviant behaviour is a voluntary act or an expression of human volition, will or choice. To deny human freewill is to make them robots, senseless and purposeless machines who merely react to environmental contingencies. For Humanists, human beings possess freewill and choice- making abilities to determine or cause their own behaviours.

By the above three assumptions, Humanists have carefully turned the table against Scientific Sociologists and set the stage for an antithesis, which of course needs a synthesis.

According to Onah (2017:24), this is precisely was what *Integrated Perspective* is all about. According to him:

> *Scientific and Humanistic perspectives can be integrated into a larger perspective that sees deviant behaviour as an act that can be located at a point on a continuum of maximum and minimum public consensus regarding the deviant nature of the act.*

More concretely, according to *Integrated Perspective,* deviant behaviour is divided into two major types: *Higher Consensus Deviance* and *Lower-Consensus Deviance.* Under *Higher Consensus Deviance,* a deviant behaviour is considered so when it is serious enough to earn a great amount of public consensus that an act is really deviant. This type is more fitting for scientific investigation. Under *Lower-Consensus Deviance*, a deviant behavious is generally considered less serious and thus receives a lesser degree of public consensus on its deviant reality. This type is more appropriate for Humanistic analysis.

## CONCLUSION
You have learnt about the meaning and types of deviant behaviour. We also learnt that some behaviours are *adaptive* while some are *maladaptive*. In view of this, you have now been positioned to learn about maladaptive behaviours that require modifications later in this course.

## SUMMARY
In this chapter, you have learnt something about the types of behaviour and the meaning of deviant behaviour. Furthermore you learn about *sociological classifications* of behaviour into *Scientific* and *Humanistic Perspectives*. Scientific Sociologists classified deviant behaviour into three, namely: behaviour as intrinsically real, behaviour as objective fact and deviance as a determined behaviour. The opposing group, the Humanistic Persective classified deviant behaviour into three, namely: behaviour as intrinsically real, behaviour as objective fact and deviance as a determined behaviour. You also learnt about the synthesis of both perspectives as attempted by Adomeh (2005 cited in NOUN, 2015).

## Review Questions

1. Differentiate between *Adaptive* and *Maladaptive behaviours.*

2. Explain the meaning of *Deviance* as proposed by both *Scientific* and *Humanistic Perspectives*.

# Chapter Three

# PROCESS OF INDIVIDUALS' BEHAVIOURAL DEVELOPMENTS

## INTRODUCTION

In the last chapter, you learnt about types of behaviour and meaning of deviant behaviour; deviant as classified by both Scientific and Humanistic Sociologists. In this chapter, you will learn about how organisms develop their behaviour patterns and how it influences the way they behave. Stated simply, you will learn about behavioural developments and behaviour acquisition.
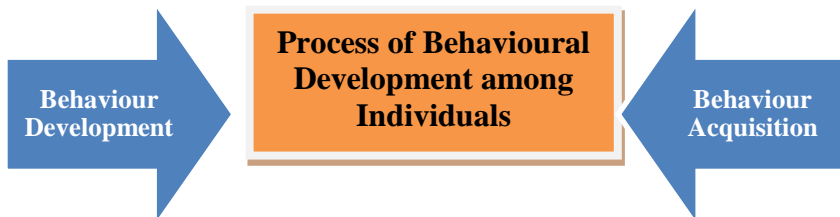


## Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:
1. Explain the concept of behavioural development.
2. Discuss behaviour acquisition.

## BEHAVIOUR DEVELOPMENT

A time-tested adage says, *"When an evil behaviour is allowed to continue for one year, it will be considered a tradition."* Influencing one's character can resort to behavioural development. In her work, *Behavioural Development,* Pelaez (2002 in Adomeh, 2005) posited that behaviour development

is a function of serveral elements, namely: efficient, material, formal and final causes. Let us now consider each of these elements:

## Efficient causes

According to Pelaez, efficient causes are the elicitors of behaviour change. These are the stimuli in an environment that trigger or elicit a change or a response. Efficient causes are identified in early behaviour development because they make early components essentials for later developmental outcomes.

In early human development, one of a neonate's greatest strengths for survival is starting with a full set of useful reflexes. Originally, these involuntary and automatic responses to stimuli have clear adaptive value to an infant in terms of automatically sucking of breast when pressed in his mouth. In later life, some of these infantile reflexes either disappear or become operant responses.

## Material causes

Material causes are the substances, machinery or material components that can be identified as forming a given behaviour(s). Geneticists use genes and DNA strings as explanations for behaviours and developments once their locations have been identified. For instance, one important genetic disease produced by a dominant gene is *Huntington's Disease*, a condition that causes gradual deterioration of the nervous system leading to a progressive decline in behavioural abilities and ultimately death. Persons who carry the dominant gene for Huntington's chorea may enjoy good health for most of their lives. The disease start with involuntary twitching of the head, limbs and body and goes on to degenerative changes

in the nervous system; loss of mental and physical powers and ultimately, death.

The age of onset of this disease, that is, the age at which it becomes first noticeable varies from infancy to old age. It is virtually certain that some persons who are carriers of the gene for this disease die of other causes before they develop any symptoms of Huntington's chorea. The gene may then be said to have an incomplete penetrance. Its expressivity is also variable. When a victim of the disease dies young before producing children, the gene may be said to have a *lethal effect*. When the victim dies in the midst of the reproductive period of life, the gene acts as a *semilethal* or a *sub vital*. When incapacitation and death occur in old age, after the close of reproductive period, the gene is not lethal at all.

Health or diseases in old age are, however, not under direct control of natural selection in the evolutionary process (Colman, 2003). Often times, there are some reductionistic explanations of behaviour that are inaccessible to the observer. The reason is that such explanations may be based on either concomitant or outcomes of another more fundamental process or cause in which a different, more molar level of analysis would be required in which behaviour would be seen as emerging from the organism contingent upon interactions with the environment (Pelaez, 2002 as cited in Adomeh, 2005).

## Formal causes

These types of causes are referred to as *models, paradigms, equations* or *formulars*. They are used to explain behaviours. In Behavioural Psychology, the matching law is an example. The formula states that relative response matches the relative reinforcement produced by that response. The matching law

summarises an organism's performances on a variety of schedules of reinforcement.

Another example is *Schematic Model of Information Processing System*. The store model explains how information flows through a series of separate, but interrelated sets of processing units or stores. It attempts to attribute the functions of memory retrieval, and problem-solving to this schematic, theoretical model.

## *Final causes*

These categories of causes are known as *functional causes* in the sense that they are the functional explanations of behaviour change. Consequently, developmental psychologists attempt to provide answers to the following:

1. What is the purpose of behaviour?
2. What is behaviour development supposed to do or ultimately accomplish?

On classification, we can conceive of two types of final causes, namely, *proximal* and *ultimate causes*. An example of *proximal cause* is reinforcement whereas "Survival of the fittest" is an example of *Ultimate cause*.

The study of human development is concerned with the *proximate* as well as the *ultimate causes* of behaviour.

## BEHAVIOUR ACQUISITION

Having accepted the definition of human behaviour as the activity which man engages in, it is now necessary to consider how man, in the first place comes to engage in such behaviours which have come to become part and parcel of life. Philosophers and psychologists have for over 100 years

engaged themselves in unending debates in an attempt to explain how man came to behave the way he does.

Jocke Locke (1890-1939) is of the view that at birth, the human mind is a *tabula rasa* (blank sheet). All knowledge, therefore, comes from experience. In order words, as a man grows, he acquires behaviours based on his daily experiences. John Locke, therefore, proposed that to properly shape behaviour, parents and significant others should praise children when they display good behaviours and simply ignore bad behaviours.

On his part, Jean Jacques Rousseau held the view of "inherent goodness." According to him,

> *"Everything is good as it comes from the hands of the maker of the world (God) but degenerates once it gets into the hands of man."*

The only way to save the situation is to give education to the child and offer instruction when the child needs it.

## JOHN LOCKE, JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU AND "LEARNT BEHAVIOUR"

Philosophical positions of these two philosophers introduce us to the first form of acquisition of behaviour namely, "Learnt behaviour."

### *Learnt behaviour*

It is possible to group behaviour into two, namely, *voluntary* and *involuntary behaviours*. Apart from involuntary acts, which are either reflex or elicited behaviours, others are operant behaviours and are governed by their consequences. *Operant behaviour* is any response by an organism that is not directly caused by a stimulus, but is freely emitted behaviour (Colman, 2003).

Operant behaviours can be further divided into *desirable* and *undesirable behaviours*. Such behaviours are learnt behaviours. On how this learning takes place, Locke says, "it is through experience."

Obi (2016) is of the view that Operant behaviours can be acquired through proper education. Pavlov and Watson proposed that *Operant behaviours* is acquired through classical conditioning. Skinner settles for operant conditioning while Bandura sees anticipatory control as the basis of all human behaviours. In all, there is a general agreement among these scholars that human beings learn to behave the way they do. What is probably the major difference is how they come to acquire their various forms of behaviour, which of course could be the reason why some behaviours are adaptive while others are said to be maladaptive.

## MODELING THROUGH OBSERVATION AND IMITATION

Sigmund Freud is of the opinion that this is a form of identification that occurs indirectly. It all begins when a child attempts to resolve a conflict he finds himself, that is, the hidden conflicts between his desire and fear. However, *Social Learning theorists* on their part completely disagreed with Freud on how children come to adopt adults' roles. For them, it is just a matter of *observation* and *imitation*.

Children, having seen what adults and older children do, they try to be like them by imitating their actions. In other words, environmental contingencies help to shape children's behaviours. Obiozor (2018) described four main processes that are involved in observational learning:

   1. Attention.
   2. Retention (memory).

3. Motor reproduction.
4. Reinforcement (motivation).

How these factors affect learning? Let us now discuss them.

## *Attention*
The behaviour to be acquired must be made present in the person's immediate environment either directly or indirectly.

## *Retention*
Observation will only have lasting effect on a person if he remembers what he had observed.

## *Motor reproduction*
Since observation tells a person which form of behaviour he/she should imitate, a complex behaviour might not only be difficult for the child to imitate, he/she might not be interested in it, but what is important is the child's ability to mentally reproduce his/her experience(s).

## *Motivation*
Unless an observer of a model is motivated by some anticipated gains if he imitates that model, he will not be interested in it.

Research findings have shown that both parents and significant others do not only make models available for their young ones to imitate, they sometimes reward them for what they considered appropriate sex roles. Similarly, they even punish inappropriate sex roles in order to discourage them.

## CONCLUSION
You have learnt about development and acquisition of behaviour. Causes of behaviour were explained. Consequently, we now know that human organisms either learn to behave or to acquire certain behaviours.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, the following important points were taken note of:

1. Behaviour development are caused by efficient, material, formal and final causes.
2. Behaviour acquisition can occur through learnt behaviour or through operant conditioning.
3. Behaviour acquisition can also occur through modeling based on observations/imitation.

## Review Questions

1. List and explain causes of behaviour development.
2. Discuss the concept of behaviour acquisition.

# Chapter Four

# BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

## INTRODUCTION

In the last chapter, you learnt about *Behaviour Development and Behaviour Acquisition in Human Organisms*. The concept of *Deviant Behaviours* was analyzed. In this chapter, you will learn about the meaning of *Behaviour Modification*, methods used by psychologists in behaviour modification, issue of behaviour management and building behavioural capabilities.
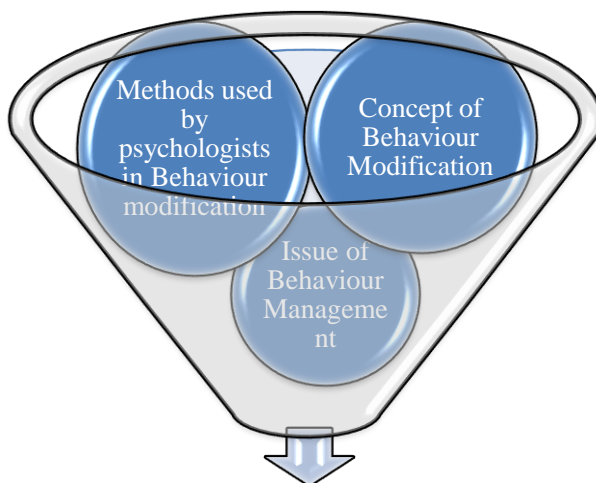


**Behaviour Modification**

## Objectives

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

1. Explain the concept of behaviour modification.
2. List and explain the methods used by psychologists in behaviour modification.
3. Discuss the issue of behaviour management.

# CONCEPT OF BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Any attempt by man to manage humans or other animals for their individual or common good is known as *Behaviour modification* (Adomeh, 2005). To achieve behaviour management, various procedures are employed, either singly or combined depending on extent of deviation from the socially accepted standards. Akinboye (1992 cited in Adomeh, 2005) rightly observed that a single behaviour change strategy may not be adequate in restoring persons' lost adaptive behaviours. This means that just as maladaptive behaviours are not acquired overnight, the restoration of behaviour to the point of departure is a tedious task. This is why the scientific discipline of Psychology which accepted the task of studying and managing behaviour for the greatest good normally adopt the scientific method in carrying out its objectives. Behaviour modification, therefore, becomes the scientific management of behaviour in a way that individuals and groups are made more effective in their daily activities.

It is important to remark that behaviour modification does not begin and end with only maladaptive behaviours. It also concerns itself with adaptive behaviours. In fact, psychologists who are trained professional therapists extend their services to persons who are functioning within the normally acceptable limits so that they can constantly remain at that level. Such services are generally described as *preventive measures*.

Another group that behaviour therapists concern themselves with are those whose behaviours have been successfully managed and restored to the point of earlier departure. Such persons need treatment so that they will be prevented from acquiring some or other undesirable behaviours as they encounter conflicts and challenges in their daily living.

Now let us move a step further and learn about methods used by psychologists in behaviour modification:

## METHODS OF BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Psychologists who engage in behaviour modification usually employ different scientific methods for people with maladaptive behaviours, adaptive behaviours and those whose behaviours have been managed and restored to the point of earlier departure. In order to effectively meet the needs of these different groups, therapists are required to adopt the following methods:

1. Engage in constant research.
2. Establish the target behaviour to be acquired.
3. Development of treatment programme(s).
4. Utilization of the treatment package, and
5. Evaluation of the treatment programme(s).

Scientific procedures employed by professional therapists differentiate behaviour modification from traditional behaviour influence. In other words, behaviour modification sets a goal for itself and takes definite steps towards achieving its set objectives. At this point, we now move into the major methods used by psychologists in behaviour modification. This brings us to a concept of *behaviour therapy*.

## Behaviour Therapy

According to Colman (2003), behaviour therapy is a collection of psychotherapeutic techniques aimed at altering maladaptive or unwanted behaviour patterns, especially through the application of principles of conditioning and learning, the basic assumptions being that most forms of mental disorders can be interpreted as maladaptive patterns of behaviour; that these patterns result from learning processes. Appropriate treatment for these involve unlearning of the behaviour pattern

patterns and the learning of new ones.

Another name for *behaviour therapy* is *behaviour modification*. Behaviour modification is a concept that originated in United States of America. It is important at this point to explain the concept of "therapy."

According to Colman (2003), *Therapy* is any form of treatment for a disorder by a method other than surgery. A good example of this form of treatment is *psychotherapy*. We will explain what psychotherapy is as we go along.

## Behaviour Management
The goal of behaviour therapists is to assess factors that control human behaviours in order to modify them for the greater good. To enable therapists accomplish this objective, they must proceed in a specific manner, namely:

### Assess environmental contingencies that encourage a given behavioural problem(s)
This can be done through observations, interviews, use of checklists, rating scales and sociometric technique.

### Assess the target behaviour
This is the problem behaviour you want to change. Is the client confused, neurotic, psychotic, sick and quarrelling? What does he lack?

### Establishment of baseline
This is crucial to modern counseling. Baseline describes pre-treatment or pre-therapy and record observations that allow for later evaluation of treatment programme

### Indicate the desired behaviour you want to achieve
This could be stated in short term or long term basis.

## *Develop the treatment plan for handling the problem*

This plan should be related to the nature of the problem assessed. It should also be related to the therapist's preference, competence and comfort as well as the client's comfort. Thus, the development of a treatment plan should be original.

## *Evaluate the programme for efficiency*

The one question to ask at the end of the treatment is, "Have I reached my set goal?" Or ask the client how he/she feels now or check if there is deviation in the chart or seek comments from interested parties. Sometimes, a follow-up is necessary to see whether there is retention of gain or a lapse.

## BEHAVIOURS THAT COULD BE FOUND DURING ASSESSMENT

There are four types of behaviours that could be found during assessment. These are:

Deficit Behaviours

Cognitive - physiological Behaviour

Types of Behaviour that Could be Found during Assessment

Excess Behaviours
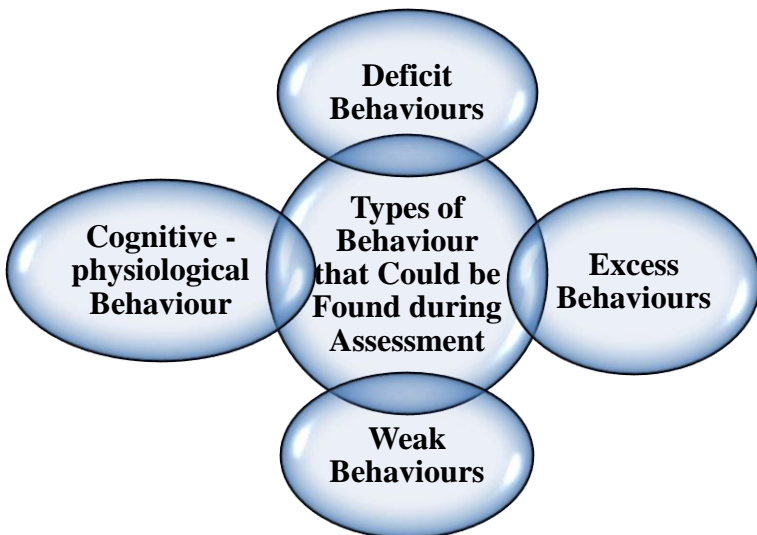
Weak Behaviours

## Deficit Behaviours

These are more or less absent behaviours, which do not appear in the baseline. This is the situation with mentally retarded children. In order to make them appear in the baseline and rise, something close to them should be used.

## Excess behaviours

These are behaviours that are above normal level:

1. Aggression for example would rise in the baseline.
2. Treatment should, therefore, aim at reducing it.

## Weak behaviours

Unlike *deficit behaviours*, these behaviours are present in the repertoire only that their manifestations are not only low, but unstable. Treatment should, therefore, aim at stabilizing them and make them rise to appreciable levels.

## *Cognitive-physiological behaviour*

Some clients may display these types of behaviours. Although they are health-related problems that may not be charitable, they are qualitative.

Whenever any of these behaviours is found in a client, there are possible ways of trying to manage them in order to restore them to the point of departure. However, since the first three types of behaviours are the most commonly manifested among clients, their management procedures shall be discussed below. The procedures are:

## Building Behavioural Capabilities

Deficit behaviours need to be acquired through building new behaviour capabilities. A number of methods can be used to acquire such absent behaviour anew. Such methods include: shaping, chaining, modeling, fading and prompting.
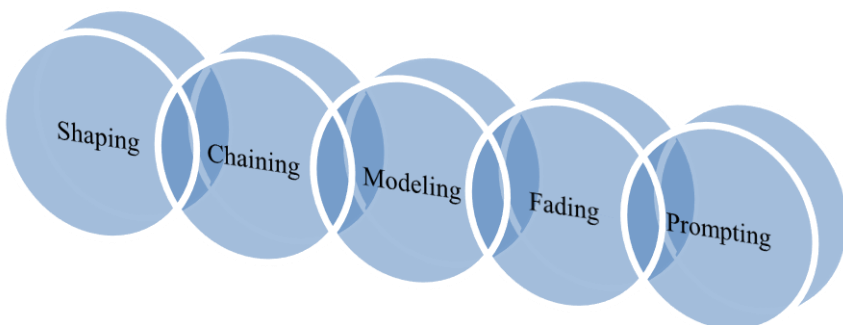
Let us learn more about these methods.

### Shaping
Since deficit behaviour means *absent behaviour*, the therapist has to differentiate aspects of existing behaviour in the client that closely approximate the desired behaviour. After such differentiation, it is then consistently, contingently, continuously and generously reinforced until the desired behaviour manifests. This process is called *shaping*.

### Chaining
Since behaviours are normally linked together, *behaviour chaining* involves shaping, stimulus control and operation of conditioned reinforcement.

### Modeling
This is the provision of a vicarious experience for a client to imitate.

### Prompting
This is the provision of signals (example, instructions, directions, advise, example, etcetera) aimed at enhancing the acquisition of behaviour.

### Fading
This is the gradual elimination of factors of behaviour.

## Increasing the frequency of weak behaviour

Sometimes the weak manifestation of behaviour adversely affects the client. When this is the case, what is needed to be done is to strengthen the weak manifested behaviour. The possible methods of doing this are *positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement* and *stimulus control*. A brief explanation of these concepts is important.

## Positive reinforcement

This is the process where a manifestation of a desired behaviour is promptly followed by a positive reinforcer in order to encourage the person to manifest such a behaviour again.

## Negative reinforcement

This is an eliminative process through which painful stimulus which blocks the emission of desirable behaviour are removed so that the client will be able to emit the required behaviour.

## Stimulus control

This is a process where specific cues or signals in an environment are initiated in order to increase desired behaviour.

## ELIMINATING EXCESS BEHAVIOUR

*Excess behaviours* means the manifestation of those behaviours that are socially unacceptable since their consequences entrap the client and makes him a social misfit. A kleptomaniac, for instance, is a social misfit who is manifesting a failing character or behaviour. Other failing behaviours include: depression, fear, delinquency, truancy, frustration, anxiety, etcetera. Unless these excess behaviours are eliminated in our society, we will continue to have social misfits around us. Among the suggested techniques with which we will be able to do so are *punishment* and *extinction*.

What is 'punishment' and 'extinction'? Below are explanations of these concepts.

## *Punishment*

Punishment as a means of eliminating undesirable behaviour does not mean the process of corporal punishment such as using rod (whip) or slapping. What is implied is the administration of aversive stimulus which results in a decrease of in the manifestation of the target behaviour. Akinboye (1992) opined that punishments are effective in controlling excess behaviour based on the following reasons:

1. They are contingently applied after the manifestation of excess behaviour.
2. Every episode of excess behaviour is punished.
3. Application is at a maximum intensity, and
4. The client is aware of the degree of aversive consequences.

## *Extinction*

This is mainly a disconnection of a prior link between a behaviour and its consequences. The effectiveness of extinction as a strategy of eliminating excess behaviour is sometimes enhanced when an individual is informed of the probability of losing reinforcers if he manifests excess behaviour. Another method of extinction as a process of behaviour management is to explore to the full the elimination of factors of behaviour.

## CONCLUSION

In this unit, you learnt the meaning of *behaviour therapy* or *behaviour modification*. For us to have a safe and peaceful

society, behavior modification is an essential service that must be rendered to clients who are in need of it.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, you also learnt the following:

1. Behaviour modification involves both maladaptive and adaptive behaviours.
2. Behaviour modification requires the use of scientific approach.
3. Behaviour therapy and behaviour modification are used interchangeably.
4. Psychotherapy is the process used by mental health professionals to help individuals in need of adjustments in their behaviours.
5. Behaviour therapists aim to assess factors controlling behaviours in order to modify them.
6. Behaviour capabilities could be built through shaping, chaining, modeling, prompting and fading.

## Review Questions

1. List and explain the process of assessing factors controlling human behaviour?
2. Discuss methods used by psychologists in behaviour modification?
3. Explain the processes involved in building behaviour capabilities?

# Chapter Five

# ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

## INTRODUCTION

The rules of work are different from the rules of play. The uniqueness of rules and the environment of organisations forces managers to study organisational behaviour to learn about normal and abnormal ranges of behaviour.

More specifically, organisational behaviour serves three purposes because it seeks to answer the questions:

1. What causes behaviour?
2. Why particular antecedents cause behaviour?
3. Which antecedents of behaviour can be controlled directly and which are beyond control?

A more specific and formal course in organisational behaviour helps an individual to develop a more refined and workable set of assumptions more directly relevant to his work interactions. Organisational behaviour helps in predicting human behaviour in an organizational setting by drawing a clear distinction between individual behaviour and group behaviour.

Organisational behaviour does not provide solution to all complex and multifarious behaviour puzzles of organisations. It is only by the intelligent judgement of a manager in dealing with a specific issue can he/she try to solve problems. Organisational behaviour only assists in making judgements that derive from tenable assumptions and judgement that takes into account what is important.

In a simple term, organisational behaviour refers to the behaviour of persons in an organisation. Everybody wants to understand others' behaviours. Understanding others behaviours helps in the management of external forces. The

analysis of these forces provides insights for understanding behaviours. Moreover, managers have been grappling with the idea of the channelisation of human energy towards the attainment of organisational goals. Understanding of human behaviours play very important roles in this endeavour as well. Thus, the study of organisational behaviour provides guidelines for influencing the behaviours of persons in an organisation.

In this chapter, you will learn the concept, genesis, needs and goals of organisational behaviour. You will be familiarized with approaches to organisational behaviour. You will further learn various perspectives of the study of organisational behaviour.
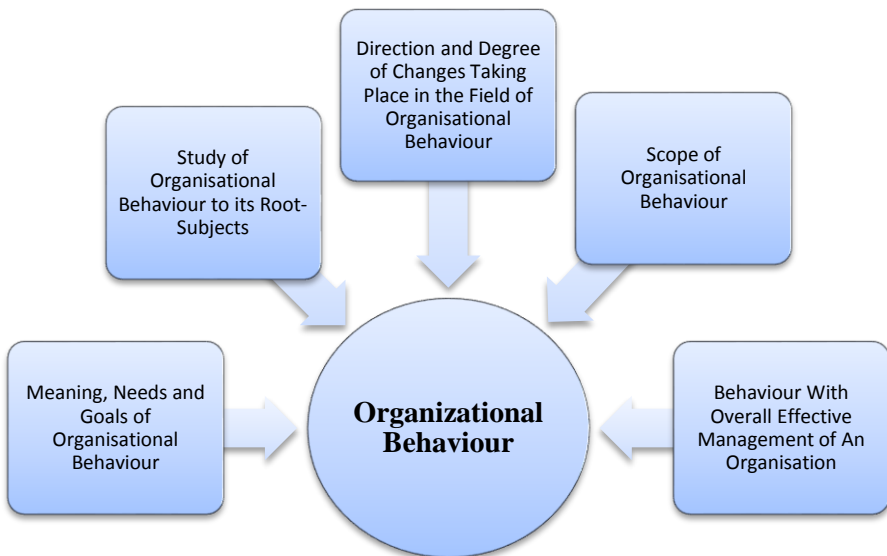


## Objectives

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

1. Discuss the meaning, needs and goals of organisational behaviour.

2. Correlate the study of organisational behaviour to its root-subjects.
3. Identify direction and degree of changes taking place in the field of organisational behaviour.
4. Explain scope of organisational behaviour in basically three dimensions: individual, group and organizational.
5. Integrate organisational behaviour with overall effective management of an organization.
6. Develop a sense of sequencing of various issues discussed in subsequent units in this course.

## CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

To understand the concept of organisational behaviour, let us first define the two terms involved: *organisation* and *behaviour*.

*Organisaiton* is a place where two or more people work in a structured way to achieve a specific goal or set of goals. Goals are fundamental elements of organisations. According to Ezeakor (2014), organisations are social interventions for accomplishing goals through group efforts. Various environmental forces influence organisations.

There are two types of environmental forces, viz: *direct* and *indirect*. Some of the main direct forces are: economic, technological, socio-cultural, political and international.

*Behaviour* is anything that the human beings do. Behaviour is a response to stimulation that can be observed, thus, it is any response or reaction of an individual. The basic unit of behaviour is activity. According to Luthans in Nwogbo (2017):

> *In understanding the variable, it is extremely important to separate actual behaviour events from the outcomes*

*of the events. Specific observable behavioural events and their patterns provide useful data in order to analyse the interaction, which precedes the behaviour and the consequences that follow a behaviour.*

Behaviour provides many helpful insights into understanding the complexities of people's behaviours on the job. Organisational Behaviour, therefore, is the study and applications of knowledge about how people act within organisations. The key elements in an organisation are: people, structure, technology and external environment in which the organisation operates. When people join together in an organisation to accomplish an objective, some kind of structure is required. People also use technology to get jobs done. So, there is an interaction of people, structure and technology (Ezeugbor, 2018).

In addition, these elements are influenced by an external environment, which influence them. According to Obi (2017):

*Organisational behaviour is an academic discipline concerned with understanding and describing human behaviour in an organisational environment. It seeks to shed light on the whole complex human factor in organisations by identifying causes and effects of that behaviour.*

According to Okechukwu (2019):
*Organisational behaviour is the systematic study of the nature of organisations: how they begin, grow and develop, and their effects on individual members, constituent groups, other organisations, and large institutions.*

According to Luthans:

*Organisational behaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour in organisations.*

According to Robbins:

*Organisational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within organisations for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving an organisation's effectiveness.*

Baron and Greenberg define organisational behaviour as:

*The field that seeks knowledge of behaviour in organisational settings by systematically studying individuals, groups and organisational processes.*

## NATURE AND SCOPE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

### *Interdisciplinary Approach*

Organisational behaviour integrates knowledge from various relevant disciplines.

### *An Applied Science*

Organisational behaviour is oriented towards understanding the forces that affect behaviour so that their effects may be predicted and guided towards effective functioning of organizations. This issue will be clearer to you after reading the section on *Goals of Organisational Behaviour* in this section.

### *Behavioural Approach to Management*

Organisational behaviour is directly connected to the human side of management, but it is not the whole of management. Organisational behaviour is related to the conceptual and

human dimensions of management.

### *Concerned With Environment*

Organisational behaviour is concerned with issues like compatibility with environment, example, person-culture fit, cross-cultural management, etcetera.

### *Scientific Method*

Organisational behaviour follows scientific methods and makes use of logical theory in its investigations and in answering research questions. It is an empirical, interpretive, critical and creative science.

### *Contingency Approach*

There are very few absolutes in organisational behaviour. This approach is directed towards developing managerial actions that are most appropriate for specific situations.

### *A Systems' Approach*

Organisational behaviour is a systematic vision as it takes into account all the variables affecting organisational functioning.

### *Value-Centred*

Organisational behaviour is a value-centred science.

### *Utilises Two Kinds of Logic*

It utilises both *objective* and *subjective* logics. Objectivity is concerned with reaching a fact through empirical analyses. Subjectivity is concerned with deciding about an issue through intuition, common sense, experiences, feeling, metaphors, learning from stories and cases; persuasive literature, etcetera. Organisational Behaviour focuses on five levels of analysis. These are: Individual behaviours, Environmental issues, Interpersonal behaviours, Organizational issues; Group behaviour and Group dynamics.

## GENESIS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Behavioural science or Organisational behaviour is not an elemental subject, rather, it is like a compound subject with integrated weaving of various disciplines. In modern terminology, organisational behaviour is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of human behaviour in organisations. The study of behaviour can be viewed in terms of various main disciplines. All disciplines have made important contributions to the field of Organisational Behaviour. These disciplines are:

## Psychology

Broadly speaking, Psychology is concerned with the study of human behaviour with traits of individuals and membership of small social groups. The main focus of Psychology is on the individual as a whole person. Organisational behaviour learns a great deal on issues like personality, perceptions, emotions, attitudes, learning, values, motivations, job satisfaction, etcetera from the field of Psychology.

## Sociology

Sociologists are more concerned with the study of social behaviours, relationships among social groups and societies as

well as the maintenance of order. The main focus of attention is on social system.

Organisational behaviour has developed by taking many issues from Sociology. Some of them are: group dynamics, communication, leadership, organisational structures, formal and informal organisations; organisational change and development, etcetera.

## Social Psychology
Social Psychology examines interpersonal behaviours. Social psychologists are concerned with intergroup collaborations, group decision-making, effects of change on individuals, individuals' responsiveness to change and integration of individual needs with group activities.

## Anthropology
Anthropologists are more concerned with the science of mankind and the study of human behaviour as a whole. Issues like individual culture, organisational culture, organisational environment, comparative values, comparative attitudes and cross-cultural analysis are common to the fields of Anthropology and organisational behaviour.

As far as organisational behaviour is concerned, one of the main issues demanding attention is cultural system, the beliefs, customs, ideas and values within a group or society, and the comparison of behaviour among different cultures. People learn to depend on their culture to give them security and stability. They can suffer adverse reactions to unfamiliar environments.

## Political Science
As a discipline, Political Science has many ingredients, which directly affect human behaviours in organisations since

politics dominates every organisation to some extent. Certain themes of interest directly related to organisational behaviour are power and politics; networking, political manipulation, conflict resolution, coalition and enhancement of self-interest.

## Economics
Economic environment influences organisational climates. Organisational behaviour has learned a great deal from such economic factors as labour market dynamics, cost-benefit analysis, marginal utility analysis, human resource planning, forecasting and decision-making.

## Engineering
Industrially, Engineering has contributed a great deal in the area of man-machine relationship through time and motion study; work measurement, workflow analysis, job design and compensation management. Each of these areas has some impact on organisational behaviours.

## Medicine
Issues like work-related stress, tension and depression are common to organisational behaviour.

## Semantics
Semantics helps in the study of communications within an organisation. Misunderstood communication and lack of communication lead to many behaviour-related problems in organisations. Accordingly, adequate and effective communication is important for organisational effectiveness.

## NEEDS FOR THE STUDY OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
A study of organisational behaviour is beneficial in many ways. Some of the benefits of studying organisational behaviour are:

1. It helps an individual to understand himself. It is a systematic study of the actions and attitudes that people exhibit within organisations.
2. It helps managers to ensure that jobs are done effectively.
3. It emphasises the interactions and relations between an organisation and individuals' behaviours, thus making an attempt to fulfill psychological contracts between individuals and organisations they work for.
4. It helps to develop work-related behaviour and job satisfaction.
5. It helps in building motivating climates.
6. It helps in building cordial industrial relations.
7. It helps in the field of marketing through deeper insights of consumer behaviour as well as managing and motivating field employees.
8. It helps in predicting behaviours and applying same in some meaningful ways to make organisations more effective.
9. It implies effective management of human resources.
10. It helps to improve functional behaviours leading to productivity, effectiveness, efficiency and organisational citizenship. It also helps to reduce dysfunctional behaviour at workplaces like absenteeism, employee turnover, dissatisfaction, tardiness, etcetera.

The study of *Organisational Behaviour* can be said to be most important contributor towards building managerial skills. After this study, you would come to appreciate how the study of *Organisational Behaviour* has led towards the building of the following skills:

- Self development.
- Personality development.
- Development of human values and ethical perspective.

- Managing stress and achieving mental hygiene.
- Creative use of emotions.
- Creating learning individuals and learning organizations.
- Managing creativity and innovation.
- Motivation and morale.
- Job satisfaction.
- Effective communication.

*Organisational Behaviour* has also impacted positively on Interpersonal effectiveness. These include:

- Persuasion.
- Coaching.
- Counselling.
- Mentoring.
- Goal setting.
- Decision-making.
- Politicking.
- Negotiation.
- Conflict handling.
- Team building.
- Leadership.
- Creating effective organisational culture.
- Managing change.
- Continuous development through behavioural interventions.

  (To help you appreciate the import of the last butted point, you are encouraged to meet a training manager who works with in an organization and is responsible for providing behavioural training to executives. Discuss two issues with him/her, namely:

a. What are the five behavioural issues on which training programmes have been arranged for employees during the past one year?
b. In his/her opinion, how did these training programmes help employees to acquire human skills?

## GOALS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The field of organisational behaviour faces a special challenge. In the areas of Physical Sciences, Accounting, Mathematics, etcetera, if you do not know a concept, you would not claim that you have accumulated experience. It may appear that you know it, but in this long drawn conclusion, you may be far away from the fact. For example, it appears that high job satisfaction would necessarily lead to high organisational commitment, but most of the studies have shown that this is not usually true.

One of the objectives of *Organisational Behaviour* as a course is to help replace popularly held notions which were accepted without question. Since 1950s till date, hundreds of thousands of research studies have been carried out on various aspects of organisational behaviour. Several hundreds of research studies still continue to investigate these.

Organisational behaviour seeks to test theories through scientific research processes. Once a theory has been formulated, predictions derived from it are tested through direct research. If these are confirmed, confidence in the theories is increased. If they are not confirmed, confidence is diminished. At this point, the theory is either modified and retested or completely rejected. Theory-building and empirical research co-exist and reinforce each other. A good

theory has to be of practical use and empirical validation would confirm this. Likewise, a good empirical research should have its foundation in a viable theory and should add to the body of existing knowledge.

The main goal of organisational behaviour is to understand behaviours. In view of this, fundamental questions are asked to be able to reach informed decisions:

- Which variables are important?
- How strong are they?
- How do they interrelate in predicting behaviour?
- What patterns of behaviour are present?
- What are the cause-and-effect of relationships in controlling behaviours?
- What solutions are possible?
- Which variables can be influenced?
- How can they be influenced?

## TRADITIONAL AND NEW APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The study of human behaviour as part of general management can be traced back to 4,000 B.C. when Egyptian pyramids were built. It can also be traced to the dawn of mankind when people hunted in groups and protected their families and communities against hostile environments and forces. However, for the purpose of this study, we need to take a look at how *Organisational Behaviour* developed in the course of the last two hundred years:

### *Scientific Management Theories and the School*

These were developed by Frederick W. Taylor, H. L. Gnatt, Franker and Lillian Gilberth.

## Classical Organisation Theory School
It was developed by Henri Fayol, Max Weber, Mary Parker Follet and Chester Barnard.

## Human Relations School
The Human Relations School was developed by Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, James March and Herbert Simon.

## The Systems Approach
Early contributors to *Systems Approach* include Ludwing Von Bertalanfty, Lawrence J. Henderson, W. G. Scott, Deniel Katz, Robert L. Kahn, W. Buckley and J. D. Thompson.

## The Contingency Approach
The *Contingency Approach* also known as *Situational Approach* holds that there is no single rule for the best way to manage an organization. Fred Fiedler, an organizational psychologist who taught at the University of Illinois, USA developed the Theory, which suggests that leaders' effectiveness depends on the interactions between leadership style and situations.

## Contemporary Approach
After studying the historical development of organisational theories, you might have noticed that with passage of time, the following issues occurred:

- Human factors have became more important successively.
- Focus has shifted from individual performances to both individual as well as group (team) performances.
- Emphasis given to actualizing human potentials.
- Emphasis on developing managerial and human skills on continuous basis.
- Emphasis on human relationships and informal organisations.

- Emphasis on creating synergy through teamwork.
- Treating employees with more dignity and as wholesome individuals.
- Increasing awareness of the importance of environmental factors and their influences on organisations.
- Importance of psychological contracts between individuals and organisations.
- Increasing concern for people in organisations.
- Continuous efforts to establish effective organisational cultures and climates.

Robert Baron posits that there are four major features of modern organisational behaviours:
- Adoption of a somewhat more positive view of human beings in work settings than what had obtained in the past.
- By drawing on several related fields, modern organizational behaviours have attained certain degrees of sophistication about human behaviours.
- Adoption of contingency approach to behaviour analysis in organisations. This is done by assuming that there is no permanent way of arriving effectively at solutions.
- By being integrative, it seeks to comprehend behaviour in organisations by combining pieces of information from several levels of analysis.

Apart from the above, modern organisational behaviour is concerned with issues like: managing intelligence quotients, emotional quotients, and spiritual quotients; improving mental hygiene and overall health of staff, continuous improvement of skills and values through training, managing ethical practices, fulfilling psychological contracts between individuals and organisations; quests for quality behavioural interventions in mergers and acquisitions as well as in

rightsizing, cross-cultural management as well as managing multinational organisations, etcetera.

According to modern thoughts on *organisational behaviour*, it is necessary to understand the interrelationships between human behaviour and other variables, which make-up an organisation. These variables provide parameters within which a number of interrelated dimensions can be identified – individuals, groups, organisations and environment. These collectively influence behaviours in work organisations.

## INDIVIDUAL PERSPECTIVES

*Organisational Behaviour* deals with individual behaviours in organisations apart from dealing with groups behaviours in organisations. As this study continues, you will be exposed to individual perspectives in organisational behaviours. However, there is need to find answers to the following:

### *Why study individual perspectives in organisational behaviour?*

An organisation is as good as its people. For organisations to continuously grow, there is need for individual members to grow using these measures:

- Continuous learning.
- Creating right perceptions.
- Building positive attitudes and values.
- Having personality and emotional compatibilities in workplaces.
- Maintaining stress-free individuals and environments.
- Keeping individuals and teams motivated and providing job satisfaction.

These are discussed individually below:

## *Continuous learning*

There are many ways through which an individual learns. Learning is any permanent change in behaviour, or behaviour potential, resulting from experience. In order to be effective, organisations need to promote functional behaviours and to discourage behaviours that are detrimental to their effective management and operations. The ways learning take place and the methods through which learning can be converted to desirable behaviour are explained below:

### *Creates right perceptions*

Perception is the process through which we select, organise and interpret inputs from our sensory receptors such as our five senses (sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch) are continuously gathering information from our surroundings. It is our perceptions, which give meanings to various combinations of information that we gather.

As a professional discipline, organisational behaviour helps us to create right perceptions, which is key for working effectively with people.

### *Builds positive attitudes and values*

Attitudes are lasting evaluations of people, groups, objects or issues – in fact, of virtually any aspect of the social or physical world. Positive attitudes are important ingredient of effective relationships. Values are the basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or adverse mode of conduct or end-state of values in organisational behaviour.

*Ensures personality and emotional compatibilities in workplaces*

Personality is an individual's unique and relatively stable patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feelings. There is need for organisations to create a right combination of persons and jobs so that individuals' potentials can be fully utilised. Personalities can be developed to fit specific work requirements.

By its nature, emotions are reactive responses to situations and circumstances. They consist of subjective cognitive states, physiological reactions, and expressive behaviours.

Cognition is the mental activities associated with thoughts, knowledge and memory. When people understand their various emotions, it would go a long way to help towards personal developments of individuals.

*Maintaining stress-free individuals and environments*

Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important. With growing competitiveness in workplaces, achieving excellence and success have become tougher. Stress is the result of discomfortd a person experiences in workplaces. With proper education, organizations would be able to create and maintain stress-free work environments.

*Keeping individuals and teams motivated as well as providing job satisfaction*

Motivation is, perhaps, the most important intangible resource of organisations. Motivation is an inferred internal process that

activates, guides and maintains acceptable and productive behaviours over time.

Job satisfaction is a general positive attitude people have towards their jobs. It also depends on the differences between the amount of rewards they receive and the amount they believe they should receive.

## SMALL AND LARGE GROUP PERSPECTIVES

In an organisation, an individual does not exist alone. Plurality of people is the essential ingredient of an organisation. An organisation makes continuous effort to create synergy in the group or team in order to make teams more productive and effective. Some of the important measures that organisational behaviour suggests at group level interventions are:

1. Group formation and structure.
2. Communication.
3. Conflict management.
4. Team building and leadership.
5. Power and politics.

### *Group Formation and Structure*

Group explains the situation where two or more individuals interact and are dependent on each other or one another as they work together to achieve particular objectives. It deals with issues such as: how groups are formed and develop; when groups become more effective, understanding group dynamics as well as how group decisions are taken.

### *Communication*

By definition, communication is meaning exchange. Succinctly stated, communication deals with transference and understanding of meaning. Organisations make efforts through formal structures as well as through informal

interactions to establish effective communication systems within and outside their organisations.

Establishing effective communication climate through right attitudes and modern technologies will be the subject of subsequent sections of this chapter.

## *Conflict Management*

Conflict is a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect something that the first party cares about. Conflict may arise at various levels such as within a person (intrapersonal) and between two persons (interpersonal); intradepartmental, interdepartmental and inter-organisational levels, etcetera.

Conflict is not necessarily bad as it promotes differences of opinions, which may help in improving quality of decisions. Skillful managers make creative use of conflicts by turning challenges into opportunities.

## *Team-Building and Leadership*

These two are highly sought after issues in organisational behaviour. Team-building leads to high interactions among team members to increase trust and openness. For team-building, effective leadership styles are required. Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals. As Bernard Montgomery affirmed:

> *"Leadership is the capacity and will to rally men and women to a common purpose and the character that inspires them."*

## *Power and Politics*

Some amount of pushes and pulls are inevitable where more than two persons exist. Individuals tend to exercise powers to influence the behaviours of others so that they would act in accordance with their wishes.

Political behaviours deal with use of informal networking to make an attempt to influence others. When others are influenced for narrow gains, politics is dysfunctional, but when influence is used to achieve a group's overall larger interests, political behaviour is functional and desirable.

## ORGANISATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

*Organisational perspective* of organisational behaviour deals with larger issues in organisations. Such issues influence an organisation in broader ways. Organisational perspective deals with the following issues:

Organisational culture and climate

Organisational development

Organisational change
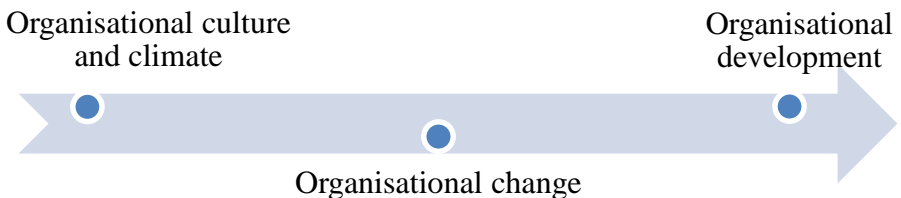
## *Organisational culture and climate*

Organisational culture explains a common perception held by members of an organisation. It depicts a system of shared meaning. A sound culture leads to conducive organisational climate. For long-term effectiveness, organisations need to investigate into the need to take measures for improving organisational climates and cultures.

Like humans, organisations are dynamic. In subsequent chapters, you will learn about strategies to implement change management in building effective organisations.

## *Organisational development*

Organisational development explains collections of planned-change interventions built on humanistic-democratic values that seek to improve organisational effectiveness and employee well-being. Such interventions may be applied at individual levels, group levels as well as organisational levels.

## INTEGRATIVE PERSPECTIVE

As individuals do not exist in isolation, so also do organisations. There are constant influx of environmental impacts on organisations, which in turn stimulate behaviour patterns within organisations. Organisational boundaries are becoming more transparent than fragile.

Organisations are required to focus on many emerging issues such as:

- Continuous improvement of people and processes.
- Integrating human factors with grand organizational objectives.
- More emphasis on quality of products, services and processes.
- Restructuring to suit organizational service requirements, taskforce teams as well as in cases of rightsizing, mergers and acquisitions.
- Managing diversities.
- Product/service innovation.
- Managing creativity and innovations.
- Cross-cultural management.
- Managing multinationals.

## CONCLUSION

Organisational behaviour deals with the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviours in an organisation. It is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of human behaviour.

The study of behaviour is as important as the study of mainline disciplines like Psychology, Sociology, Social Psychology, Anthropology, Political Science, Economics, Engineering, Medicine, Semantics, etcetera.

The study of organisational behaviour helps to improve functional behaviours, which leads to productivity, effectiveness, efficiency and organisational citizenship. At the same time, it also helps to reduce dysfunctional behaviours in workplaces like absenteeism, employee turnover, dissatisfaction, tardiness, etcetera. The study of organisational behaviour is the most important contributor towards building managerial skills.

The major goals of organisational behaviour are:
1. understanding behaviour.
2. predicting behaviour
3. controlling behaviour.

Basically, *organisational behaviour* deals with behaviours at individual, group and organisational levels. However, one more dimension has been added to it, namely, *Integrative Perspective* because studies on impacts of environmental factors on behaviours of organisations are becoming more pronounced.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, you learnt the following:
1. Concept of organisational behaviour.

2. Genesis of organisational behaviour.
3. Needs for the study of organisational behaviour.
4. Goals of organisational behaviour.
5. Traditional and new approaches to organisational behaviours.
6. Individual perspective.
7. Small and large group perspectives.
8. Organisational perspective.
9. Integrative perspective.

## Review Questions
1. What do you understand by the term, "*Organisational Behaviour*"?
2. Explain the meaning and scope of "*Organisational Behaviour.*"
3. How has the study of organisational behaviour integrated concepts from various fields of knowledge?
4. Explain the following:
   a. Individual perspective.
   b. Group perspective
   c. Organizational perspective.
   d. Integrative perspective of organisational behaviour.
5. How do scholars' views relate to managing human factor change along with changes in concepts of management?
6. What is your understanding of *"Flow of sequence of various issues in the subject of Organisational Behaviour?"*
7. How is the study of organisational behaviour beneficial for making an organisation effective?
8. How have approaches to organisational behaviours matured over time?
9. What is *Organisational Behaviour*?

10. How can the study of organisational behaviour lead to managerial effectiveness?
11. Why is "*Organisational Behaviour* called an "*Interdisciplinary Field of Study*"?

# Chapter Six

# ORGANIZATIONAL MODELS

## ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR SYSTEM

Organisations achieve their goals by creating, communicating and operating an *organisational behaviour system* as shown below:
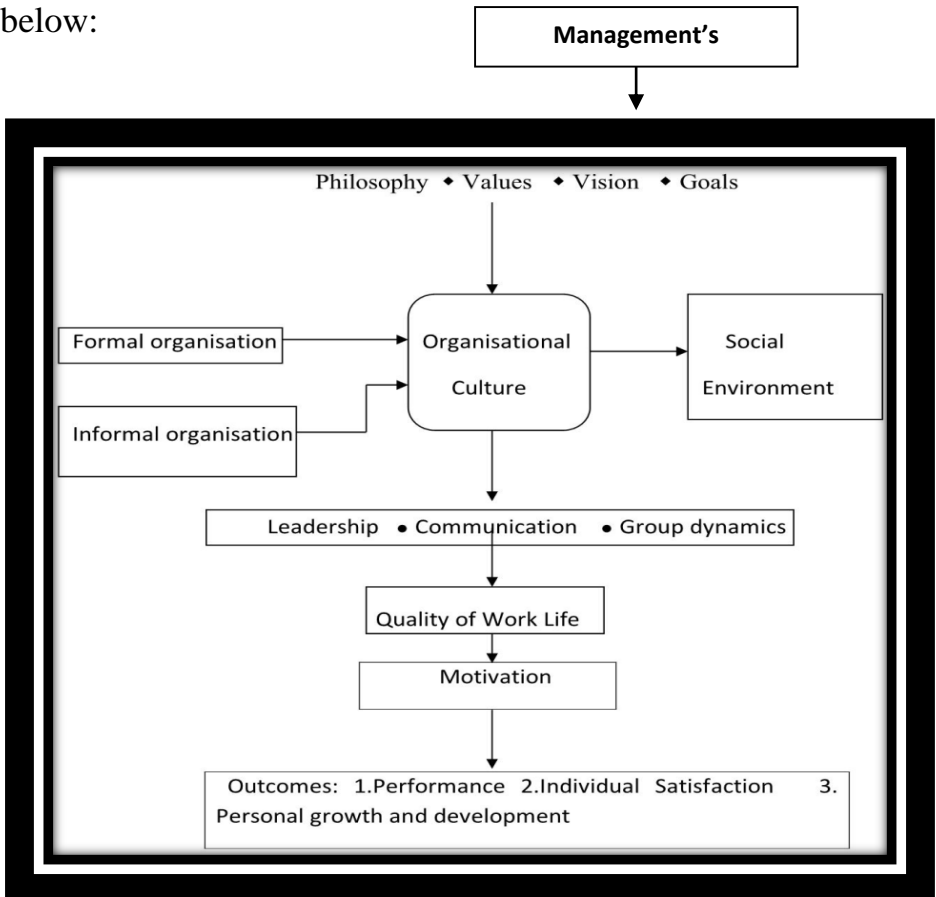


Major elements of a good organisational behaviour system are given in the chart above. These systems exist in every organisation, but sometimes in varying forms. They have

greater chances of being successful, that is, if they have been consciously created, regularly examined and updated to meet emerging conditions.

The primary advantage of organisational behaviour system is to identify the major human and organisational variables that affect the results they are trying to achieve. For some of these variables, managers can only be aware of them and acknowledge their impacts because they can exert some measures of control over them. The end results are typically measured in various forms of performances (quantity and quality of products and services; levels of customer service), as well as in human outcomes such as employee satisfaction, personal growth and development.

## ELEMENTS OF THE SYSTEM
The system's base rests in the fundamental beliefs and intentions of those who join together to create it (such as owners) and of managers who currently administer it. The philosophy (model) of organizational behaviour held by management consists of an integrated set of assumptions and beliefs about the way things are, the purpose of these activities, and the way they should be. These philosophies are sometimes explicit, and occasionally implicit in the minds of managers.

Organizations differ in the quality of organisational behaviour that they develop. These differences are substantially caused by different models of organisational behaviour that dominate management's thoughts in each organisation. The model that a manager holds usually begins with certain assumptions about people and leads to certain interpretations of events.

The following four models of organizational behaviour are discussed here:



- Autocratic model
- Custodial model
- Supportive model; and
- Collegial model
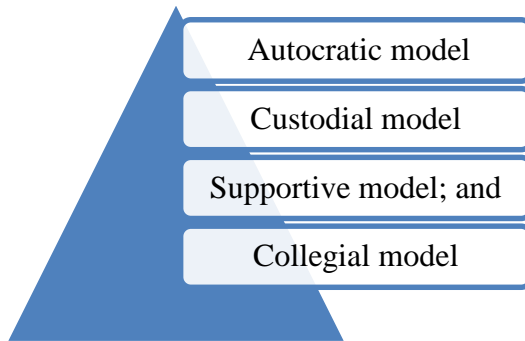
## Autocratic Model

In the *autocratic model*, the manager must have the power to command workers to do specific jobs. Management believes that it knows what is best while employees' obligations are to follow and obey orders. The psychological result for employees is dependence on their bosses. It does get results, but usually only moderate results. Its main weakness is its high human cost.

## Custodial Model

This model focuses on better employee satisfaction and security. Organisations seek to satisfy the security and welfare needs of employees, hence, it is known as *custodial model*. This model leads to employee dependence on the organisation rather than on the boss. As a result of economic rewards and benefits, employees are happy and contented, but they are not strongly motivated.

## Supportive Model

The *supportive model* depends on 'leadership' instead of power or money. Through leadership, management provides a climate to help employees grow and accomplish their career

goals in the interests of the organisations they work for. This model assumes that employees will take responsibility, develop a drive to contribute and improve themselves if management will give them chance to do so. Management orientation, therefore is, to 'support' employees' job performances rather than simply supporting employees' benefit payments as in the custodial approach. Since management supports employees in their work, the psychological result is a feeling of participation and task involvement in the organisations they work for.

## Collegial Model

The term, *'Collegial'* relates to a body of persons having a common purpose. It is a team concept. Management is the coach that builds a better team. Management is seen as *joint contributor* rather than as *boss*. The employee response to this situation is responsibility. The psychological result of collegial approach for employees is *'self-discipline.'* In this kind of environment, employees normally feel some degree of fulfillment, worthwhile contribution and self-actualization. This self-actualization will lead to moderate enthusiasm in performance.

# Four Models of Organizational Behavior

|  | Autocratic | Custodial | Supportive | Collegial |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Basic of Model** | Power | Economic resources | Leadership | Partnership |
| **Managerial Orientation** | Authority | Money | Support | Teamwork |
| **Employee Orientation** | Obedience | Security and Benefits | Job performance | Responsible behavior |

| **Employee psychological result** | Dependence on boss | Dependence on management | Participation | Self-discipline |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Employee needs met** | Subsistence | Security | Status recognition | Self-actualization |
| **Performance result** | Minimum | Passive cooperation | Awakened drive | Moderate enthusiasm |

It is wrong to assume that one particular model is the best model because what is best is contingent on what is known about human behaviour in a particular environment. The primary challenge for management is to identify the model it is actually using and then assess its current effectiveness.

The selection of rnodel by a manager is determined by a number of factors. The prevailing philosophy, vision and goals of managers affect their organisational behaviour model. In addition, environmental conditions help to determine which model will be most effective. The current turbulent conditions in some industries, for example, may drive firms towards the more collegial models since rapid decision-making and flexibility are needed. This suggests that one's model should not be static, but dynamic.

## GLOBAL SCENARIO OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
## Social Conditions

Due to poorly developed resources, in many countries there are shortage of managerial personnel, scientists and technicians, hence, needed skills must be temporarily imported from other countries, and training programmes need to be developed to prepare local workers. The training multiplier effect is in action by which skilled people develop

others. In view of this, these trained locals become the nucleus for developing more skilled workers.

Another significant social condition in many countries is that local cultures are not familiar with advanced technologies. Some countries are agriculture-dominated while a few others are manufacturing industry-dominated. Naturally, the nature of their cultures and work life are different.

## Political Conditions

Political conditions that have significant effects on organisational behaviours include instability of Government, nationalistic drives and subordination of employers and labour to an authoritarian State. When Government is unstable, organisations become cautious about further investments. These organisational instabilities leave workers insecure and cause them to be passive and low in initiatives.

Inspite of instabilities, a nationalistic drive is strong for locals to man their countries and their organisations by themselves without interference by foreign nationals.

In some nations, organised labour is mostly an arm of the authoritarian State and in some other nations, labour is somewhat independent. In some nations, States tend to be involved in collective bargaining and other practices affecting workers. For example, in some nations employee lay-offs are restricted by law while in some other countries workers' participations in management is permitted.

## Economic Conditions

The most significant economic conditions in less developed nations are low per capita income and rapid inflation. Inflation makes the economic life of workers insecure when compared to developed countries.

Different socio-economic and political conditions prevailing in countries influence the introduction of advanced technologies and sophisticated organisational systems. A developed country can easily adopt advanced technologies whereas a less developed country cannot. These limiting conditions cannot be changed easily because they are too well established and woven into the whole social fabric of a nation.

## Managing an International Workforce

Whenever an organisation expands its operations to other countries, it tends to become multicultural and will then face the challenge of blending various cultures together. The managerial personnel entering another nation need to adjust their leadership styles, communication patterns and other practices to fit their host countries. Their role is to provide a fusion of cultures in which employees from both countries adjust to the new situation of seeking greater productivity for the benefits of both organisations and people of the countries in which they operate.

## Barriers to Cultural Adaptation

One category of managers and other employees who come into a host country tend to exhibit a variety of behaviours and somewhat see situations around them from their own perspectives. They may fail to recognize key differences between their own and other cultures. These people are called '*parochial*.'

Another category is called 'individualistic.' They place great emphasis on their personal needs and welfare. They are more concerned about themselves than about others in their host countries.

Another potential barrier to easy adaptation to another culture occurs when people are predisposed to believe that their homeland conditions are the best. This predisposition is known as *self-reference criterion* or *'ethnocentrism.'* This feeling interferes with understanding human behaviour in other cultures and obtaining productivity from local employees.

## Cultural Distance

To decide the amount of adaptation that may be required when personnel move to other countries, it is helpful to understand the *cultural distance* between countries involved. Cultural distance is the amount of distance between any two social systems. Whatever the amount of cultural distance, it does affect the responses of all persons to business. The managers' jobs require employees to be adaptable enough to integrate the interests of the two or more cultures involved.

## Cultural Shock

When employees enter another nation, they tend to suffer cultural shocks, which is insecurity and disorientations caused by encountering a different culture. They may not know how to act, may fear losing face and self-confidence or may become emotionally upset. Cultural shock is virtually universal. Some of the more frequent reasons for cultural shock are:

## *Different management philosophies*

- New language.
- Alternative food, dress and availability of goods.
- Attitudes toward work and productivity.
- Separation from family, friends and colleagues.
- Unique currency system.

Many expatriates report difficulty in adjusting to different human resource management philosophies, languages, different currencies and work attitudes in other cultures.

## *Overcoming barriers to cultural adaptation*

Careful selection of employees for assignments to other countries who can withstand/adjust cultural shocks is important. Pre-departure training in geography, customs, cultures and political environment in which employees will be living will help for cultural adaptation.

Incentives and guarantees for better position will motivate employees for cultural adaptation in their new countries.

Employees who return to their home countries after working in other nations for sometime tend to suffer cultural shock in their own homelands. After adjusting to the culture of other nations and enjoying their uniqueness, it is difficult for expatriates to readjust to the surroundings of their home countries, hence, organisations need repatriation policies and programmes to help returning employees obtain suitable assignments and adjust to 'new' environments.

## Cultural Contingencies

Productive business practices from one country cannot be transferred directly to another country. This reflects the idea of cultural contingency - that the most productive practices for a particular nation will depend heavily on her culture, social system, economic development and employees' values in host countries, hence, expatriate managers must learn to operate effectively in a new environment with certain amount of flexibility.

Labour policy, personnel practices and production methods need to be adapted to a different labour force. Organisational

structures and communication patterns need to be suitable for local operations.

## Management's integrating role

Once managers are on locations in their host countries, their attention needs to be directed toward integrating the technological approaches with the local cultures involved.

## Motivating and leading local employees

Same motivational tools may not suit the employees of all nations, hence, appropriate motivational techniques need to be evolved depending on the requirements of employees of that particular nation.

Similarly, communication problems may also arise between an expatriate manager and employees of his/her host country, hence, managers need to make adjustments in their communication suited to local cultures. If a local culture is ignored, the resulting imbalance in social system will interfere with productivity. Eventually, a cadre of employees with cross-cultural adaptability can be developed in organisations with large international operations. These employees are 'transcultural' employees because they operate effectively in several cultures. They are low in ethnocentrism and adapt readily to different cultures without major cultural shock. Usually, they can communicate fluently in more than one language.

Transcultural employees are especially needed in large, multinational firms that operate in a variety of national culture. For a firm to be truely multi-national in character, it should have ownership, operations, markets and managers truly diversified. Its leaders look to the world as an economic and social unit, but they recognise each local culture, respect its

integrity, acknowledge its benefits and use its differences effectively in their organisations.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, we learnt the following:
- Organizational models.
- How organisations achieve their goals by creating, communicating and operating an organisational behaviour system.
- Elements of a system.
- Global Scenario of organizational behaviour, cultural shock and others.

## Review Questions

1. Mention four models of *Organizational Behaviour.*
2. Discuss the *Global Scenario of Organizational Behaviour.*
3. What has culture to do with organizational behaviour?

# Chapter Seven

# HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we will review the *Various Models of Human Behaviour* and seek to develop a model for *Organisational Behaviour*. Particular attention will be given to the Psychoanalytic, Existentialistic, Cognitive and Behaviourist models.
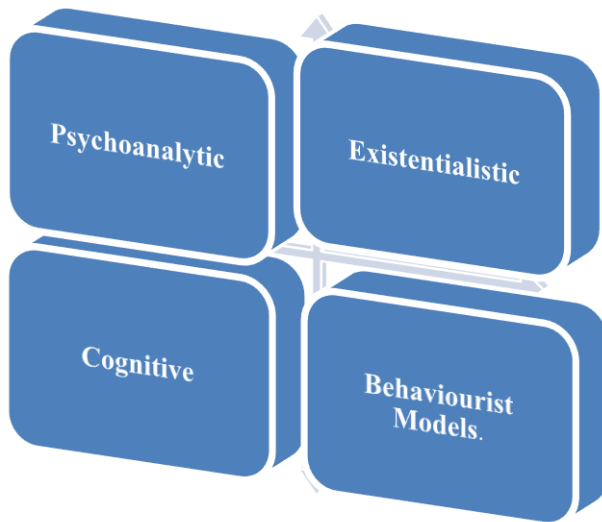


## OBJECTIVES

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

1. State and discuss the various *Models of Human Behaviour.*
2. Discuss *Freudian Psychoanalytic.*
3. Explain *Existentialistic human behaviour.*
4. Describe *cognitive and behaviourist* models.

# CONCEPT OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Before discussing human behaviour, it is pertinent to ask the following questions. This is important because it will give learners a better understanding of issues. The questions, therefore, are:

- What separates humans from animals and other objects in the universe?
- What are people really like?
- What is the true nature of humans?

From the beginning of human civilization, people have asked these questions and issues around them have been hotly debated. Philosophers, politicians, scientists, managers and orinary people on the street have asked and still are preoccupied with these questions.

## Are People Good or Evil, Rational or Irrational, Free or Determined?

The true nature of human behaviour is largely undefined and still open for discussions and research.

## Is Nothing Known About Human Behaviour?

Whether scholar or lay person, everyone has had abundant experience in living and dealing with, reading about and observing fellow human beings. People have definite opinions about common-sense approaches to human behaviours. When properly understood and evaluated, people will be able to appreciate the overall nature of human behaviours. Human behaviour models serve as important background information for developing a specific model for organisational behaviour.

## FREUDIAN PSYCHOANALYTIC MODEL

The Freudian approach relies on a *psychoanalytic* or *conflict model of humans*. The concept of people being in constant

inner conflict is one of the oldest explanations. The *conflict model* portrayed primitive - constant inner struggles between good and evil. Good (angels) and evil (devils) were believed to be competing for the domination of bodies and souls of humans. Under this model, individuals are merely innocent by standards while the situations completely overwhelms them. Obviously, the primitive *good-evil conflict model* cannot be substantiated scientifically.

A meaningful, comprehensive and systematically-based *conflict model* stems from the theories of Sigmund Freud. These theories can be summarised into what can be called the *Psychoanalytic model*. Although, Freud is most closely associated with this model, others such as Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Karen Honey and Eric Erom made additional contributions and extended the model. Clinical techniques were primarily used to develop this *Psychoanalytic Model*. Through clinical techniques of free association and psychotherapy, Freud noted that his patients' behaviours could not always be consciously explained. This clinical finding led him to conclude that the major motivating force in humans is unconscious in nature. The personality structure can be explained within the unconscious framework. Freud's belief was that of three interrelated, but often conflicting psychoanalytic concepts, namely, the *ID, Ego* and *Super Ego*.

## The ID

The ID is the core of the unconscious. It is the unleashed, raw, primitive, instinctual drive of the Freudian model. The ID, constantly struggling for gratification and pleasure is manifested mainly through libido (sexual urges) or aggression. The libido strives for sexual relations and pleasure, but also for warmth, food and comfort. Aggressive impulses of the ID are that ID incorporates life instincts that compete with its

death instincts. As individuals develop and mature, they learn to control the ID, but even then, it remains a driving force throughout life and an important source of thinking and behaving.

## The Ego

Whereas the ID represents the unconscious, the *Ego* is the conscious. It is the logical part of the Freudian model and is associated with the *reality principle*. The Ego keeps the ID in check through the reality of the external environment. The Ego is constituted so that it can interpret reality for the ID through intellect and reason.

Instrumental behaviours such as dating or looking for food are developed by the Ego to satisfy the needs of the ID. However, many conflict situations arise between the ID and the Ego because the ID demands immediate pleasure while the Ego dictates denial or postponement to a most appropriate time and place. In order to resolve the conflict, the Ego gets support from the Superego.

## The Super Ego

As the conscience, the Superego provides the norms that enable the Ego to determine what is right or wrong. Absorption of the cultural values and morals of a society develop from the conscience. Accordingly, parents have the most influence on the development of the Superego. The Superego aids a person by assisting the Ego to combat the impulses of the ID. However, in some situations, the Superego can also be in conflict with the Ego. An example is the situation where Ego and Superego causes this to be considered a conflict model of behaviour.

# FREUDIAN MODEL IN PERSPECTIVE

Freud's model is characterised by conflicting personality constructs (ID, Ego, Superego) and unconscious motivation. Psychological adjustments occur only when the Ego properly develops to resolve conflicts stemming from ID and Superego. The Ego concept implies that humans are rational, but the ID, the Superego and unconscious motivation give the impression that humans are very irrational.

In the Freudian model, behaviour is based on emotion. If a person cannot control his ID, he/she is an aggressive, pleasure-seeking menace to society. On the other hand, if the ID is abnormal sex life, the person becomes extremely passive (frigid). Moreover, if the Superego is very strong, the result may be acute anxiety and guilt.

Criticisms of Freudian model are not based on empirical verifiable facts because the psychoanalytic elements are largely hypothetical constructs. They are not measurable, observable items for scientific analysis and verification.

# EXISTENTIALISTIC MODEL

Broadly defined, *Existentialism* is the search for meaning. It is based on the analysis of existence and being. The *Existentialistic Model* is not a behavioural science. Its root lies more in the realm of philosophy and literature and not scientifically based. Among philosophers with an existentialist orientation are Martin Heidegger, Martin Huber and Jean-Paul Satre. The best known American spokesman was Rollo May. Mayland Satre, in particular had been critical of the scientific approaches that are employed to gain an understanding of humans. They are afraid that a scientific behavioural analysis may destroy or lose sight of a person's true nature or being.

Existentialists see a breakdown of traditional norms and ties that individuals have traditionally had with society. For example, Oku and Mmadu (2017) view people as suffering from unconstructive anxiety. They define *unconstructive* or *neurotic anxiety* as the-stringing of consciousness and the blocking off of awareness. When prolonged, it leads to a feeling of depersonalization and apathy, which is the state, to a greater or lesser degree, of most who have lost, or never achieved the experience of their own identity of the world.

In modern times, the individual is faced with a very large, urbanized environment. Existentialists believe that depersonalizing effects of this environment force individuals to determine their own destinies. People shape their own identities and make their existence meaningful and worthwhile to themselves. This process is accomplished through individuals' experience of being. In Coleman's views, this being, as a matter of commitment to increased self-awareness and self-direction to true communication with others, he/she is concerned with values and evaluations to accept the responsibility for making choices and directing his own destiny.

The emphasis attached to self-awareness and action in the *existential scheme* is different from that in the *psychoanalytic model*. Existential people seek self-awareness, direction and control. The existentialist approach maintains that people have freewill to chart their existence and beings.

## IMPACT OF EXISTENTIAL MODEL
The existentialist approach is very relevant in a society suffering from environmental and moral decay. In a world that is overpopulated, undernourished, polluted, ravaged by war

and crime with poverty rampant amidst affluence and material excess, it is extremely difficult for an individual to carve out a meaningful existence. Similarly, on a micro level, human behaviour in organisations seems appropriate for existentialist study and analysis. Determining a meaningful occupational existence may be a severe challenge for an individual faced with the characteristics of the formal modern organisation.

## Cognitive Model

The *Cognitive Model* came about as a reaction to other models of human behaviour. In particular, pioneering psychologists such as Edward Tolman became disenchanted with the psychoanalytic and early behaviouristic models. They felt that the Freudian conception placed too much emphasis on negative, irrational and sexually-motivated behaviours. The *Cognitive Model* emphasised the positive and freewill aspects of humans. In particular, the work of Tolman can best demonstrate the cognitive approach. He felt that behaviour was learned to expect that certain events will follow one another. For example, rats learned to behave if they expected food when a certain cue appeared. Thus, to Tolman, learning consisted of the expectancy that a particular event will lead to a particular consequence. This expectancy concept, of course, implies mentalistic phenomena. In other words, the cognitive explanation implies that an organism is thinking about or is conscious of, or aware of the goal. Behaviour is based on these cognitions.

## Behaviouristic Model

The roots of *Behaviouristic School* of thought can be traced to the work of Pavlov and Watson. These pioneering behaviourists stressed the importance of dealing with observable behaviours instead of the elusive mind. They used

classical conditioning experiment to formulate the stimulus response (S-R) explanation of human behaviour. Both Pavlov and Watson felt that behaviour could be best understood in terms of S-R. A stimulus elicits a response. They concentrated mainly in the impact of the stimulus and felt that learning occurred when the S-R connection was made.

Modern behaviourists mark its beginning with the work of B. I. Skinner. Skinner is generally recognised as the most influential living psychologist. He felt that the early behaviourists helped to explain respondent behaviours, but not the more complex operant behaviours. In other words, the S-R approach helps to explain physical reflexes, example, when stuck by a pin (S), the person will flinch (R). For Skinner, behaviour is a function of its consequences. It is important to understand that the behaviouristic model is environmentally based. It implies that cognitive processes such as thinking expectancies and perceptions do play a role in behaviour. Nevertheless, as the cognitive model has been accused of being mentalistic, the behaviouristic model has been accused of being deterministic.

## Goals of Organisational Behaviour Model

On the basis of Thorndike's Classic Law of Effect, the behaviourist model would say that organisational behaviour followed by a positive or reinforcing consequence will be strengthened and increased in subsequent frequency. In other words, organisational behaviour can be predicted and controlled on the basis of managing the contingent environment. Both internal causal factors which are cognitively-oriented and the external environmental factors, which are behaviouristically-oriented are important to the

understanding, control and prediction of organisational behaviours.

## SUMMARY

The Freudian *Psychoanalytic, Existentialistic, Cognitive* and *Behaviourist models* just discussed take an understanding, not an evaluating approach to the overall nature of human behaviour. These models served as important background information for developing a specific model for organisational behaviours.

## Review Questions

1. State and discuss the various models of human behaviour.
2. Discuss the *Freudian Psychoanalytic.*
3. Explain *Existentialistic Human Behaviour.*
4. Describe *Cognitive* and *Behaviourist models* of human behaviour.

# Chapter Eight

# INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

## CONCEPTS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

As a complex phenomenon, human behaviour is difficult to define in absolute terms. Primarily speaking, human behaviour is a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli. These responses reflect psychological structures of a person which results from a combination of biological and psychological processes.

Psychologist Kurt Levin has conducted considerable research into human behaviours and their causes. He believes that people are influenced by a number of factors, which are both genetic and environmental. He is convinced that these factors determine patterns of behaviour.

Whenever people buy something, for example, cars, both buyers and sellers sign a contract that specifies terms of these sales' agreement. Similarly, most people when they begin a working relationship with an organisation formulate a psychological contract with their employers. A psychological contract is the overall set of expectations that an individual holds in respect to his/her contributions to the organisations and the organisations' responses to those contributions. A psychological contract is an unwritten document as against a written legal contract.

When an individual works for an organization, he/she makes a variety of contributions to such an organization. These translates to efforts, skills, abilities, time, loyalty, etcetera. Presumably, these contributions satisfy various needs and

requirements of the organization he/she works for. In return for these contributions, the organisation provides inducements such as pay, promotion, job security, etcetera to this individual. Just as the contributions he/she makes must satisfy the organisation's needs, in the same vein, the inducements must satisfy this individual's needs.

If both this individual and the organisation he/she works for consider the psychological contract to be fair and equitable, they will be satisfied with their relationship and will likely to continue. However, if one of the parties perceives an imbalance or inequity in the contract, change may be initiated. One of the major challenge organisations face is how to manage psychological contracts.

One specific aspect of managing psychological contracts is managing *person-job fit*.

*'Person-job fit'* is the extent to which the contributions made by an individual match the inducements offered by the organization he/she works for. In theory, each employee has a specific set of needs to fulfill and a set of job-related behaviours and abilities to contribute. If the organisation can take complete advantage of these behaviours and abilities and exactly fulfill the employee's needs, it will have achieved a perfect person-job fit. Of course, such a precise level of person-job fit is seldom achieved due to various reasons such as imperfect selection procedures, differences in individual skills, constant changes in needs and requirements of people and organisation, etcetera. Thus, the behaviours of individuals in organisations are the primary concerns of management. It is important that managers have an understanding of the various factors influencing the behaviours of individuals they manage.

Below are five sets of factors that impacts individuals' behaviours in educational institutions.

## NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Individual differences are personal attributes that vary from one person to another. These differences may be physical or psychological.

**Psychological Differences**
- Personality.
- Attitudes.
- Perception.
- Motivation.
- Learning.

**Physical Differences**
- Height.
- Weight.
- Body shape.
- Appearance.
- Complexion.

Whenever an organization attempts to conduct an assessments of individual differences among its employees, it must consider situations in which behaviours occur. Individuals who are satisfied in one context may prove to be dissatisfied in another.

Assessing individual differences and contributions in relation to inducements and contexts is a major challenge for organizations as they attempt to establish effective psychological contracts with their employees so as to achieve optimal fits between workers and the jobs they are assigned to execute. Individual differences make managers' jobs endlessly challenging. In fact, according to recent research:

*"Variability among workers is substantial at all levels, but increases dramatically with job complexity. Due to these reasons, growing work force diversity compels managers to view individual differences in a fresh way. Leaders now talk frequently about 'valuing differences' and learning to 'manage diversity.'"*

So, rather than limiting diversity, as in the past, today's managers need to better understand and accommodate employee diversity and individual differences.

## Review Questions

1. What is individual behaviour?
2. What are the psychological and physical differences of behaviour?
3. Discuss examples of *psychological* and *physical* individual differences of behaviour.

# Chapter Nine

# PERSONALITY

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we shall discuss the following: personality development of an individual, factors that play important roles in personality formation and personality factors in educational institutions.

| Meaning of Personality | Personality Development | Factors That Plays Important Roles in Personality Formation | Personality Factors in School Environment |
|---|---|---|---|
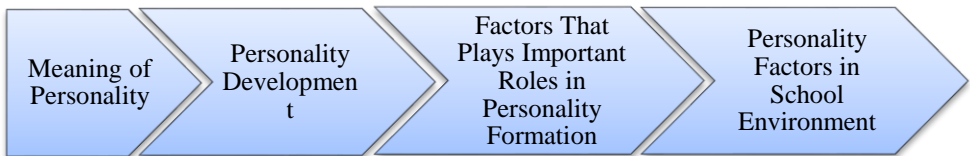
## OBJECTIVES

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

1. State the meaning of personality.
2. Explain personality development.
3. Discuss factors that plays important roles in personality formation.
4. Personality factors in school environment.

## PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

The personality development of an individual starts at birth and continues throughout his/her adult life. *Determinants, Stages* and *Traits* are three major factors that play important roles in personality formation:

### *Determinants*

The most widely studied determinants of personality are *biological, social* and *cultural*. Hereditary (examples, body shape and height), social (family and friends) and cultural (religion and values) in which people grow up and interact to

shape personalities. As people grow into adulthood, their personalities become very clearly defined and generally stable.

## Stages and Traits

Sigmund Freud saw human personality development as progressing through four stages: *dependent, compulsive, oedipal* and *mature*. The concept of stages of growth provides a valuable perspective from which to view organisational behaviour. Experienced managers become aware of the stages that their employees often go through and they leam how to deal with these stages to promote maximum growth for individuals and their organisations.

Trait approaches to personality formation are also based on psychology. According to some trait theories, all people share common traits such as social, political, religious and aesthetic preferences, but each individual's disposition differentiates an individual from others.

## PERSONALITY FACTORS IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Some of the important personality factors that determine what kind of behaviours are exhibited at work include the following:

1. Need Pattern.
2. Locus of Control.
3. Introversion and Extroversion.
4. Tolerance for Ambiguity.
5. Self-esteem and Self-concept.
6. Authoritarianism and Dogmatism.
7. Risk Propensity.
8. Machiavellianism.
9. Types A and B Personalities.
10. Work-Ethic Orientation.

## Need Pattern

Steers and Braunstein (1976) developed a scale for the four personality needs that manisfest themselves in work settings. They are:

   a. Needs for achievement.
   b. Affiliation.
   c. Autonomy
   d. Dominance.

Those who are high in achievements engage themselves proactively in work behaviours in order to feel proud about their achievements and successes. Those who are high in need for affiliation like to work cooperatively with others while those who are high in need for autonomy function best when not closely supervised. Those who are high in their needs for dominance are very effective while operating in environments where they can actively enforce their legitimate authorities.

## Locus of Control

*Locus of Control* is the degree to which an individual believes that his/her behaviour has direct impact on the consequences of that behaviour. Some people, for example, believe that if they work hard they are certain to succeed. They strongly believe that each individual is in control of his/her life. They are said to have an internal *locus of control*. By contrast, some people think that what happens to them is as a result of fate, chance, luck or the behaviour of other people, rather than lack of skills or poor performance. Because these individuals think that forces beyond their control dictate what happens to them, they are said to have an *external locus of control*.

As a personality attribute, *locus of control* has clear implications for organisations. For example, individuals with an intemal locus of control may have a relatively strong desire

to participate in the management of their organisations and have the freedom to do their jobs. Thus, they may prefer a decentralised organisation where they have rights to decide how to do their jobs. They thrive better under leaders who provide them the needed freedom to excel. They like a reward system that recognises individual performances and contributions.

On the other hand, people with an external locus of control are likely to prefer a more centralised organisation where they are not expected to take important decisions. They may gravitate to structured jobs where standard procedures are defined for them. They prefer leaders who make most of the decisions. They also prefer a reward system that considers mainly seniority rather than merit.

## Introversion and Extroversion

*Introversion* is the tendency in individuals which directs them to turn inward, experience and process feelings, thoughts and ideas within themselves.

On the other hand, *Extroversion* refers to the tendency in individuals to turn outward of themselves in search for external stimuli with which they can interact. While there is some element of *introversion* as well as *extroversion* in all of us, people tend to be dominant as either extroverts or introverts.

Extroverts are sociable, lively and gregarious. They seek outward stimuli or external interactions. Such individuals are likely to be most successful working in the sales and marketing; publicity, personnel and public relations, etecetera where they can interact face-to-face with others. On the other hand, introverts are quiet, reflective and more introspective.

They prefer to interact with small intimate circle of friends. Introverts are more likely to be successful when they work on abstract ideas. They thrive in Reasearch and Development (R&)) in a relatively quiet atmosphere.

Since managers have to constantly interact with individuals both within and outside their organizations and influence them to achieve their organisations' goals, it is believed that extroverts are likely to be more successful as managers.

## Tolerance for Ambiguity

This personality characteristic indicates the level of uncertainty that people can tolerate without experiencing undue stress and can still function effectively. Managers have to work well under conditions of extreme uncertainties and insufficient information, especially when things are rapidly changing in their organizations' external environments. Managers who have high tolerance for ambiguity can cope well under these conditions. However, managers who have low tolerance for ambiguity may be effective in structured work settings, but find it almost impossible to operate effectively when things are rapidly changing and much information about the future turn of events are not available. Thus, tolerance for ambiguity is a personality dimension necessary for managerial success.

## Self-Esteem and Self-Concept

*Self-esteem* denotes the extent to which individuals consistently regard themselves as capable, successful, important and worthy. Self-esteem is an important personality factor that determines how managers perceive themselves and their roles in their organisations. Self-esteem is important to self-concept, that is, the way individuals define themselves as to who they are and derive their senses of identity. High self-

esteem provides a high sense of self-concept; in turn, high self-concept reinforces high self-esteem. Thus, the two are mutually reinforcing.

Individuals who have high self-esteem will try to take on more challenging assignments and be successful, thus, enhancing their self-concepts, that is, they would tend to define themselves as highly valuable and valued individuals in their organisations. The higher their self-concepts and self-esteems are, the greater will be their contributions to the goals of their organisations, especially when the systems reward them for their contributions.

## Authoritarianism and Dogmatism

*Authoritarianism* is the extent to which an individual believes that power and status' differences are appropriate within hierarchical social systems like organisations. For example, an employee who is highly authoritarian may unquestioningly accept directives or orders from his superior with more authority. A person who is not highly authoritarian may agree to carry out appropriate and reasonable directives from his boss, but is likely to raise questions, express disagreements and even refuse to carry out requests if he/she considers them objectionable.

*Dogmatism* is the rigidity of a person's beliefs and his/her openness to other viewpoints. The terms, *"close-minded"* and *"open-minded"* describe people who are more and less dogmatic in their beliefs. For example, when a manager is unwilling to listen to a new idea for doing something more efficiently, he/she is said to be *close-minded* or *highly dogmatic*. On the other hand, when a manager is receptive when he/she hears about or tries out new ideas, he/she is said to be *open-minded* or *less dogmatic*.

Dogmatism can be either beneficial or detrimental to organisations, but given the degree of change in the nature of organisations and their environments, individuals who are not dogmatic are most likely to be useful and productive organisational members.

## Risk-Propensity

*Risk-propensity* is the degree to which an individual is willing to take chances and make risky decisions. A manager with a high risk-propensity might be expected to experiment with new ideas and to lead the organization he works for in new directions. In contrast, a manager with low risk propensity might lead to a stagnant and overly conservative organisation.

## Machiavellianism

*Machiavellianism* is manipulation or the use of uncertain means to influence people as a primary way of achieving one's goal. An individual tends to be Machiavellian, if he/she tends to be cool, logical in assessing the system around him/her, willing to twist and turn facts to influence others, and try to gain control of people, events and situations by manipulating the system to his/her advantage.

## Types "A" and "B" Personalities

Type "A" persons feels a chronic sense of time urgency, are achievement-oriented, exhibit a competitive drive and are impatient when their works are slowed down for any reason. Type "B" persons are easy-going individuals who do not sense the time urgency and are not driven by competitiveness.

Type "A" individuals are significantly more prone to heart attacks than Type "B" individuals. While Type "A" persons help their organisations to move ahead in a relatively short

period of time, they may also suffer health problems which might be detrimental to both themselves and their organisations in the long-run.

## Work-Ethic Orientation

Some individuals are highly work-oriented while others try to do the minimum that are necessary to get by without being fired on-the-job. Extremely work ethic-oriented persons are deeply involved in their jobs. Extreme work-ethic values could lead to traits of "workohlism" when work is considered as the only primary motive for living with very little interests outside of work. For a workoholic, turning to work can sometimes become a viable alternative to facing non-work-related problems. Though, a high level of work-ethic orientation of workers is good for an organisation to achieve its goals, too much "workaholics'" might lead to premature burnout and health problems. This is dysfunctional for both an organisation and its workaholic staff.

These ten different personality predispositions are important for individual, managerial and organisational effectiveness.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, we learnt about the personality development of an individual, major factors that play important roles in personality formation as well as personality factors in educational institutions.

## Review Questions

1. State the meaning of *personality*.
2. Explain *personality development*.
3. Discuss factors that play important roles in personality formation.
4. What are *personality factors in educational institutions?*

# Chapter Ten

# HUMAN BEHAVIOUR AND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

## INTRODUCTION

How can behaviour be assessed? What is the process of building behaviourial capabilities? How can a person decrease excessive behaviour? In this chapter, you will learn about the concept of personality as well as the different psychological perspectives to personality.
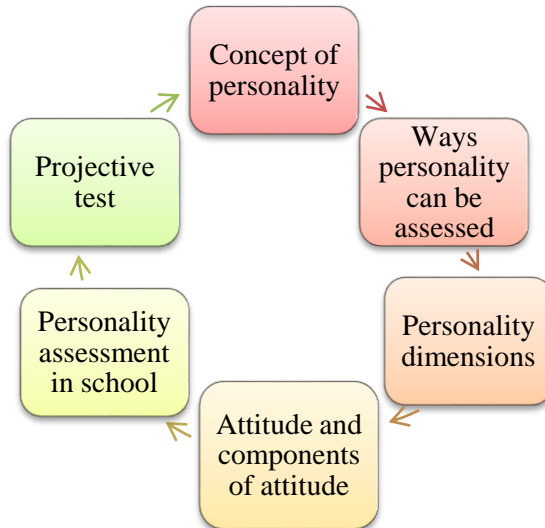
Concept of personality

Ways personality can be assessed

Personality dimensions

Attitude and components of attitude

Personality assessment in school

Projective test

## OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:
1. Explain the concept of personality.
2. State ways personality can be assessed.
3. Discuss personality dimensions.
4. Know the meaning of attitude and components of attitude.
5. Describe personality assessment in school.

6. Explain what *projective test* is all about.

# DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

Personality is one of those concepts that we think we know what it is, but when we try to verbally express it, can be quite daunting. According to Obi (2017), the definition of *personality* includes enduring characteristics and adaptation:

> *Personality consists of enduring, distinctive thoughts, emotions, and behaviours that characterize the way an individual adapt to the world.*

We will be discussing a number of theoretical perspectives on personality. The question is often asked, "Why do individuals react to same situations in different ways?" For example:

1. Why is Ngozi so fluent and extroverted while Maani is so retiring and silent when they meet someone for the first time?
2. Why is Joan so confident while Mary is so insecure about the upcoming job interview?

Some theorists believe that biological and genetic factors are responsible for the ways people react to situations. Others argue that life experiences are more important. Some theorists claim that the way we think about ourselves is the key to understanding personality. Others are convinced that the way we behave towards one another is more important (Freidman and Schustack, 1999).

# PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

Clinical and educational psychologists assess personality to better understand individuals' psychological challenges. They hope that their assessments will help to improve diagnosis and treatments of individuals. Before we describe some specific personality tests, two important points need to be noted about the nature of personality assessment. First, the kinds of tests

chosen by psychologists frequently depend on psychologists' theoretical beliefs. Second, most personality tests are designed to assess stable, enduring characteristics, free from situational influences (Hy & Loeviger, 1996).

The personality assessments to be discussed here are: *projective tests, self-report test, behavioural* and *cognitive assessments.*

## Projective Tests

A *Projective test* presents individuals with an ambiguous stimuli and then asks them to describe it or tell a story about them.

Projective tests are based on the assumption that the ambiguity of a given stimulus allows an individual to project into it his/her feelings, desires, needs and attitudes. The test is especially designed to elicit an individual's unconscious feelings and conflicts, providing an assessment that goes deeper than the surface of the personality (Auerback, 1999; Handler, 1999).

Projective tests attempt to get inside your mind to discover how you really feel and think, going beyond the way you overtly present yourself.

Let us now discuss some projective tests:

### The Rorschach lnkblot Test

Developed in 1921 by a Swiss psychiatrist, Hermann Rorschach, *Rorschach lnkblot Test* is a widely used projective test. It uses an individua|'s perception of inkblots to determine his or her personality. The test consists of ten cards, half in black and white colour, which are shown to an individual one at a time. The person taking *Rorschach Test* is asked to describe what he or she sees in each of the inkblots. For

example, an individual may say, "That looks like two people fighting."

After the individual has responded to all ten inkblots, the examiner presents each of the inkblots again and inquires about the individual's earlier response. For example, the examiner might ask, "Where did you see the two people fighting?" and "What inkblot made two people look like they were fighting?" Besides recording these responses, the examiner would take note of the individual's mannerisms, gestures and attitudes (Santrock, 2000).

### *Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)*

Developed by Henry Murray and Christina Morgan in the 1930s, *Thematic Apperception Test* is an ambiguous projective test designed to elicit stories that reveal something about an individual's personality. TAT consists of a series of pictures, each on an individual card. The person taking TAT is asked to tell a story about each of the pictures, including events leading up to the situation described; characters' thoughts and feelings and how the situation turns out. It is assumed that the person projects his/her own unconscious feelings and thoughts into the story he/she tells.

In addition to being used as a projective test in clinical practice, TAT is used in research of achievement motivation (Cramer, 1999). Several TAT cards stimulate the telling of achievement-related stories, which enables a researcher to determine a person's need for achievement. There are many other projective tests used in clinical assessment. Let us now turn to another personality assessment.

### Self Report Tests

*Self Report Tests*, also called *Objective Tests* or *Inventories* directly ask people whether items (usually True/False or Agree/Disagree) describe their personality traits or not.

*Self Report Tests* are questionnaires that include a large number of statements or questions. You would be required to respond with a limited number of choices (*Yes* or *No; True* or *False; Agree* or *Disagree*).

### Minnesota Multiphasic Inventory (MMPI)

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) is the most widely used and researched self report personality test. Initially, MMPI was constructed to assess "abnormal" personality tendencies and improve the diagnosis of individuals with mental disorders. A thousand statements were given to both mental patients and apparently normal people. How often individuals agreed on each item was calculated. Only items that clearly differentiated psychiatric patients from normal individuals were retained. For example, a statement might be included on the depression scale of MMPI of patients diagnosed with a depressive disorder if it agrees significantly more with the statement of normal individuals.As time went by, MMPI was eventually streamlined to 550 items, each of which can be answered *"True," "False"* or *"Cannot say."*

MMPI includes four validity scales in addition to the ten clinical scales. The validity scales were designed to indicate whether an individual is lying, careless, defensive or evasive when answering the test items. For the first time in its approximately 40-year history, MMPI was revised in 1989. The revision is called, *"MMPI-2."* It has a number of new items (a total of 567 items), but the 10 clinical scales were retained as were several of the validity scales.

*MMPI-2* continuous to be widely used around the world to assess personality and has been translated into more than 20 languages. Not only is it used by clinical psychologists to assess a person's mental health, it is also used to predict which individuals will be best suited for certain jobs or which career an individual should pursue (Santrock, 2000).

## BEHAVIOURAL AND COGNITIVE ASSESSMENT

*Behavioural assessment* attempts to obtain more objective information about an individual's personality by observing his/her behaviour directly. Instead of removing situational influences from personality as *Projective Tests* and *Self Report Measures* do, *Behavioural Assessment* assumes that personality cannot be evaluated apart from the environment.

Behaviour modification is an attempt to apply learning principles to change maladaptive behaviour. Behaviour assessment of personality emerged from this tradition. For example, recall that an observer would often make baseline observations of the frequency of an individual's behaviour. This might be accomplished under controlled laboratory conditions or in more naturalistic circumstances. In an educational institution, a therapist would modify some aspects of the environment such as getting the parents of a child to stop giving him/her attention when he engages in aggressive behaviours. After a specified period of time, the therapist would observe again to determine if the changes in the environment were effective in reducing the maladaptive behaviour.

The influence of social cognitive theory has increased the use of cognitive assessment in personality evaluation. The strategy

is to discover what thoughts underlie an individual's behaviour, that is, how individuals think about their problems.

What kinds of thoughts precede maladaptive behaviour? What occurs during its manifestation and what follows after? Cognitive processes such as expectations, planning and memory are assessed, possibly by interviewing the individual or asking him or her to complete a questionnaire.

*Dimensions* are extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experiences. Ideally, these personality dimensions that correlate positively and strongly with job performance would be helpful in the selection, training and appraisal of employees. Individuals who exhibit traits associated with a strong sense of purpose, obligations and persistence generally perform better than those who do not.

## ATTITUDE

Simply explained, an "attitude" is an individual's point of view or an individual's way of looking at something. To be more explicit, an "attitude" may be explained as the mental state of an individual, which prepares him to react or make him behave in a particular pre-determined way.

An attitude is defined as "a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object." Attitudes are complexes of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations or about others. Attitudes are important because they are the mechanisms through which most people express their feelings.

## Components of Attitude

Attitudes have three components, namely, *Affective, Cognitive* and *Intentional Components*.

*Affective Component -* How we feel toward a Situation.

*Intentional Component* - How we intend to behave toward the situation.

*Cognitive Component* - Why we feel the way we do.

The *Affective component* of an attitude reflects "*feelings* and *emotions"* that an individual has toward a situation. The *cognitive component* of an attitude is derived from "*knowledge"* that an individual has about a situation. Finally, the *Intentional component* of an attitude reflects how an individual "*expects to behave"* toward or in a situation. For example, attitude towards a firm which supplies products irregularly as well as inferior could be described as follows:

- "I don't like that company" - Affective component.
- "They are the worst supply firm I have ever dealt with" - Cognitive component.
- "I will never do business with them again" - Intentional component.

People try to maintain consistency among the three components of their attitudes. However, circumstances sometimes arise that lead to conflicts. The conflict that individuals may experience among their own attitudes is called *"Cognitive dissonance."*

## ATTITUDE FORMATION AND CHANGE

Individuals' attitudes form over time as a result of repeated personal experiences with ideas, situations or people. Attitudes that are situationally specific and learned is one very important way to understand individual behaviour in organisations.

An attitude may change as a result of new information. A manager may have a negative attitude towards a new employee because of his lack of job-related experience. After working with the new person for sometime, the manager may come to realise that he/she is actually very talented and subsequently may develop a more positive attitude toward him/her.

## Work-Related Attitudes

People in an organization form attitudes about many things - about their salaries, promotion possibilities, superiors, fringe benefits, food items in canteens, uniforms, etcetera. Some important attitudes are job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement.

### Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an attitude that reflects the extent to which an individual is gratified by or fulfilled in his or her work. Extensive research conducted on job satisfaction has indicated that personal factors such as an individual's needs and aspirations determine this attitude, along with group and organizational factors such as relationships with co-workers and supervisors as well as working conditions, work policies and compensations.

A satisfied employee tends to be less absent, seeks to make positive contributions and to stay with the organisation. In contrast, a dissatisfied employee may be more absent, may experience stress that disrupts co-workers and may be continually looking for another job.

Organisational factors that influence employee satisfaction include pay, promotion, policies and procedures of organisations and working conditions. Group factors involving relationships with co-workers and supervisors also

influence job satisfaction. Similarly, satisfaction depends on individual factors like individual's needs and aspirations. If employees are satisfied with their jobs, it may lead to low employee turnover and less absenteeism and vice-versa.

## CONCLUSION

In this chapter, you learnt about different theories of personality. You also learnt that psychologists use a wide variety of tests and measures to assess personality. These measures are often tied to psychologists' theoretical perspectives. Personality tests were basically designed to measure stable and enduring aspects of personality.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, you learnt the following: meaning of personality, which involves enduring thoughts, emotions and behaviours that characterize the ways we adapt to the world. You also learnt about psychoanalytic, behavioural/cognitive and humanistic perspectives of personality. You also learnt about the methods of assessing personality which included projective tests, self-report tests and behavioural/cognitive assessments.

## Review Questions

1. What is *personality*?
2. Examine the psychoanalytic perspectives of personality.
3. Explain the concept of personality.
4. State the ways personality can be assessed.
5. Discuss personality dimensions.
6. What is the meaning of *attitude*? What are the components of attitude?
7. Describe personality assessment in an educational environment.
8. What is *Projective Test* all about?

# Chapter Eleven

# ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENTS AND INVOLVEMENTS

## INTRODUCTION

Two other important work-related attitudes are organizational *commitment* and *involvement*. Organizational *commitment* is an individual's feeling of identification with and attachment to an organization. *Involvement* refers to a person's willingness to be a team member and work beyond the usual standards of the job assigned. An employee with little involvement is motivated by extrinsic factors but an employee with strong involvement is motivated by intrinsic factors.

A number of factors lead to commitment and involvement. Both may increase with an employee's age and years of service to the organization he/she works for, sense of job security and participation in decision-making. If the organisation treats its employees fairly and provides reasonable rewards and job security, employees are more likely to be satisfied and committed. Involving employees in decision-making can also help to increase commitments. In particular, designing jobs which are interesting and stimulating can enhance involvement.

## OBJECTIVES

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

1. Know work-related attitudes in an organization.
2. Explain organizational commitment and involvement.
3. Discuss organizational commitments as an individual's feelings of identification with and attachment to an organization.

4. Discuss characteristics of the object, which includes contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and novelty.
5. Explain characteristics of a person which includes attitudes, self-concept and personality.

## LEARNING

Learning is another important psychological process determining human behaviour. Learning can be defined as "relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice." There are four important points in the definition of learning:

1. Learning involves a change in behaviour, though this change is not necessarily an improvement over previous behaviours. Learning generally has the connotation of improved behaviour, but bad habits, prejudices, stereotypes, and work restrictions are also learned.
2. Behavioural change must be relatively permanent. Any temporary change in behaviour is not a part of learning.
3. Behavioural change must be based on some form of practice or experience.
4. Practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur.

## COMPONENTS OF THE LEARNING PROCESS
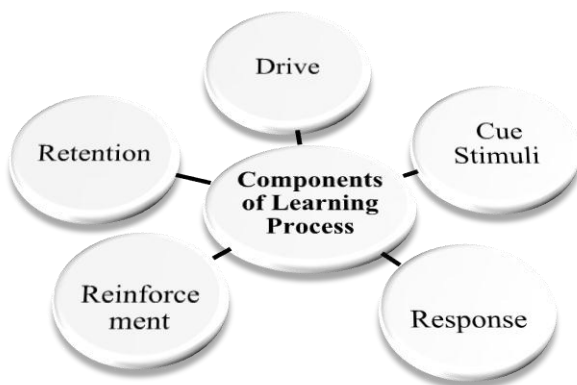
Components of the learning process are: drive, cue stimuli, response, reinforcement and retention.

## Drive

Learning frequently occurs in the presence of drive — any strong stimulus that impels action. Drives are basically of two types — primary or physiological drives and secondary or psychological drives. These two categories of drives often interact. Individuals operate under many drives at the same time. To predict behaviour, it is necessary to establish which drives are stimulating the most.

## Cue Stimuli

Cue stimuli are any objects existing in the environment as perceived by the individual. The idea is to discover the conditions under which stimulus will increase the probability of eliciting a specific response. There may be two types of stimuli so far as their results in tenns of response are concerned: generalization and discrimination.

Generalization occurs when a response is elicited by a similar but new stimulus. If two stimuli are exactly alike, they will have the same probability of evoking a specified response. The principle of generalization has important implications for human learning. Because of generalisation, a person does not have to completely redeem each of the new tasks. It allows the members to adapt to overall changing conditions and specific new assignments. The individual can borrow from past learning experiences to adjust more smoothly to new learning situations.

Discrimination is a process whereby an orgaisation learns to emit a response to a stimulus but avoids making the same response to a similar but somewhat different stimulus. Discrimination has wide applications in organisational

behaviour. For example, a supervisor can discriminate between two equally high producing workers, one with low quality and other with high quality.

## Responses

The stimulus results in responses. Responses may be in the physical form or may be in terms of attitudes, familiarity, perception or other complex phenomena. In the above example, the supervisor discriminates between the worker producing low quality products and the worker producing high quality products, and positively responds only to the quality conscious worker.

## Reinforcement

Reinforcement is a fundamental condition of learning. Without reinforcement, no measurable modification of behaviour takes place. Reinforcement may be defined as environmental events affects the probability of occurrence of responses with which they are associated.

## Retention

The stability of learned behaviour over time is defined as retention and the converse is forgetting. Some of the learning is retained over a period of time; while other may be forgotten.

## LEARNING THEORIES

## Classical Conditioning

The work of the famous Russian Physiologist, Ivan Pavlov demonstrated the *classical conditioning process*. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog in his experiment, he noticed a great deal of salivation. He termed the food an *unconditioned stimulus* and the salivation an *unconditioned response*. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. On the other hand, when Pavlov merely rang a bell, the dog did not

salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of a bell each time the meat was given to the dog. The dog eventually learned to salivate in response to the ringing of the bell even when there was no meat. Pavlov had conditioned the dog to respond to a leamed stimulus. Thorndike called this the *"Law of exercise,"* which states that behaviour can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response.

*Classical conditioning* has a limited value in the study of organisational behaviour. As pointed out by Skinner, *classical conditioning* represents an insignificant part of total human learning. Classical conditional is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular fashion. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event, as such it explains simple and reflexive behaviours. But behaviours of people in organisations are emitted rather than elicited. It is voluntary rather than reflexive. The learning of these complex behaviours can be explained or better understood by looking at *operant conditioning*.

## Operant Conditioning
*Operant* is defined as "behaviour that produces effects." Basically, a product of Skinnerian Psychology, *Operant Conditioning* suggests that individuals emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is voluntary behaviour that is detennined, maintained and controlled by its consequences.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organisations. Most behaviours in organisations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences, that is, operant behaviours. Management can use the operant conditioning process successfully to control and influence the behaviours of employees by manipulating its reward system.

Reinforcement is anything that increases the strength of responses and tends to induce repetitions of behaviours. Four types of reinforcement strategies can be employed by managers to influence the behaviours of employees: *positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction* and *punishment.*

## Positive Reinforcement

Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour by the presentation of a desirable consequence (reward). In other words, a positive reinforcer is a reward that follows behaviour and is capable of increasing the frequency of that behaviour. There are two types of positive reinforcers: *primary* and *secondary*. Primary reinforcers such as food, water and sex are of biological importance and have effects which are independent of past experiences. For instance, a primary reinforcer like food satisfies hunger needs and reinforced food-producing behaviour. Secondary reinforcers like job advancement, recognition, praise and esteem result from previous associations with a primary reinforcer. Primary reinforcers must be learned. In order to apply reinforcement procedures successfully, management must select re-inforcers that are sufficiently powerful and durable.

## Negative Reinforcement

The threat of punishment is known as *negative reinforcement*. Negative re-enforcers also serve to strengthen desired behaviour responses leading to their removal or termination.

## Extinction

*Extinction* is an effective method of controlling undesirable behaviours. It refers to non-reinforcement. It is based on the principle that if a response is not reinforced, it will eventually

disappear. *Extinction* is a behavioural strategy that does not promote desirable behaviours, but can reduce undesirable behaviours.

## Punishment

*Punishment* is a control device employed in organisations to discourage and reduce annoying behaviours of employees.

## Observational Learning

Observational learning is as a result of watching the behaviour of another person and appraising the consequences of that behaviour. It does not require an overt response. When Mr. X observes that Y is rewarded for superior performance, X learns the positive relationship between performance and rewards without actually obtaining the reward himself. *Observational learning* plays a crucial role in altering behaviours in organizations.

## Cognitive Learning

Here, the primary emphasis is on knowing how events and objects are related to one another.

Most of the learning that takes place in classrooms are *cognitive learning*. Cognitive learning is important because it increases the change that the learner will do the right thing first time without going through a lengthy operant conditioning process.

## LEARNING THEORY AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The relevance of learning theories in explaining and predicting organizational behaviours is marginal. This does not mean that learning theories are totally irrelevant. Learning concepts provide basis for changing behaviours that are unacceptable and maintaining those that are acceptable. When individuals

engage in various types of dysfunctional behaviours (late for work, disobeying orders, poor performance, etcetera), managers will attempt to educate them on functional behaviours.

Learning theory can also provide certain guidelines for conditioning organizational behaviours. Managers know that individuals who are capable of turning out superior performances must be given more reinforcers than those with average or low perfonnances. Managers can successfully use the operant conditioning process to control and influence the behaviours of employees by manipulating its reward system.

## ATTITUDE: ITS IMPORTANCE IN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOURS

Attitudes of both workers and management react to each other and determine mutual relationships. Attitudes, that is, understanding or learning why employees feel and act the way they do helps supervisors in winning cooperation from them. This is very essential for the efficient working of an organisation.

From a personal perspective, attitudes provide knowledge-base or prepare our mental states for our interactions with others, and with the world around us, which directly affects organisational behaviours, and in turn organisational workings.

### *Perception*

*Perception* is an important mediating cognitive process. Through this complex process, persons make interpretations of the stimuli or situations they are faced with. Both selectivity and organisation go into perceptual interpretations. Externally, selectivity is affected by intensity, size, contrast, repetition,

motion, novelty and familiarity. Internally, perceptual selectivity is influenced by an individual's motivation, learning and personality. After a stimulus situation is filtered by the selective process, the incoming information is organised into a meaningful whole.

Individual differences and uniqueness are largely the result of the cognitive processes.

Although there are a number of cognitive processes, it is generally recognised that the perceptual process is a very important one that takes place between a situation and the behaviour and is most relevant to the study of organisational behaviour. For example, the observation that a department head and a subordinate may react quite differently to the same top management directive can be better understood and explained by the perceptual process.

In the process of perception, people receive many different kinds of information through all five senses, assimilate them and then interpret them. Different people perceive the same information differently.

Perception plays a key role in determining individuals' behaviours in organisations. Organisations send messages in variety of forms to their members regarding what they are expected to do and not to do. In spite of organisations sending clear messages, those messages are subject to distortions in the process of being perceived by an organisation's members, hence, managers need to have a general understanding of basic perceptual processes.

## BASIC PERCEPTUAL PROCESS
Perception is influenced by characteristics of an object being perceived and of the person and by situational processes:

- Characteristics of the object include contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and novelty.
- Characteristics of the person include attitudes, self-concept and personality.

The details of a particular situation affects the way a person perceives an object. The same person may perceive the same object very differently in different situations. The processes through which a person's perceptions are altered by a situation include selection, organisation, attribution and stereotyping; the halo effect and projection. Among these, selective perception and stereotyping are particularly relevant to organisations.

## Selective Perception

Selective perception is the process of screening out information that we are uncomfortable with or that contradicts our beliefs. For example, a manager has a very positive attitude about a particular worker and one day he notices that the worker seems to be goofing off. Selective perception may make the manager to quickly disregard what he observed. Suppose another manager has formed a very negative attitude about a particular worker and when he happens to observe a high performance from the worker, he, too, disregards it.

In one sense, selective perception is beneficial because it allows us to disregard minor bits of information. If selective perception causes managers to ignore important information, it can become quite detrimental.

## Stereotyping

Stereotyping is the process of categorising or labeling people on the basis of a single attribute. Perceptions based on stereotypes about people's gender exist more or less in most work places. Typically, these perceptions lead to the belief that

an individual's gender determines which tasks he or she will be able to perform. For example, a woman sitting behind a table in an office is very often perceived as a clerk and not as an executive, but would make the opposite assumption about a man.

Stereotyping consists of three steps: identifying categories of people (like women, politicians), associating certain characteristics with those categories (like passivity, dishonesty) and then assuming that any one who fits a certain category must have those characteristics. For example, if dishonesty is associated with politicians, we are likely to assume that the next politician we meet is also dishonest.

## *Perception and Attribution*

Perception is also closely linked with another process called *attribution*. Attribution is a mechanism through which we observe behaviours and then attribute causes to them. According to *attribution theory*, once we observe behaviours we evaluate them in terms of their consensus, consistency and distinctiveness.

*Consensus* is the extent to which other people in the same situation behave in the same way. *Consistency* is the degree to which the same person behaves in the same way at different times. *Distinctiveness* is the extent to which the same person behaves in the same way in other situations. The forces within the person (internal) or outside the person (external) led to the behaviour.

For instance, if you observe that an employee is much more motivated than the people around him/her (low consensus), is consistently motivated (high consistency) and seems to work hard no matter what the task (low distinctiveness), you might conclude that intemal factors are causing the behaviour.

Another example: let us suppose that a manager observes that an employee is late for a meeting, the manager might realise that this employee is the only one who is late (low consensus), recall that he is often late for other meetings (high consistency) and subsequently recall that the same employee is sometimes late for work (low distinctiveness). This pattern of attributions might cause the manager to decide that the individual's behaviour is something that should be changed. At this point, the manager or school administrator might meet with the subordinate to establish some punitive consequences for future tardiness.

## *Impression Management*

Whereas social perception is concerned with how one individual perceives other individuals, *impression management* is the process by which people attempt to manage or control perceptions, which other people have formed about them. Typically, these perceptions lead to the belief that an individual's gender determines which tasks he or she will be able to perform.

Often, there is a tendency for people to try to present themselves in such ways as to impress others in socially desirable ways. Thus, impression management has considerable implications for areas such as the validity of performance appraisals and as a pragmatic, political tool for one to climb the ladder of success in an organisation.

## SUMMARY

In this chapter we learned that work-related attitudes are organizational commitment and involvement. *Organizational commitment* is an individual's feelings of identification with and attachment to an organization. Characteristics of the object include contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and

novelty while characteristics of the person include attitudes, self-concept and personality.

## Review Questions

1. What are the work-related attitudes in an organization?
2. Explain the terms, *"Organizational commitment and involvement."*
3. Discuss *"Organizational commitment"* as an individual's feelings of identification with and attachment to an organization.
4. Discuss *Characteristics of an object.* This should include contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and novelty.
5. Explain *Characteristics of a person.* This should include attitudes, self-concept and personality.

# Chapter Twelve

# MOTIVATION

## INTRODUCTION

The word, *Motivation* is derived from the root word, "Motive." This is defined as an active form of a desire, craving or need which must be satisfied.

Motivation is key to organizational effectiveness. Managers have to get works done through others. These "others" are human assets or resources. They are to be motivated to work to attain organizational objectives.

## DEFINITIONS AND MEANING OF MOTIVATION

Generally, *motivation* is "the set of forces that cause people to choose certain behaviours from among other alternatives open to them." According to George R. Teny:

> *"Motivation is the desire within an individual that stimulates him or her to action."*

In the words of Robert Dubin,

> *"Motivation is the complex of forces that starts and keeps a person at work in an organization."*

Vitalis defines *Motivation* as,

> *"An unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing an individual to move in a goal-directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium by satisfying the need."*

According to Information bank of Management:

> *"'Motivation' refers to the degree of readiness of an organism to pursue some designated goals and*

*implies the determination of the nature and locus of force inducing degree of readiness."*

On the basis of above definitions, the following observations can be made regarding motivation:

1. Motivation is an inner psychological force which activates and compels a person to behave in a particular manner.
2. Motivation is influenced by personality traits, learning abilities, perceptions and competencies of an individual.
3. A highly motivated employee works more efficiently and his level of production tends to be higher than others.
4. Motivation originates from needs and wants of an individual. It is a tension of lacking something in his/her mind which forces him/her to work more efficiently.
5. Motivation is the process of stimulating and channelising the energy of an individual towards achieving set goals.
6. Motivation plays crucial roles in determining an individual's level of performance. Highly motivated employees will get higher satisfaction which may lead to higher efficiency.
7. A motivating force and its degree may differ from one individual to another depending on his/her personality, needs, competencies and other factors.
8. The process of motivation helps a manager to analyse and understand human behaviour and to find out how an individual can be inspired to produce desirable working behaviours.
9. Motivation may be positive as well as negative. Positive motivation includes incentives, rewards and other benefits while negative motivation implies some punishment, fear, use of force, etcetera.

10. The process of motivation contributes to and boosts up the morale of employees. High degrees of motivation may lead to high morale.

## CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF MOTIVATION

1. Motivation is an internal feeling/force that propels a person to action.
2. Motivation is a continuous activity.
3. Motivation varies from person to person and from time to time.
4. Motivation may be positive or negative.

## IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is an important part of the managing process. A team of highly qualified and motivated employees is necessary for achieving the objectives of an organisation. It is only through motivation that these workers can contribute maximally towards accomplishing organizational objectives.

It is pertinent to state that:

1. Highly motivated employees make optimum use of available resources towards achieving objectives.
2. Motivation is directly related to the efficiency level of an employee.
3. Highly motivated employees make full use of their energies and other abilities to raise existing levels of efficiency.
4. Highly motivated employees would make goal-directed efforts. They are more committed and cooperative in achieving organisational objectives.
5. Highly motivated employees are more loyal and sincere, and want to remain with the organisations they work for

longer period of time. These factors help to reduce absenteeism and labour turnovers.

6. Motivation is considered as a backbone of good industrial relations.
7. Effectively motivated employees get more job satisfaction and are usually of high morale.
8. Motivation also helps to improve the image of an organisation.
9. The motivation framework is a good starting point for understanding how people behave in certain ways.

The motivation process begins with needs that individuals identify for themselves. For example, a worker feels that he is underpaid. This deficiency becomes a need that the worker seeks to satisfy, perhaps, by asking for a raise, by working harder to earn a raise or by seeking a new job. Once he chooses to pursue one or more of these options and then enacts them (working harder while simultaneously looking for a job, for example), he evaluates his success. If his hard work results in a pay raise, he probably feels satisfied and will continue to work hard, but if he does not receive a pay raise, he is likely to try another option. Since people have many different needs, the satisfaction of one need or set of needs is likely to give rise to the identification of other needs. Thus, the cycle of motivation is constantly being repeated.

Understanding human motivation is crucial for managing people. Many people have done extensive research to find out the things that make people work and how to motivate them. These include managers, social scientists, behaviourists and psychologists. A number of theories have been developed, even though there is no universally accepted motivation theory. Understanding these theories assist managers to get

better insights into human behaviours.

## NEED-BASED THEORIES TO MOTIVATION
Need-based theories try to answer the question, "What factor(s) motivate people to choose certain behaviours?" Some of the widely known need-based theories are:

### *Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*
In 1940s, Abraham Maslow proposed his theory known today as *Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*. This assumes that people are motivated to satisfy five levels of needs: physiological, security, belongingness, esteem and self-actualisation.



**Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

According to *Maslow's Hierarchy*, physiological needs for food, sex, water and air represent basic issues of survival. In organisational settings, most physiological needs are satisfied by paying adequate wages and by creating conducive environments for employees to work in. There should be rest rooms, adequate lighting, comfortable temperatures and ventilation.

Next are *security or safety needs* - the requirements for a secure physical and emotional environment. Examples include desire for adequate housing and clothing, the need to be free from worry over money and job security as well as the desire for safe working conditions. Security needs are satisfied for

people in work places by job continuity, a grievance redressal system as well as adequate insurance and retirement benefit packages.

*Belonging needs* are related to the social aspect of human life. They include: need for love and affection as well as the need to be accepted by one's peers. For most people, these needs are satisfied by a combination of family and community relationships outside of work and friendships on the job. Managers can help ensure the satisfaction of these important needs by allowing social interactions and by making employees feel that they are a part of a team or work group.

*Esteem needs* actually comprise of two different sets of needs: *need for a positive self-image* and *self-respect* and *need for recognition and respect from others*. Organisations can help address esteem needs by providing a variety of extrinsic symbols of accomplishment such as job titles, spacious offices and similar rewards as appropriate. At a more intrinsic level, organisations can also help satisfy esteem needs by providing employees with challenging job assignments that carry with them a sense of accomplishment.

At the top of the hierarchy are what Maslow calls the *self-actualisation needs*. These involve realising one's potential for continued growth and development. Because they are highly individualised and personal, *self-actualisation needs* are perhaps the most difficult for managers to address. In fact, it can be argued that individuals must meet these needs entirely by themselves. Organisations can help by creating conducive atmostpheres where self-actualisation is possible. For instance, an organisation can promote the fulfillment of these needs by providing employees with the opportunities to participate in making decisions about their work and to learn

new things about their jobs as well as their organisations. The process of contributing to actual organisational performance (through decision-making) and learning more about the organisation are likely to help people experience personal growth and development associated with self-actualisation.

Maslow suggests that the five levels of needs are ananged in order of importance, starting at the bottom of the hierarchy (refer to figure). Here, an individual is motivated first and foremost to satisfy physiological needs. As long as these needs remain unsatisfied, the individual is motivated to only fulfill them. When those needs are satisfied, the individual is motivated and so 'moves up' the hierarchy and becomes concemed with security needs. This 'moving up' process continues until the individual reaches the self-actualisation level.

Maslow's concept of the *needs' hierarchy* has a certain intuitive logic, which has been accepted by many managers. However, research has revealed several short-comings of the theory. For example, research has found that five levels of needs are not always present and that the order of the levels is not always the same as postulated by Maslow. Moreover, it is difficult for organizations to use the need hierarchy to enhance employee motivation.

## NEW APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION IN ORGANIZATIONS
New approaches are emerging to supplement the established models and theories of motivation. Two of the most promising are Goal-Setting Theory and the Japanese Approach.

### Goal-Setting Theory
This approach to motivation was pioneered in America by Edwin Locke and his associates in the 1960s and refined in the

1980s. *Goal-setting theory* suggests that managers and their subordinates should set goals for individuals on a regular basis (as suggested by MBO). These goals should be moderately difficult and very specific. It should be the type that employees will accept and make commitments to accomplishing. Rewards should be tied directly to accomplished goals.

When involved in goal-settings, employees see how their efforts will lead to performances, rewards and personal satisfactions.

Outstanding features of this theory are:
- Specific goals fixes the needs for resources and efforts.
- It increases performances.
- Difficult goals result to higher performances than easy jobs.
- Better feedback of results leads to better performances than lack of feedback.
- Participation of employees in goals has mixed results.
- Participation in setting goals, however, increases acceptance of goals and involvements.
- *Goal-setting theory* defines two factors which influences performances.

These are given below:

### Goal Commitment and 'Self-Efficiency'
The mere act of goal-setting does not ensure higher levels of motivation among employees. In fact, there appears to be three important criteria that goals must meet if they are to influence behaviours of members of organisations. They are: *goal-specificity, goal-difficulty* and *goal-acceptance.*

### Goal-Specificity
Goals must be stated in specific terms if they are to motivate effective performances. Goals must be set in terms of

measurable criteria of work performances, that is, number of units produced, new sales, etcetera and must specify a time period within which the goal is to be attained. It also gives a sense of personal satisfaction and accomplishment to workers if they are able to meet their targets.

### *Goal-Difficulty/Challenge*
There exists a relationship between *goal-difficulty* and work motivation. The more difficult and challenging the goal, the higher the level of motivation and performance. But it is essential that goals be set at levels that are realistic to a person. Goals that are very difficult to achieve lose their capacities to motivate since they are beyond the capacities of individuals.

### *Goal-Acceptance*
In order to influence motivation and performance, a goal must be internalized by an individual. In other words, the person has to feel some personal ownership of the goal and must have commitment to achieve it.

## GOAL-SETTING IN PRACTICE
The most obvious implication of goal-setting theory is that managers should be helping subordinates to set goals that are specific and reasonably difficult and that subordinates accept and internalize them as theirs. Besides this, there are a number of issues that arise in implementing goal-setting in practice. Though specificity of a goal is essential and measurability is desirable, it should not interfere in identifying meaningful and valid objective measures of goal-attainment.

A manager can stimulate goal-acceptance in at least three ways:
- By involving subordinates in goal-setting processes.
- By demonstrating a supportive attitude and approach toward his/her subordinates.

- By trying various rewards towards achievement of goals.

Management by Objectives (MBO) is a managerial technique for improving motivation and performance using goal-setting principles.

### Cognitive Evaluation Theory
In 1960, Channs, a researcher reported that *extrinsic motivation* such as pay or rewards for a job which has an intrinsic-motivation content prior to such rewards tend to decrease overall levels of motivation. This proposal is called *"Cognitive Evaluation Theory."* This is supported by a large number of research studies conducted afterwards.

## JAPANESE APPROACH TO MOTIVATION
In recent times, the Japanese approach to motivation has gained increasing popularity around the world. This approach is not really a theory or model, rather, it is a philosophy of management. The basic tenet of the Japanese approach is that managers and workers should work together as partners. Since both see themselves as one group, all members are committed and motivated to work in the best interests of their organisation. No one is called an employee, instead, everyone is a team member, team leader or coach and everyone owns a 'share' of the company. Like goal-setting theory, the Japanese approach is likely to become more common in businesses throughout the world.

## INTEGRATION OF MOTIVATION THEORIES IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
More number of theories complicates our understanding. While some of these theories are compatible, others are not. The real challenge facing researchers is how to integrate all or at least some of these theories together so that their inter and

intra-relationships are established. This will also improve the understanding of motivation. Certain attempts have been made in United States of America and elsewhere. However, such efforts have not been standardised or obtained wide approval or acceptance.

**ENHANCING MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATIONS**
Managers trying to enhance the motivation of their employees can, of course, draw on any of the theories described above. They may in practice adopt specific interventions derived from one or more theories or they may influence motivation through their organisations' reward system.

## Organisations Can Enhance Motivation in the Following Ways:

*Humanise the work environment.* Respect the need to treat each employee as an individual.

*Publicise both short and long-term company goals.* Encourage personal and departmental goal-setting.

*Promote from within.* It is great for morale and simplifies hiring procedures.

*Use incentive programs.* If they are creative enough, they would not have to rely on expensive financial bonuses.

*Establish appropriate deadlines.* Every project should have a deadline.

*Be liberal with praise.* It is almost impossible to overpraise and easy to underpraise.

*Be consistent in work and in relations with others.*

*Show personal interests in the employees.* Relations are always smoother between people who know each other on a

personal basis than between people who merely want something from one another.

*Admit mistakes.* People will respect you for it and will be less likely to hide their own mistakes.

***Do not whitewash unpleasant assignments.*** Prepare subordinates for assignements well in advance and offer what support you can.

## MANAGERIAL APPROACHES FOR IMPROVING MOTIVATION

A number of approaches can help managers motivate workers to perform more effectively. Two approaches, however, have been especially effective: *Linking pay to job performance* and *Quality of work-life programs*.

The following steps promote intrinsic motivation:
 1. Workers Participation in Management (WPM).
 2. Management By Objectives (MBO).
 3. Organisation Behaviour Modification.
 4. Job-Redesign.
 5. Alternative Work Schedules.
 6. Pay and Job Performances.
    Pay can often be used to motivate employee perfonnances. A pay plan also must:
    • Create the belief that good performance leads to high levels of pay.
    • Minimise the negative consequences of good performance; and
    • Created conditions in which rewards other than pay are seen to be related to good performances.

# QUALITY OF WORK LIFE PROGRAMS

Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a formal program to integrate employees' needs and well-being with the intention of improved productivity, greater worker involvement and higher levels of job satisfaction.

Programs for QWL improvements range from those requiring minor changes in organisations to those requiring extensive modifications in structure and personnel as well as the utilization of resources. Different types of QWL programs are: *Quality Circles, Alternative Work Schedule*, *Job Redesign, Physical and Intellectual Qualities* and *Abilities.*

## *Quality Circles*

*Quality Circles* are small groups of workers who meet regularly with their supervisors as leaders to solve work-related problems. QCs gives employees opportunities for involvement, social-need satisfaction, participation in work improvement, challenges and opportunities for growth. They are, in essence, vehicles for providing employees with opportunities to satisfy lower and upper-level needs as stated by Abraham Maslow through the motivators described in *Herzberg's Theory.*

## *Alternative Work Schedule*

Organisations also frequently use the *modified work-week* as a way to increase employee motivation. A modified work-week can be any work schedule that does not conform to a traditional 8-hours a day or 5-days a week format. The modified work-week helps individuals satisfy higher-level needs by providing more personal control over their work schedules. It also provides an opportunity to fulfill several needs, simultaneously.

### Job-Redesign

*Job-Redesign* or changing the nature of people's job is also being used more as a motivational technique. The idea here is that managers can use any of the alternatives - job rotation, job enlargement and job-enrichment as part of motivational programmes. *Expectancy theory* helps to explain the roles of work design in motivation.

### Physical and Intellectual Qualities

Physical differences among individuals are the most visible of all differences. They are also relatively easy to assess. Intellectual differences are somewhat more difficult to discern, but they too can be assessed by fairly objective means. The abilities, skills and competencies of employees are both physical and intellectual qualities.

### Abilities

*Abilities* refer to an individuals' skills and to perform effectively in one or more areas of activities, such as physical, mental or interpersonal work. For example, individuals with numerical abilities can be trained to apply their abilities in the field of Engineering, Accounting and Computer Science.

Abilities develop from an individual's natural aptitudes and subsequent learning opportunities. Aptitudes are relatively enduring capacities for performing some activities effectively. Learning opportunities translate aptitudes into abilities through practice, experience and formal training. Organisations have to ensure that people possess the necessary abilities to engage in the behaviours required for effective performances. This can be accomplished either by careful selection of people or by a combination of selection and training.

Skills are generally thought of as being more task-specific capabilities than abilities. For example, an individual with numerical ability who goes to school to learn Accounting develops a numerical skill 'specific to that field'. Thus, when a particular ability is applied to a specialized area (for example, Accounting), it becomes a skill.

Competencies are skills associated with specialisations. They are skills that have been refined by practice and experience, which enable individuals to specialize in some fields. For example, an accountant with numerical ability and accounting skill takes a position in the Taxation Department and as time passes, he develops more competency as a tax expert.

Physical abilities such as strength, flexibility, endurance and stamina can be developed with exercise and training. Mental abilities such as reasoning, memory visualization, comprehension and interpersonal abilities can also be developed through practice and education.

Even in the absence of such formal programmes, many individuals manage their own careers in such a way as to continually upgrade their abilities, skills and competencies in order to remain valuable to their organisations.

## Review Questions
1. What is *Organisational Behaviour*? What are its elements?
2. What are the fundamental concepts of organisational behaviour?
3. Explain the importance of studying organisational behaviour.
4. Discuss the different models of organisational behaviour.
5. Explain the importance of organisational behaviour to managers.
6. What are the limitations of organisational behaviour?

7. Explain the global scenario of organisational behaviour.
8. What are the barriers to cultural adaptation? Suggest measures to overcome those barriers.
9. Briefly state factors that have impacts upon an individual's behaviour in an organization.
10. Define *Personality*. What are its major elements?
11. How does *personality* relate to organisational behaviour?
12. As a manager, how would you enhance employee motivation?

# Chapter Thirteen

# ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

## INTRODUCTION

Understanding administrative behaviour is a critical skill for all staff so they can compete successfully in an ever-changing marketplace where management is able to respond quickly and together. For this to occur, managers and supervisors need to understand how and why individuals behave the way they do and deliver a truly excellent organisation. In this chapter, we shall discuss Administrative Behaviour, Administration as a field of study, identify various influences on behavior in organisations and their impacts and describe the ways in which culture interacts with businesses.

Ways in which culture interacts with business.

Concept of administrative behaviour

Administration as a field of study

Factors that influence behaviour in schools and their impacts
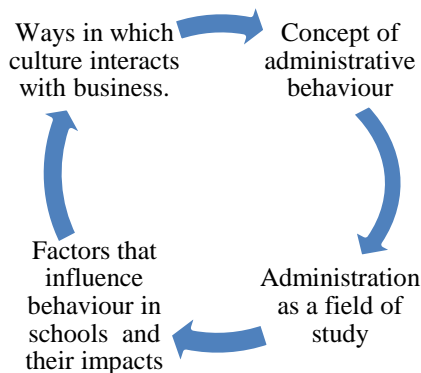
## OBJECTIVES

At the end this chapter, students should be able to know:

- The meaning of Administrative behaviour.
- Administration as a field of study.
- Identify various influences on behaviour in organisations and their impacts.

- Describe ways in which culture interacts with businesses.

## CONCEPT OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

In educational institutions, teachers play important roles. They are not only responsible for passing on knowledge, but are also entrusted with the responsibilities to manage and lead. Leadership is a matter of temperament. Leaders share their visions with those around them in ways that seek to translate visions into realities.

Broadly speaking, leadership is influence. Effective leadership in educational institutions seeks to motivate stakeholders to achieve institutional objectives, sustain cooperation and team work.

Organizations consist of people of different ranks, roles and responsibilities who work to accomplish pre-defined objectives. In view of this, there is need for a person who can supervise the system, guide personnel, plan, organize, and direct managerial activities towards sustainable development through achievement of goals. Such an individual can be called "Leader." His/her capacities to influence others is called *"Leadership."*

Leadership is more than just a science; it is an art. Leadership abilities vary from one leader to another. Some leaders take icy and logical approaches to things while others are violently emotional (Obi, 2017).

School is a formal organization designed to provide the educational needs of pupils and students. In schools, teachers and learners work together to achieve learning objectives. Strong leadership has always been the hallmarks of successful schools. It is pertinent to state that brick and mortar are not what make educational institutions what they should be, nor

are books in libraries or appliances in laboratories, but the abilities to utilize to utilize these resources to achieve learning objectives. At the heart of this is leadership. Leaders make or mar. Teachers are those who create the path for pupils and students to walk through.

The leadership capacities of a school principal determines to a large measure what transpires in his/her school, promotes or impedes, diminishes or strengthens students' academic success (Glassman, et al, 2002). Abelman and Elmore (1999) in Ikediugwu (2018) noted that schools that are best prepared to respond to the educational needs of its pupils/students are those with strong leadership who are willing to nurture and develop common visions.

Principals' leadership approaches tend to have significant impacts on students' attainments beyond the impacts of school situations and principals' demographics. Precise leadership functions linked to student achievement were also accepted and reported. Nowadays, school leaders have versatile roles to play. They are expected to abide by their professional vows, have high communication and interpersonal skills; be emotional mature and psychologically stable. They must be academically sound. The success of any institution depends largely on effective and proactive leadership, which must be self-propelling, motivated and well organized. An administrator must be fair, firm and emotionally intelligent. He/she must have the knack for encouraging minors to be the best versions of themselves and to develop optimal performances through effective management.

## DEFINITION OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Administrative behaviour of a school head can be defined as his mode of action in managing available human and material resources towards making his/her school more effective.

As a field of study, *Administrative Behaviour* is directly concerned with understanding, prediction and control of human behaviours in organizations. It represents the behavioural approach to management, albeit not the whole. In other words, organisational behaviour does not intend to portray the whole of management since there are other recognised approaches to management including *process, qualitative system* and *contingency approaches*.

## EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND BEHAVOURIAL SCIENCES

While educational administration differs in a number of respects from other types of administrations, there are some common elements. According to Ikediugwu (2017), there are four major tasks faced by all administrators which vary chiefly in relative emphasis:

1. An administrator must fulfill the goals of his/her organization.
2. An administrator must make use of other people in fulfilling these goals. They must not be treated as machines, rather they should treated in such a way as to enable them release their initiatives and creativities.
3. An administrator must be humane. He should make the people who work for him to be happy. This is morale, the idea that under suitable conditions people will do

conditions.

4. An administrator must create enabling enviroments for people to be innovative, for changes to occur and for development. In a changing world, people must adapt to changing conditions.

Effective administration is the adoption of common-sense approach to dealing with leadership needs and challenges. It is an art and a series of techniques that can best be transmitted from one administrator to another. While some of these elements will undoubtedly persist, the evidence shows that the study and practice of administration is becoming more scientific.

It is important to state that many of the advances that have been recorded would not have been possible without the contributions of behavioural sciences (often referred to as *The Social Sciences*). All these sciences are concerned with the behaviours of man, especially as it relates to people in the field of education. However, each is concerned with different aspects of human behaviour, or with its analysis and different concepts. All these sciences hold that behaviour and products of men can best be understood on the basis of three concepts:

- **Goals** (end states or conditions).
- **Functions** (activities by which men achieve goals).
- **Arrangements** (structures and mechanisms for arranging activities).

Psychology is primarily interested in the study of individual attributes of people and other organisms. Other disciplines, with collective attributes grew out of group interactions. Many studies conducted by behavioral scientists have not been directly concerned with education or educational

administration. Nevertheless, these studies have provided significant pieces of information and insights that have led to better understanding of individual behaviours, group processes, and organizational challenges. Fortunately, in recent years, a number of behavioural scientists have become interested in various aspects of education ranging from board-superintendent relations, communication and decision-making to economics of school finance. Their studies have provided much-needed insights and knowledge in releavant areas. Several of these studies will be discussed in later chapters of this book. The major point to be emphasized here is that not only students of educational administration, but practicing administrators need to be familiar with and make use of these contributions to effect improvement in education and in educational administration.

## TYPES OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Decision-making is an everyday phenomenon. Decision-making is the heart of all organizations, be they public or private. It is the essence of management. Of all challenges inherent in management, decision-making is the most difficult. In *Public Administration*, decision-making is not as easy as it is in *Business Administration*.

Strategic decisions is the heart and soul of Public Administration, which to a large extent is not free from outside influences. In Public Administration, all types of pressures, direct and indirect are exerted. In view of this, decisions would have to be taken, sometimes to the displeasure and disapproval of the decision-maker. The same cannot be said of *Business Administration,* which is much freer from pressures. Effective management of public or private organizations is anchored on right and responsible decisions.

# DECISION-MAKING DEFINED

Decision-making is defined as *"the selection of a course of action from amongst alternatives; it covers matters relating to planning, organizing, directing, staffing and controlling."* A decision is an act of choice wherein an executive forms a conclusion about what must be done in a given situation. Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines decision-making as *"the act of determining in one's mind upon an opinion or course of action."*

According to Obi (2017), decision-making is "the selection of one behaviour alternative from two or more possible alternatives." In words of Seckler-Hudson:

> *"Decision making in government is a plural activity. One individual may pronounce the decision, but may contribute to the process of reaching the decision. It is part of the political system."*

According to Ishwar Dayal, "Decision is the commitment of the decision-maker to act, thereby committing the personnel, material and financial resources of the organization towards the action objectives." Decision-making includes all the considerations that go into identifying a problem, reaching a conclusion and then taking action.

# CHARACTERISTICS OF DECISION MAKING

1. Decisions are usually made to achieve some purpose or goal.
2. No decision stands alone. They are all linked together in a sequential chain.
3. It occurs over a period of time so that concurrent events would influence the outcome.

**Rational Decision-making process**

This involves several steps leading towards optional solutions. The steps are:

a. To diagnose problems.
b. To analyse internal (time, money, management talents, workers' skills and other resources) and external (economic climate, interest rates, capital markets, politics and social changes and environmental factors).
c. To state problems correctly.
d. To develop alternatives which indicate various courses of action that may achieve the objective.
e. To evaluate alternatives. The advantages and disadvantages of each alternative are taken into consideration. Usually, alternatives are evaluated to satisfy criteria such as sufficiency and feasibility.
f. To select best alternatives that will maximise results in terms of existing objectives.

**Assumptions of Rational Decision-making**

1. There is no conflict over the goal.
2. All relevant criteria can be identified and all viable alternatives can be listed. Further, all possible consequences for each alternative are known.
3. Alternatives can be assigned numerical values and ranked in a preferential order.
4. The alternative that would maximise satisfaction would be selected.

## TYPES OF DECISIONS

The various types of decisions in an organisation are:

## *Organisational and Personal Decisions*

Decisions taken by an executive which directly affect organisational functioning are called *"organisational decisions"* while decisions taken by an executive which affect only his personal life are called "*personal decisions*."

## *Policy and Operative Decisions*

*Policy decisions* are important with long-term impacts. They are made by top management to determine an organization's basic policies. *Operative decisions* relate to day-to-day operations that are handled by members of the lower levels of management.

## *Individual/All Group Decisions*

Individual decisions are taken by an individual while group decisions are taken by a group of people.

### *Routine all Strategic Decisions*

Routine decisions refer to decisions taken in relation to the day-to-day workings of an organisation. Being repetitive in nature, routine decisions are generally delegated to people at the lower levels of an organisation.

Strategic decisions affect organisational structures, objectives, facilities and finances. They are taken at the higher levels of management.

### *Bases of Decision-Making*

The means of arriving at a decision may be rational, deliberate, emotional, impulsive or habitual. Intuition, facts, experience and authority are among the most common bases used in arriving at a decision.

Obi (2015) enumerated twelve factors which must be considered in decision-making: legal limitations, budget, mores, facts, history, internal morale, future as anticipated and roles of superiors; pressure groups, staff, nature of programme and subordinates.

### HINDRANCES TO SOUND DECISION-MAKING

Some hindrances to sound decision-making are:
- Involvement of routine activities.
- Difficulty of timely selection of the problem for solution.
- What is right decision? (Right decisions must accord with general interest, constitutional spirit and moral principles).
- Bias (swaying influence or undue leaning to one side, which may take the form of prejudice in a negative sense and predilection in the positive sense). Bias may be conscious or unconscious, personal or institutional. In Public Administration, bias refers to whether a given

decision has been taken in accordance with departmental rules, norms and traditions).

## ESSENTIALS OF DECISION-MAKING

Some of the important requirements for effective decision-making are:

- Management Information System.
- Knowledge of management techniques (Programme Evaluation and Review Techniques; Critical Path Method, Cost-Benefit and Cost effectiveness; Operation Research, etcetera).
- Familiarity with the aspirations of clients.
- Knowledge of the environment.
- Personnel and organisational requirements.

## COMMUNICATION

### The Communication Process

Any communication involves:

- *An encoder* – the person sends out a message.
- *A decoder* - the person who receives a message.
- *A medium* – Channel through which a message is communicated. This message could be written, oral or non-verbal.
- *Message* - It is the physical form into which the information is encoded (translation of information into a series of symbols).
- *Channel* - Mode of transmission of a message.
- *Decoding* - Interpretation of message by a receiver.
- *Noise* - This refers to factors that hinder effective communication.
- *Feedback* - A receiver's reaction to the message sent by the sender.

## Communication Patterns

Communication could be:

- *Downward* - when it flows from a superior to a subordinate.
- *Upward* - when the flow is from a subordinate to a superior.
- *Lateral* - when it takes place at peer level.
- *Diagonal* - when communication takes place between a manager and members of other work groups, for instance, the Production Manager talking to a salesman.
- *External* - when members of an organisation communicate with people outside their organisation. Each of these patterns will enhance effective communication.

In *downward communication*, job instructions are clear, important points repeated and if a situation demands, it will pass formal communication channels, thus, minimizing role ambiguity.

In *upward communication*, relevant aspects of pieces of information are sent, biases are detected and status difference is cut down.

In *horizontal communication*, an atmosphere of openness and trust is established.

## Communication Networks

The five most common networks are:

- *Chain* - where one person transmits information to another as per the chain in the organisational hierarchy.
- *Wheel* - where one person can communicate with a number of other persons who do not communicate with one another.

- *Circle* - where each of the individuals can communicate with all others.
- *Inverted* - network where two people report to a boss who has two levels above the communication flows in the pattern shown below.
- *All Channel* - where communication is transmitted through all channels.
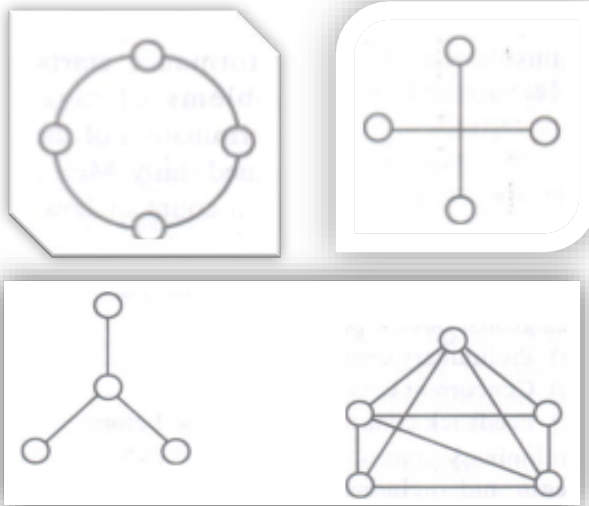


While some of these networks allow for speedy flow of communication, others are better for controlling unnecessary flow of information.

# TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

## *Formal Communications*

These are usually written in black and white and derive their support from formal organisational structure. These communications travel through organisational hierarchy and are associated with particular positions of those who initiate the communication contents as well as recipients of these

messages in the structure. Formal communication usually flows in three directions: *downward, upward* and *lateral*.

## Informal Communications

The informal network of communication is based on social relations within an organisation and cuts across rank or authority lines and follows any path - *horizontal, vertical, diagonal* and *zig-zag*.

Two persons at different levels in an organisation may be communicating with each other in a way not formally charted out in the organisation. Informal channels of communication are also termed "*grapevine."*

*Grapevine* is a powerful medium through which messages get transmitted by word of mouth. It acts as an informal system through which information gets transmitted quickly and often in a distorted manner.

In an organisation, a message must pass three tests:
- It must be understood.
- It must be believed.
- It must be accepted.

## Circuit Model of Communication

The communication situation involving just two persons is a *circuit communication model*. It includes not only the flow of information to a receiver but also the flow of feedback to the sender. The model forms a closed circuit known as *Circuit model of communication*.

## BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Barriers to effective communication are:
- Language difficulties.
- Frame of mind.
- Screening or filtering.
- Lack of desire.

### *Ideological Barrier*

Differences in background, education and expectations are some of the ideological barriers. Others are:

- Mutual distrust.
- Inattention.
- Resistance to change.
- Overloading.
- Timing.
- Size of organization.
- Lack of definite and reeognised means of communication.

Every sound organization like school must take these factors into consideration and must devise its internal communication machinery so as to make the flow of information and orders easy, rapid and accurate.

### *Control*

*Controlling* has been dubbed one of the "Siamese twins" of management. Its twin is *planning*.

*Controlling* is evaluating performance and applying corrective measures so that performances take place according to plans.

*Controlling* can be viewed as detecting and correcting significant variations in results obtained from planned activities. Some errors, loss of efforts, and ineffective directives are bound to take place and make for unwanted deviations from an intended goal.

Control is necessary. Controlling should never be viewed as negative in character. It should be positive. It is a managerial necessity, not an impediment or a hindrance.

Controlling exists at every management level. If other fundamental functions of management such as planning,

organising, and actuating were performed perfectly, there would be little need for controlling.

Controlling does not exist without previous planning, organising, and actuating. It is related to a part of the outputs of the other three fundamental functions of management. Planning bears a close relationship to controlling.

Failure of controlling, sooner or later will translate to failure of planning while success of planning means success of controlling. Effective controlling assists in an effort to regulate actual performances to assure that they take place as planned.

Controlling consists of a process made up of three definite steps:
- Measuring performances,
- Comparing performances with standards and ascertaining the difference, if any,
- Correcting unfavourable deviations by means of remedial actions.

In another way, controlling consists of:
- Finding out what is being done.
- Comparing results with expectancies, which leads to approving or disapproving results.

## BEHAVIOURAL THEORY

Inadequacies of the *Trait Approach* to leadership, perhaps, resulted in a new thinking along different lines. Attention was shifted from what qualities a leader possessed to a leader's capabilities and behaviours. It is believed that once the description of a leader's behaviour has been established, the comparison between effective and ineffective leaders' behaviours can be made using a variety of criteria.

Barnard (1938) in Obi (2017) was the first to distinguish between *effectiveness* and *efficiency* as two basic dimensions of leadership. Halpin (1959) cited in Okorji (2018) delineated two basic dimensions of leadership behaviour as *initiating structure* and *consideration*. Stogdill (1954) and his associates in Obi (2017) proposed two dimensions: *system-oriented* and *person-oriented*.

Here, *effective* or initiating structure or *system-oriented* explains the task dimension behaviour largely devoted to rational use of human and material resources to accomplish the goals of an organization while *efficiency* or consideration or *person-oriented* is a behaviour primarily concerned with maintaining cordial personal relationships with workers. Results of the studies that used this approach showed that leaders who were effective exhibited different behaviours in different situations. Such behaviors are *two-dimensional*.

According to Wiles and Lovell (1975) in Obi (2017), some leadership behaviours necessary for effective group functioning in an institution include:
- Leader should take initiatives.
- Give evidence of desire to cooperate.
- Communicate his/her feelings and thoughts.
- Empathize with those he/she hopes to lead.
- Be creative or original and should of service.
- Be knowledgeable about the area of group concern.
- Attempt to be perceived by followers both as considerate and initiating of structure.
- Work to be perceived as putting great emphasis on both telling and listening or asking for information and raising questions.

It must be noted that effectiveness is achieved in an organization through judicious and appropriate combinations of *initiating structure* and *consideration behaviours* that a leader can show towards his/her subordinates.

The major weakness of *Behavioural Approach* to the study of leadership is its failure to incorporate situational variables in its schemes.

## Summary

In this chapter, we learnt the  meaning of Administrative Behaviour, Administration as a field of study, Various influences on behaviour in organisations and their impacts; Ways in which culture interacts with businesses, Behavioural theories, Decisions, Types of decisions, Communication in an administrative setting, Types of communication and Barriers to effective communication.

## Review Questions

1. What is the meaning of *Administrative Behaviour?*
2. Discuss *Administration* as a field of study.
3. Identify the various influences on behaviour in organisations and their impacts.
4. Describe ways in which culture interacts with businesses.

# Chapter Fourteen

# PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Professional behaviour in a workplace is a form of etiquette in the workplace which is linked primarily to respectful and courteous conducts. These include using good manners, being mindful of personal space and refraining from making references to non-work-related or other inappropriate topics.

Professional behaviour is a form of etiquette in a workplace that is linked primarily to respectful and courteous conduct. Being conscious of how you treat co-workers and clients, and ensuring a positive workplace attitude can help you to improve your productivity and effectiveness in the workplace.

How you behave at work can affect everything, from your relationships with co-workers to finding new opportunities for advancement. Your behaviour can bolster your professional reputation and boost your career almost as much as your skills and experiences do. In this chapter, we list ten ways to maintain professional behaviour in the workplace.

## WHAT IS PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE?

Professional behaviour in the workplace is a combination of attitudes, appearances and manners. It includes the way you speak, look, act and make decisions. The main principles of professional work behaviour include:

1. Treating your managers, colleagues and clients with respect.
2. Projecting a positive attitude.
3. Being polite.

4. Showing good judgment.
5. Being ethical.
6. Dressing appropriately.

Employees who show professionalism at work are often productive, motivated and perform at higher leveld. Colleagues and clients enjoy working with them, and might transition into leadership roles. Some companies have codes of professional conducts that include rules about dress and behaviours to help guide employees.

## TEN WAYS TO MAINTAIN PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOUR IN A WORKPLACE

If you want to improve your performance at work and your chances of career success, consider these professional behaviours that make good impressions on coworkers and employers:

### *Arrive on time*

Punctuality shows your co-workers that you are reliable, care about your work and value their time. Take steps to ensure you are on time for work each day by setting alarms and use of calendar reminders to keep on track for meetings and conferences. Aim to arrive few minutes early. This is important so that should you encounter challenges such as traffic congestion on your way or a need to answer an urgent email before a meeting, you can still stay on schedule.

Also, make sure you follow your company's break schedule. If employees receive an hour for lunch and 15 minutes for breaks, return to work within those limits.

### *Follow your company's dress code*

Regardless of whether your company has a strict dress code, allows casual attire or whether you work from home, maintain

a clean and neat appearance that makes a positive impression on clients and co-workers. Review your company's guidelines about attire, and avoid items such as wrinkled or poorly fitting clothes, ripped jeans, tank tops and flip-flops. Choose something you know that looks professional because you represent the company.

## *Communicate respectfully*

When you are at work, use clean language, even during casual conversations and emails. Avoid gossiping, talking about sensitive subjects and sharing overly personal information with co-workers. If you do need to confide in a colleague, do it in a private space where customers or managers cannot hear you.

During meetings and discussions, speak clearly and courteously so that people can understand you. Listen to your colleagues when they share ideas, and acknowledge the things they say even if you disagree. Your tone and language are equally important when communicating through email. Keep emails professional, because they will become long-term records of conversations.

## *Be honest*

Integrity in the workplace can lead to positive relationships. Co-workers who trust one another are often productive and work well as a team. Be honest if you need personal time off from work or an extra few days to complete a project. Keep company and clients' information confidential. If you see dishonest behaviours elsewhere in your workplace, report it to your manager.

## *Have a positive attitude*

People enjoy working with colleagues who are upbeat and optimistic. If you show up to work motivated and with a good

attitude, your colleagues might be likely to display similar behaviours, which can improve overall office morale. If you encounter challenges at work, try to solve them rather than be complaining about them. Give your colleagues positive feedback and encouragement on projects. Compliment the people around you on their personal and professional achievements.

## *Take responsibility*

Respected professionals set examples by taking responsibilities for their actions. If you make a mistake, always admit it and then take steps to correct it or prevent it from happening again. Avoid blaming others even if they contributed to an issue. Managers appreciate employees who acknowledge failed ideas, missed deadlines or wrong decisions, apologize and try to resolve them. If you realize you need help completing a project or making a big decision, ask for it.

## *Avoid social media*

Even if your job involves posting on social media sites and monitoring company platforms, avoid checking your personal accounts during working hours. If a colleague or manager notices that you are on social media during the day, he/she might question your productivity. Instead, wait until your lunch break to check social media updates. Ensure that you turn off social media notifications so that you would not be distracted or distract others who work near you.

## *Help others*

Offer to help your colleagues when they appear overwhelmed by tasks or are trying to solve challenging issues. Ask if they want your opinions about an idea or your help completing a project. Whatever their responses are, respect them. When you

support your colleagues and work together as a team, you can elevate the entire department. Managers also notice employees who are supportive team members and might consider them for leadership roles.

## *Act ethically*
Workplace ethics involve choosing between right and wrong and maintaining strong morals. Act ethically by:
- Understanding and abiding by company's rules and policies.
- Reporting violations, questionable behaviours, safety concerns or suspicious actions
- Removing personal bias and judgment from your decisions and interactions.
- Being accountable and taking responsibilities for your actions.
- Asking for help in difficult situations.
- When you act ethically, you are more likely to make good decisions that benefit your entire team.

## *Be reliable*
Show your colleagues and manager that they can rely on you to meet deadlines, do quality work and show up to meetings on time. When someone asks you to complete a task, commit to doing it well and finishing it on time. Prepare for meetings by reviewing agendas and bringing notes and discussion points. If your managers know that they can depend on you to do high-quality and timely work, they might give you more responsibilities and independence.

## OTHER PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOURS
According to Ikediugwu (2018), other professional behaviours include, but not limited to: showing compassion for others, responding appropriately to the emotional needs of clients and

family members; demonstrating respect for others, demonstrating a calm, compassionate and helpful demeanour towards those in need; being supportive and caring.

Many organisations have specific codes of conduct in place, but some do not. In general, it comes down to ethics, integrity, dedication, and being conscious of how you treat co-workers.

1. Know your organisation's mission, values and code of professional conduct so that you are clear on the expected workplace attire, priorities, behaviours and outcomes.
2. Be observant of other people's behaviours – take note of how they speak and act towards you and others, and in different work settings. Notice how their behaviours come across in terms of the response they get. Decide what you would like to do differently or similarly.
3. Be respectful of fellow employees, colleagues and clients, regardless of their rank or status – everyone is important. This includes using good manners, being mindful of personal spaces and refraining from referencing non-work-related or other inappropriate topics. Use appropriate language, apologise for errors or misunderstandings, and keep your personal opinions of others private.
4. Manage your emotions and language, especially during stressful times. Learn to recognise and control frustrations, tiredness and other emotional states and never take out those emotions on people in your workplace.
5. Manage your time and know what workload you have to achieve each day. Do not be late to work or take longer than usual breaks; ensure you meet deadlines, turn up for meetings prepared and on time, and respect other people's time.

6. Act honestly and openly so that people can trust you and your words; always give credit where it is due. Do not share confidential, privileged or client information unnecessarily, and never tolerate or justify dishonest conducts by others.

7. Maintain accountability for your work and actions – manage expectations by under-promising and over-delivering. Be honest if things go wrong and take ownership of your mistakes – see them as an opportunity to learn and grow; avoid blame, excuses and denials. Seek help if you need it and work out an effective resolution to move forward.

8. Be supportive of your team and colleagues – help where and when you can, even if it is simply to listen, and be willing to share your skills and knowledge. Thank others when they have done a good job or helped you in some ways.

9. Understand your company's preferred way of communicating, follow any company guidelines and learn the "unwritten" rules that vary from company to company. Read information provided before asking questions. Listen to others when they explain concepts. Do not engage in office gossip. Speak clearly and in language others can easily understand. Be polite. Be careful of the language and tones in written communications. Do not copy others unnecessarily when emailing (but don't intentionally exclude others either).

10. Audit and manage your social media profile to ensure it is appropriate for public viewing, or make it private. Leverage social media to improve your 'online footprint' and enhance your prospects through improved social responsibility. Take out photos or comments that may be

offensive or suggestive to others. Think about what is going to make you stand out and focus your content on positive hobbies, interests, volunteer work or charities you support.

11. Set aside any differences in order to work well with others. You may need to work with people who you do not necessarily like, however, those who work well with others can often advance on that aspect alone, with teamwork, sometimes even outweighing performances.

12. Stay focused on tasks that are assigned to you and ensure that you manage your personal matters so that they do not impact negatively on your work.

13. Ask for feedback so you can find out what you could have done differently or better. That way, you will continue to develop your skills and capabilities while demonstrating your desire for growth.

14. Stay committed, dedicated, positive and consistent - it goes a long way to ensure success and is often contagious with others being inspired to put in a little extra efforts themselves.

## Summary

Essentially, professional behaviour comes down to giving your best at all times while treating others with respect. Think about how your behaviour will be perceived by others and make sure to understand and follow company codes of conduct where they exist.

# Chapter Fifteen

# TEACHERS' ADMINISTRATIVE ROLES

## INTRODUCTION

Since teachers are the ones who manage classrooms and facilitate lesson presentations - helping learners to achieve learning objectives, they are managers of classrooms' human and material resources; counsellors and givers of reinforcements. In this chapter, we shall discuss teachers' administrative roles.

Administrative Roles of the Teacher

Teacher's Participation in School Decision-Making

Classroom Management as One of the Administrative Roles of the Teacher
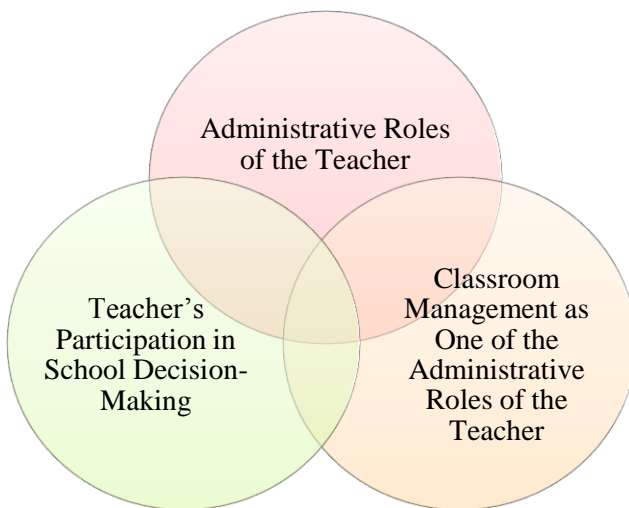
## OBJECTIVES

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

1. Identify the administrative roles of the teacher.
2. Discuss classroom management as one of the administrative roles of the teacher.
3. Discuss teacher's participation in school decision-making.

# MEANING OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom Management is the process by which a teacher gets his/her pupils or students to cooperate in directing actions towards achieving the proper atmosphere or climate in the classroom for learning. It also means arranging classroom resources (pupils/students and equipment) in an orderly manner for effective use and management. This involves placement of pupils'/students' lockers with tables in an orderly manner; leaving windows open to allow for ventilation, central placement of chalkboard; placement of pupils/students with health challenges at appropriate places and other arrangements to make for easy movements.

Beyond orderly placement of pupils/students and facilities, classroom management involves that a teacher should establish clear routines for doing things in order to get orderly behaviours in classroom from pupils/students. For example, when children are given exercises to do in class, they should be told whether they are allowed to talk to one another or not, to take their completed works up to their teacher, monitors or prefects or wait for their teacher to come around.

Similarly, a routine for receiving visitors in class will enable pupils/students to understand what to do whenever a visitor arrives. The teacher should teach his/her pupils/students on the procedure for getting attention, whether it is by taking turns in a line or by scrambling. The teacher should establish the process for doing classroom chores such as cleaning chalkboards, setting chalks and dusters, sweeping classrooms, watering plants, if any, closing windows after class/school activities and distributing pupils'/students' exercise books.

# PURPOSE

The major purpose of orderly arrangement of pupils/students and equipment is to create a conducive school or classroom environment for learning. A well-organized classroom environment leads to efficiency in the use of class space, class time, use of teacher and pupils'/students'energies, the use of teaching and learning materials. It also helps the teacher to create an atmosphere which would foster imaginative and creative activities. Routines have to be set up for doing a number of chores so that respect for others' rights, care of classroom facilities and cleanliness are properly provided for. It will also enable the teacher and learners to work smoothly in classrooms without interrupting and unduly disrupting teaching and learning activities.

Furthermore, teaching materials like chalk, dusters, globes, maps, charts, graphs, realia, orthography, flannel/graphs, etcetera should be stored in places where they are easily accessible so that they can be taken out and used when necessary without undue inconvenience.

In a well managed classroom, the teacher and his/her pupils/students work out an acceptable procedure for pupils'/students movements in and out as well as within the classrooms. When pupils or students need to leave classrooms to ease themselves, they need not disturb the whole class, but only make a sign to the teacher, monitors or prefects. They should develop a sense of timing which considers others' feelings and conveniences. During certain lessons, it might be desirable for pupils/students to discuss or consult one another. This should be agreed upon so that it should not be regarded as disruptive.

The teacher should create attractive learning atmosphere. Seats for young children should conform to their sizes. Cleanliness, which promotes a child's aesthetic sense should be maintained. Taller pupils/students should sit at the back while shorter ones should sit in front. Those who are hard of hearing should be allowed to sit in front to be able to hear the teacher. Pupils/students with poor eyesight should have their sitting positions adjusted to suit their condition. Children with high I.Q should be given more challenges while those of low I.Q should be helped to move at their own pace.

Courtesy, promptness, punctuality can become part of the inbuilt management of classrooms. The teacher should set standards in being courteous, punctual, pleasant and tidy, both in personal appearances and the way he/she arranges his/her table and books in classroom. Thus, a well-organized teacher runs a well-managed classroom.

To be able to achieve good class management, the teacher needs to pay attention to two qualities, namely:


Efficiency    Effectiveness

### *Efficiency*
The efficiency of a teacher is the measure of the direct activities of his class. For a teacher to efficiently manage his class, he needs to be qualified, systematic and enthusiastic.

A teacher needs to be qualified for the job. He needs to have the knowledge of not only what he has to teach, but also of how to teach. In terms of knowledge, the teacher must always know more than his pupils/students. This means that a teacher

must continue to read widely and deeply to be able to keep up with new developments and point them out to his pupils/students. In terms of how to teach, the teacher needs to be trained in the act of teaching. In addition to his training in a teachers' training college or university, he should take advantage of in-service training, seminars and workshops to keep him up-to-date in the area of teaching methodologies.

To be efficient, a teacher needs to be systematic in his class management. He must achieve what he sets out to do within a given time. They include seating arrangements, cleaning the classroom, tidiness and orderliness, storage of equipment, permission to leave class, lesson preparation, marking and return of pupils'/students' assignments.

The teacher should be proud of his profession. He should be punctual to school and be well-prepared for each lesson to be taught. Anything which is worth doing is worth doing well. He should maintain a high degree of enthusiasm.

### *Effectiveness*
The effectiveness of a teacher is measured by the academic achievements of his pupils/students and the level to which they display the type of behaviour expected of them by society. For a teacher to manage his class effectively he needs to assess his pupils/students continuously, communicate clearly and set a good personal examples.

The teacher needs to keep good records of the work of his pupils/students. Pupils/students should be given assignments regularly so that they can practice for themselves what they have been taught. The teacher must also develop the habit of correcting and marking his pupils'/students' works quickly and also have pupils/students correct their own errors. Delays

in correcting pupils'/students' assignments can lead to establishing wrong ideas in their minds - that the subjects is difficult to understand. Continuous assessment will help the teacher to know the performances of each pupil/student and will be able to determine the level of help each pupil/student needs.

For the teacher to be effective, he needs to be able to communicate clearly with his students. If a teacher cannot communicate properly with his pupils/students, they will not understand him well, and may find learning his subject difficult. The teacher's language must be simple, clear and to the point. The use of appropriate audio-visual media helps a great deal in communicating. In the area of character training, the teacher must see himself as a model to his students. Children are very observant and tend to imitate their teachers. Teachers, therefore, owe it to society in general to give a good example for pupils/students to follow. Teachers must have a high sense of responsibilities for their behaviours.

## TEACHER AS PARTICIPANTS IN DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is the process by which a teacher chooses his course of action from various alternatives in order to achieve his objectives. You should take note of two important points here: first, decision-making involves a choice. If there is only one course of action and there are no other alternatives to consider, then there is no decision to be made. Second, there are two types of decisions, namely: *individual decisions* and *group decisions*.

*Individual decisions* are decisions a teacher takes himself on, those activities that he must carry out alone.
Such activities include:

- Breaking up of the syllabus into terminal and weekly schemes of work or breaking up the scheme of work into units and daily lesson topics.
- The sequence of topics to be taught.
- Initiating the back-up plans.
- Selecting teaching and learning materials to be used.
- Choosing resource persons to be used.
- Making lesson plans and writing lesson notes.
- Arranging field-trips or educational visits.

*Group decisions* are decisions a teacher has to take with other people. It allows for participation of different interest groups in the decision-making process. Such interest groups include pupils/students, other teachers, parents and the host community. Under group decisions are:

1. Decisions with students are decisions which call for the active participation of the students in such areas as of class leader or (monitor), unscheduled lessons and extra lessons outside the normal time-table, and extra-curricular activities.
2. Decisions with other teachers are decisions that would require the cooperation of other teachers in such areas as the use of common school facilities like the games field and school library; planning of the general school time-tables, common school activities, team-teaching, or team-planning of subject matter and the sequence of teaching.
3. Decisions with parents are decisions that would require the cooperation of parents in areas such as parents' consents for their children to go on a field-trip or an excursion that might involve risks as well as the discipline of problem children.

4. Decisions with the host community are decisions that would require the cooperation of the host community in such areas as community service programmes and cultural activities.

## CONCLUSION
The teacher plays some administrative roles to establish a conducive school climate to achieve set objectives.

## Summary
The teacher undertakes classroom management and participates in decision-making as part of his administrative roles to achieve school effectiveness.

## Review Questions
1. Prepare a checklist from the items discussed in this chapter to be used to evaluate pupils/students' learning environment.
2. From your understanding of our discussions, what does the term, "*Classroom Management*" mean?
3. What two qualities will a teacher need for good class management?

# Chapter Sixteen

# ACADEMIC ROLES OF A TEACHER AS AN ADMINISTRATOR IN CLASSROOM

## INTRODUCTION

Before now we have discussed the meaning of a teacher, roles of a teacher in school, teacher's attitudes and others. It is hoped that you gathered that the teacher's attitude to his work, students' attitude to their studies and the class work can create and influence a school environment and classroom climate that would promote effective teaching and learning. If the teacher is characterized with emotional stability, patience, honesty, knowledge/ability, resourcefulness, appreciation, interest, gentleness, humility, and understanding of the children's needs, then he or she can create a school or classroom environment that will help children to learn. In this chapter, we shall discuss the teacher's Academic role.

Academic Role of The Teacher

How Teacher and Children Contribute to Indiscipline in School.

School Discipline

Teacher's Role in Keeping Discipline in Classroom
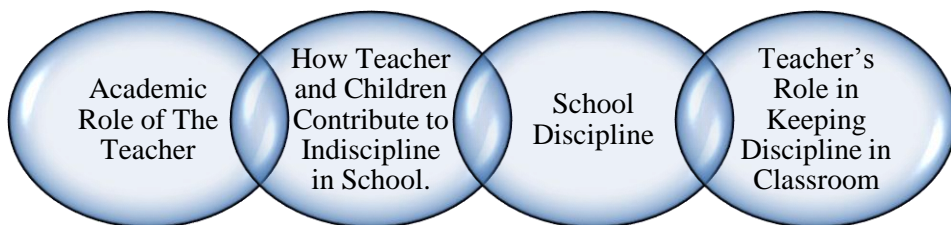
## OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to:
▪ Identify the academic role of the teacher.
▪ Discuss the academic role of the teacher.

- Know how teacher and children contribute to indiscipline in school.
- Outline any roles of a teacher in keeping discipline in school environment and classrooms

## ACADEMIC ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The academic role of a teacher refers to the teaching job of the teacher. The job of a teacher is developing human potentials through good and effective teaching in a school environment. The teacher believes that the environment is a crucial factor in human development, and that it determines what a child finally becomes. This implies that when a child is born, he comes like a clean slate into an environment. The environment influences a child and makes him/her what he or she finally becomes as an adult. The teacher is engaged to maximize the school environment to provide a variety of environmental stimuli that can encourage children in an active process of learning. Such enthusiastic learning leads to a permanent change of behaviour within an individual.

The roles teachers perform include:
- Interpretation of the curriculum.
- Developing the syllabus.
- Mapping out the scheme of work.
- Preparing lesson plans and lesson notes.
- Teaching with motivation and reinforcement.
- Application of varying methods, skills and materials to provide for individual differences.
- Testing for set objectives and recycling where objectives are not achieved comprise the academic roles of teachers.
- Interpretation of the curriculum is also one of the academic roles of teachers.

School curriculum is the programme of studies, activities and guidance/counselling which a school wants its students to have so that students at the end of schooling would have realized the optimum development of intellect, character, skill and competences to function in their social environment with happiness.

Interpreting a school curriculum starts with a classroom's teacher understanding the reason for teaching various subjects in the curriculum. The teacher should also understand how his or her subject fits into the overall school curriculum. If a school curriculum is to serve real purpose, then it must assist each pupil/student to see the value of the past in relation to the present and the future. It must equip pupils/students with the necessary skills for modern living, and helps to keep them as fully integrated members of their communities.

The teacher coordinates different activities and experiences in the classroom in order to ensure harmonious functioning of the learning process that leads to the expected changes in behaviour.

To assist the teacher achieve this goal, he/she develops his/her lesson plans from the scheme of work and the teaching syllabus. By so doing, the teacher takes decisions that inevitably change the curriculum from exactly what was intended by the curriculum planners to what is experienced in the classroom by learners. The teacher makes analysis of his learners or students to understand their characteristics, determine their developmental levels and needs as well as differences in the learners. The teacher decides what to teach his students and the tasks involved. He also decides the instructional objectives on the basis of the objectives. The teacher decides how to teach it (method), the materials to use

as well as the teaching skills to employ and the evaluation criteria to determine when objectives are achieved. After planning and making preparations/arrangements, the teacher makes a written summary of the lesson plan in his lesson note.

The second role of the teacher is that of carrying out the teaching of planned lessons. The main focus of a teacher's lesson presentation is to change his learners' behaviours. The teacher should use appropriate entry behaviour tests to determine students' readiness. He should also use appropriate set-induction teaching skills to arouse their interests to pay attention to the lessons being taught.

According to Obiakor (2020), to further hold their interests and attention, the teacher should ensure that his teaching proceeds from:
- Known to unknown.
- Simple to complex.
- Particular to general.

The teacher should use varieties of teaching methods as determined by the lesson objectives. Methods of teaching used should provide students' natural tendencies to express themselves and to do things. The use of a variety of teaching materials selected at the planning stage in the light of the stated objectives should be adopted. The use of concrete materials like real objects, pictures, graphs, charts, drawings, etcetera to improve teaching and learning should be adopted.

The use of multi-media materials is advocated, some for interest arousal while others are for deepening understanding. The teacher's and students' abilities to improvise is very necessary particularly when selected teaching and learning

materials are not available and cannot be bought, especially at this period of economic hardship.

The teacher's third role is that of a helper or a facilitator. The teacher, therefore, should help and guide learners in actively making discoveries and solving problems. It is the child, not the teacher who is there to do the learning. In other words, it is not the role of the teacher to explore the environment and discover things for the learners while they watch and listen. Children are by nature active, inquisitive and curious. They normally come to school with these characteristics. It is unfortunate that it is in the school that teachers turn children into passive listeners as they talk and chalk on the board in their classrooms. You must note that when a child is quiet, he or she must be sick. The role of the teacher is to encourage children to be active and to direct their activities along the lines specially prepared by the school.

It has been observed that learners (both children and adults) learn by listening and watching, but they will learn better, that is, more rapidly and with a higher level of retention if they are actively involved in the learning process. This explains why learners should be encouraged to discuss problems, think out solutions and practice skills. They must be given opportunities to practice what they learn before they forget them or dismiss them from their memories. Learners learn by solving realistic problems. Therefore, teachers should present practical realistic problems to learners.

The fourth role of the teacher is to use reinforcement in the form of verbal praise, approving words such as 'very good,' 'excellent,' 'very well done,' 'good' and other forms of reinforcements like prizes, special tributes, citations, awards, certificates, etceter to strengthen students' emitted behaviours

in right directions. This will bring about desired behaviours to be repeated by students. For reinforcement to be most effective in learning, it must follow immediately after the behaviour being reinforced, and there will be clear evidences to learners that the two (the emitted desired behaviour and the reinforcement) are connected. Sheer reinforcement is an unsatisfactory way to learn.

The teacher should also practice use of reviews. It is known that frequent reviews immediately after initial learning, followed by not so frequent ones over a period of time helps to "settle" what is learned and aids retention of knowledge. The teacher should note that pleasurable experiences are the easiest to remember. Memory works best when it is not a rule to be driven by force. A teacher who is aware of this and who wishes his pupils/students to remember what is taught knows that he must make his teaching pleasurable, vivid and full of life.

The fifth role is that of a manager of his class' human and material resources. The teacher must arrange his pupils/students in an orderly manner and maintain adequate control for effective teaching to take place.

The sixth role is that the teacher is his/her pupils'/students' counsellor in class. He/she should solve the learning and sometimes personal problems of his/her students. This is because unless such problems are identified and nipped in the bud, they will adversely affect the learning abilities of these pupils/students.

## MEANING OF DISCIPLINE

Discipline means many things to many persons. To some persons, *discipline* means *punishment*. To some others, discipline means *control by enforcing obedience and orderly*

*conduct*. Here, "orderly conduct" means *without confusion*. It is a condition in which everything is carefully arranged. For example, when classrooms, football fields, laboratories, office spaces, workshops, flowers and hedges, etcetera are carefully arranged, we say there is order or harmony in a school.

Discipline and order go together. Discipline, therefore, refers to a systematic training through education in accordance with rules and regulations to achieve orderly conducts. In other words, *discipline* is the act of training a person to exercise self-control and to become cultured. *Orderly conduct*, therefore, is evidence that there is discipline in a school.

Discipline is learner-centred. The teacher only helps and guides learners to develop discipline. Against the foregoing, we can define discipline in this unit as *the training which helps to guide, correct or strengthen a person to build and develop inner controls which leads to self-control or self-discipline*. Here, self-discipline transfers responsibility for self-control or discipline to a child or learner while the teacher's role is that of helping and guiding him/her to build up strength and develop inner controls by use of reward and punishment. The question about discipline is: *"How do teachers help children become responsible, law-abiding persons, able to consider the welfare of others, and to carry out responsibilities in spite of frustrations?"* To answer these questions correctly, let us discuss the various types of discipline that exist in schools' environments.

## School Discipline
*School discipline* refers to rules and strategies applied in school to manage students' behaviours and practices used to encourage self-discipline.

School discipline addresses school-wide, classroom and individual students' needs through broad prevention, targeted interventions, and development of self-discipline. Approaches to school discipline range from positive (example, school-wide, school climate improvements and use of restorative practices) to punitive (example, suspension, expulsion and corporal punishment). How school discipline is handled has a great impact on schools' learning environments.

## *Punitive school discipline does not improve students' behaviours or academic achievements*

Students who have been suspended are significantly more likely to drop out of school and become involved in juvenile justice system than their peers. Suspensions are often subjectively applied in such cases. For example, a significant percent of suspensions and expulsions are for trivial or minor offenses (example, "being disrespectful" or violating school dress code). Schools that approach school discipline punitively affect the overall schools' climates, creating a more negative environment for all students, including those without issues of discipline.

## *Establishing and maintaining a positive school climate helps to encourage self-discipline and prevent problems associated with discipline*

Establishing and maintaining a positive school and classroom climate allows a school community to proactively prevent disciplinary issues by increasing the strength and quality of classroom activities. Implicit in this approach is the assumption that participating in well-managed classroom activities encourages self-discipline by teaching students about what is possible through cooperation and coordination with others. It also provides the essential conditions for caring,

support, clear expectations and guidance that nurture healthy students' development and motivation.

*Using positive approaches when disciplinary issues arise reconnects students to their peers and teachers, improving the school experience for the community*

A positive approach to discipline shifts the focus of discipline from punishment to restoration of relationships and restored understanding of and commitment to rules and order. The purpose of discipline, then, becomes the teaching of civility and interpersonal skills as well as the reconnection of alienated students. Preventive methods and multi-tiered models can provide pre-planned responses to disruption/violence, laying foundations for positive disciplinary methods to be successful in creating a safe school and the appropriate conditions for teachers to instruct effectively and for students to learn.

## TYPES OF DISCIPLINE

### Teacher-imposed discipline

This refers to a teacher preferring to control the behaviours of his/her pupils rather than helping them to develop control. This is an unsatisfactory training in self-discipline.

### Group-imposed discipline

Peer group is an important force in regulating pupils/students' behaviours. A wise teacher should work with peer groups and not against them in regulating the behaviours of his/her pupils/students.

### Task-imposed discipline

Classroom tasks that are interesting and involving to pupils/students automatically regulate their behaviours.

## *Punishment*

Punishment can be physical or psychological. According to Obi (2017), the following should guide administration of punishment in schools:

1. Punishment is more effective if the teacher already has a positive relationship with a pupil/student or pupils/students to be punished.
2. The pupil/student should be quite clear as to why he/she is being punished.
3. It should be administered early in a series of misbehaviours and should be applied systematically.
4. Punishment should be adequate and prompt.
5. It should be corrective and administered in love, not in anger.
6. Punishment should address the cause, not the effect.
7. It should be directed to the goals of self-discipline and given where and when the offence was committed.
8. It should teach respect for authority.
9. It should serve as a deterrent.
10. It should spur one to positive action.

**Punishments Can Be in the Form of:**

- *Advice* - pointing out a person's mistakes; conference with offender's parents.
- *Censure* - that is, a reprimand or reproof of an offender.
- *Class scolding* - the offender may be asked to stand up and be scolded in front of the class.
- *Deprivation* - the offender could be administered deprivation as punishments such as loss of marks when an offender is caught cheating.
- *Loss of position* - stop a pupil/student from performing responsibilities like monitorship/prefectship duties.
- Deprivation of pleasure.

- Sending the child out of class.
- Detention and imposing a force on the offender.

These are mild punishments.

**Harsh or Serious Punishments are:**
- Corporal punishment.
- Suspension.
- Expulsion.
- No matter the form of punishment administered to a pupil/student, it may harden the offender. It may also ridicule him/her. Corporal punishment may inflict an injury on the recipient.

## CAUSES OF INDISCIPLINE IN CLASSROOMS

Many conditions exist within schools' environments, which can cause indiscipline. These are:

### 1. Learners can be sources of indiscipline due to:
- Wrong peer group influences.
- Wrong home training.
- Poor feeding.
- Poor academic performances.
- Inadequate school materials.
- Inherent negative tendencies in pupils/students.

### 2. Teachers can also be source of indiscipline in schools because of:
- Lateness to school.
- Absence from school.
- Inadequate lesson preparation.
- Poor teacher personality.
- Poor teaching.
- Existence of cheating among teachers.
- Sexual immorality.
- Carefree attitude.

### *3. Mistakes made by some School Heads*
- Too many school rules.
- Lack of close contacts between school heads and their staff.
- Mistrust by head teachers on their staff.
- Lateness to school.
- Absence from school.
- Lack of effective supervision.
- Lack of courtesy and tact in handling matters.
- Sexual immorality.
- Laissez-faire attitudes.

## TEACHERS' ROLES IN ENTRENCHING DISCIPLINE IN CLASSROOMS

1. Teachers must be sympathetic towards misbehaving pupils/students and try to find out the cause of the indiscipline. This is preferred to teachers resorting to punishments which at times could be "too harsh."
2. Teachers should praise and give social approval than giving blame, punishment and criticisms.
3. It is unwise to punish a whole class for the misconduct of an individual or small group of learners.
4. Teachers should not consider a pupil's/student's misconduct as a personal insult.
5. Few school rules should be made.
6. Rules to guide behaviour of pupils/students in class should be made by pupils/students or with the assistance of the teacher.
7. Whenever disciplinary issues arise, the teacher should search himself/herself first and asking pertinent questions like: *"What is wrong with my teaching method? Are there issues with my materials, attitudes, dressing and language?"* The teacher should bear in

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mind that some misbehaviours may be as a result of physical or medical disorder.

8. Whenever a pupil/student misbehaves, the teacher should make efforts to study him/her to determine which of his/her needs have not been satisfied. The teacher should ensure that school experiences are satisfying to pupils/students.

9. Teachers should prefer prevention of disciplinary disorder to trying to remedying difficulties that have arisen. They should ensure that children have sufficient readiness and are highly motivated. They should treat pupils/students with sympathy, consideration and understanding to curtail disciplinary problems from arising.

10. Teachers should have good lesson plans summarized in their lesson notes.

11. Teachers should use varieties of teaching methods, skills and media in lesson presentations.

12. Teachers should possess good personalities.

13. Teachers should give pupils/students assignments with enough challenges.

14. Teachers should be punctual to school and class. They should not leave their classes and school before closing time.

15. Teachers should give rewards to pupils/students for good behaviours to motivate them. These will lead to healthy competitions.

## CONCLUSION

Teachers perform many academic roles in schools' environments to achieve effective teaching and learning. Discipline is the training, which helps, guides and corrects or strengthens pupils/students to build and develop inner

controls, which lead to self-control or self-discipline. Teachers plays varieties of roles to train pupils/students to become disciplined.

## Summary

There are six roles that teachers play that affect their teaching effectiveness:

1. Interpreting school curriculum.
2. Carrying out teaching of planned lessons in classrooms.
3. Helping learners as facilitators.
4. They serve as human and material resource managers of their classes.
5. They serve as pupils'/students' counsellors.
6. They serve as reinforcers of desired emitted behaviours.

Sources of students' disciplinary challenges in schools' environments are numerous. No matter the identified sources of indiscipline, good teachers will always check indiscipline through the many roles they play in classrooms.

## Review Questions

1. How will teachers sustain the interests of learners?
2. List any five academic roles of teachers and discuss one.
3. With three examples in each case, show how teachers and pupils/students contribute to indiscipline in schools.
4. Outline any three roles of teachers in keeping discipline in schools and classrooms.

# Chapter Seveteen

# TEACHERS' ROLES IN ENTRENCHING DISCIPLINE IN CLASSROOMS

## INTRODUCTION

Teachers are participants in decision-making. As Games' Masters or Mistresses, teachers help to determine the operational effectives of extracurricular activities within schools. Teachers also play the roles of Games' Counsellors and evaluate extra-curricular programme of activities against set objectives. The success of pupils/students' participations in extracurricular activities depend to a large extent on the discipline in and outside classrooms. In this chapter, we shall discuss teachers' roles in discipline in classrooms.

Causes of children's indiscipline behaviour

Importance of maintaining classroom discipline

Measures to curb indiscipline in the classroom

Teacher's role in keeping discipline in the classroom

Factors responsible for discipline problems in the classroom;
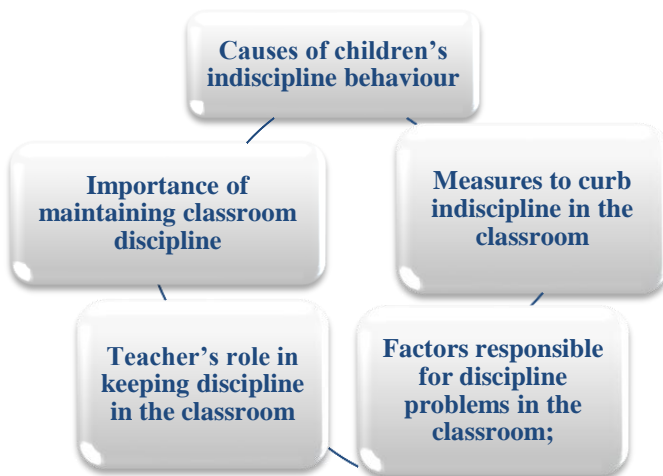
## OBJECTIVES

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

▪ Explain causes of pupils/students' indiscipline.

- Identify measures to curb indiscipline in classrooms.
- Discuss factors responsible for indiscipline in classrooms
- Identify and explain teachers' roles in sustaining discipline in classrooms.

## CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES CAN CAUSE CHILDREN TO BECOME INDISCIPLINE

Because nature abhors vacuum, when children do not have enough class activities to keep their idle hands busy, they can decide to try a number of actions such as climbing over desks, drawing funny pictures, dropping things on the floor, giggling, lighting matches on other children, tapping on desks, talking, throwing things, tickling or teasing other children and writing or carving on desks to mention but these. Others are:

## Physical Discomfort of the School Environment

When children are not comfortable where they learn, they may not learn well. Physical discomfort can lead to disciplinary problems such as: coughing intentionally to disturb the class, eating in classroom, and fidgeting; frequent movements in and out of classrooms, inattention, quarrelling with other children, yawning or sleeping.

## Poor Teaching Methods

When a teaching method is unvaried or does not suit the content being taught, when teaching is mainly teachers' talk and chalk, there is little or no reinforcement for children's efforts, children can protest by displaying unusual behaviours which could be deemed an act of indiscipline.

## Unsuitable Tasks

When a learning task is too difficult or too easy, learners could resort to unacceptable behaviours. Similarly, imbalance in grouping students, misunderstanding and anxiety can also

trigger off behaviours which could lead to disciplinary problems.

## IMPORTANCE OF MAINTAINING CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE

## What Is Discipline In The Classroom?

To define discipline, one must refer to the strategies a teacher uses to manage pupils'/students' behaviours during lessons, as well as the code of behaviour that students must comply with. This code of behaviour usually includes rules of attendance, dress code, social behaviours, and work ethics. The term may also be applied to the punishment that is the consequence of the transgression of the code of behaviour.

## What Are The Three Types of Discipline?

The three types of discipline are *preventative, supportive,* and *corrective*.

*Preventative discipline* is about establishing expectations, guidelines, and classroom rules for behaviours during the first days of lessons in order to proactively prevent disruptions.

On the other hand, *Supportive discipline* occurs in the case of a transgression. It is usually a verbal warning or a suggestion for the correction of behaviour.

*Corrective discipline* comes into play when a pupil/student has failed to change his or her behaviour after repeated attempts at supportive discipline. It mostly refers to the consequences delivered following an infraction.

## 3 TYPES OF DISCIPLINE

**Preventative discipline**

*Establishing classroom rules to prevent disruptions*

- Posting classroom rules on a wall
- Reminding the students of the rules every day
- Giving rewards for good behavior
- Verbalizing the consequences of bad behavior
- Making sure that each student is clearly visible to the teacher
- Asking parents to sign the list of classroom rules
- Involving school administrators into rules enforcement

**Supportive discipline**

*Measures taken when classroom rules are broken*

- The teacher's immediate and confident reaction to disruptive behavior
- Reminding the students of the rules
- Verbal warnings
- Nonverbal warnings
- Redirecting the disruptive student's behavior
- Redirecting the students' attention to a new educational task

**Corrective discipline**

*Measures taken when supportive discipline doesn't help*

- Verbal altercation with the disruptive student
- Placing the disruptive student in a time out
- Removing the disruptive student from the classroom
- Informing the principal of the student's bad behavior
- Informing the parents of the student's bad behavior
- Scheduling a meeting with the parents and with the principal

## What Is The Importance of Discipline In Schools?

Discipline in school life is extremely important, as it sets the foundations for pupils' and students' successes later in life. Discipline is a transferrable skill which has lots of virtues such as professional successes through being focused and staying healthy. Discipline is what helps students to achieve good performances in schools. It is also responsible for being orderly in classrooms.

## How Does Poor Classroom Management Affect Learning?

Poor classroom management affects students' motivation, which inevitably negatively impacts their academic performances. Teachers who fail to manage their classrooms effectively by not setting rules, routines and doing inadequate preparations create learning environments that are chaotic and counterproductive for learning.

# DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS

Even the most experienced teachers have to face indisciplines in classrooms. Unruly students' behaviours means that instructional time is lost and students get off tasks. It is a teacher's job to figure out why a discipline problem occurs and how to best solve it in a well-managed learning environment.

## What Are The Causes of Indiscipline in Classrooms?

There are many causes of indiscipline in classrooms. Handling indiscipline requires sensitivity and insight on the part of teachers in order to understand the root of the issue. Some common causes of indiscipline in classrooms include problems at home (example, a student experiencing emotional turbulence at home) and learning disabilities like ADD, which can cause lack of focus. Discipline problems in classrooms are also more likely to arise if there is lack of clear communication about rules and the consequences for breaking them.

## What Are Some Disruptive Behaviours In Classrooms?

Some common disruptive behaviours in classrooms include: talking in class, late arrivals or early departures, persistent use of electronic devices, eating, drinking, or sleeping in class, and, more seriously, threats of violence, physical and verbal aggressions.

## What Are Major and Minor Disruptive Behaviours?

Two categories of disruptive behaviours in classes are *minor* and *major*.

*Minor disruptions* include: unintended hurtful words, not working on tasks, lateness and use of electronic devices. While

these require a warning from the teacher, they can be easily ignored and do not seriously disrupt teaching or learning activities.

*Major disruptions*, on the other hand, go beyond rudeness and include profane language directed towards others, sexual words and innuendos; physical threats, vandalism and stealing.

## How Do Disruptive Students Affect Classrooms?
Disruptive behaviours by students interferes with teachers' abilities to effectively deliver lessons as they require large amounts of teachers' time and attention in order to be addressed. Disruptive students can also influence their peers with their actions and encourage them to behave similarly, compromising their teachers' authorities.

## How Do Students' Behaviours Affect Learning?
According to *Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria*, exposure to even mild classroom disruptions lowers the standards of academic achievements for all students in a class. Constant interruptions can interfere with focus and detract from learning.

## How To Handle Disruptive Behaviours
There are many different types of disruptive behaviours that can prevent effective teaching and learning. Therefore, it is vital that teachers work on perfecting their practices for managing them.

Teachers should create classroom behavioural expectations from the first day of class by outlining both productive and disruptive types of behaviours, the process by which disruptive behaviour will be addressed, and the consequences for ongoing disruptive behaviours.

# How Do You Calm A Noisy Classroom?

A noisy classroom is a very common occurrence that can be disruptive to the teaching and learning processes, whether it is caused by students raucously returning to class from their breaks or classmates gossiping together during lessons.

The best way to ensure a quiet classroom is by cultivating a peaceful atmosphere and establishing respect for the teacher from the get-go. You must set the tone and expectations on your first day, making students understand that the classroom is a place for learning, not for socializing.

*To quieten chatter in a class*, resist raising your voice, which only works to encourage more noise. Help students familiarize themselves with your non-verbal cues for quietening down the class, which includes hand signals, counting down backward from 5 until silence is achieved or clapping.

# What Exactly Should I Say If A Student Is Disruptive In Class?

Disruptive students can be a big distraction in class. Even when teachers clearly set boundaries for behaviours, disruptions may occasionally take place. Teachers should be careful to assess each incident individually and respond appropriately, as causes for disruptive behaviours can vary.

In all cases, teachers must remain calm and firm when addressing disruptive students, explaining to them what it is that they are doing wrong, why it is a problem, and what the proper behaviour is. It is important to listen to what students have to say and make them feel understood.

## How Do You Discipline A Student Without Yelling? Can Teachers Yell At Students?

Even though teachers are allowed to yell at students in order to discipline them, it is not advisable as it sets a poor model. Yelling is a sign of loss of control that can be counter-productive, driving a wedge between a teacher and his or her students and provoking fear.

There are plenty of methods that do not involve yelling that a teacher can use to maintain order and control in their classrooms. Establishing routines with students from the beginning of an academic year is particularly vital to maintaining good discipline. A variety of classroom management techniques such as *countdowns* and *revoking privileges* can be adopted to help you gain control of unruly students.

## How Do You Handle Conflicts Between Students and Their Teachers?

Student-teacher relationships can be complicated. It is not unusual for students to end up in conflicts with their teachers. Some conflicts are healthy and arise naturally through debates due to competing ideas on various issues. However, if a conflict situation persists and appears to be antagonistic in nature, you should address this directly with your students. Listen to them to get their perspectives and carefully explain your position on the conflict in a way that they understand.

Teachers can seize this opportunity to teach their students the rules of civic discourse and effective self-expression. When you have tried everything to no avail, try getting assistance from a colleague, the principal or the school's administration.

## How Do You Deal With Aggressive Students In Classroom?

Aggressive students often antagonize others and are drawn to physical fights or verbal arguments. Aggression constitutes severe misbehaviours and should, therefore, be dealt with accordingly, with stiff consequences that send a clear message that this type of behaviour will not be tolerated.

If you are breaking up a fight between students, you must remain assertive and speak in a firm, no-nonsense manner. If necessary, you could consider giving the aggressive student a time-out, separating them from the rest of the class.

## How Do You Handle An Argumentative Student?

Argumentative students who disrupt the class can be difficult to handle. If you are wondering how to discipline argumentative students, the answer is to try to understand the motives for their behaviours and allow them to be heard without losing your temper. This will help you to get to the root of the problem.

While confronting students, you must show them that you have control over the situation by being firm and outlining the consequences of their actions. Speak with them privately and create a behaviour-management plan for them to deal with possible anger management issues.

## How Do You Respond To A Disrespectful Student?

When confronted with disrespect, an easy mistake to make is to take it personal. Disrespect can be an indication of complex psychological issues that a student is facing. Resist the urge to admonish, scold or lecture the disrespectful student and respond with kindness instead, modeling the type of behaviour the student should ideally be exhibiting.

Turn the incident into a memorable lesson for the student by delivering consequences, but ensure to do this privately, rather than shaming him/her in front of his/her peers. For overt disrespectful behaviours, students' parents should be notified by letter, an act which adds a layer of seriousness and accountability.

## How Do You Deal With Disturbing Students?

It is very important that teachers talk to parents of disturbing students who are constantly making troubles. Empathize with students and try to get to the bottom of their behaviours, while staying in close proximity with their families to monitor progress.

Discuss these behaviours with your colleagues in order to develop a common and consistent approach for dealing with the students in question. Above all, while dealing with a disturbing student, you should remember that it takes time for problematic behaviours to change, so, stay patient and positive.

## STUDENTS' PUNISHMENTS

Before proceeding with students' punishments, teachers should think carefully and understand the pros and cons. While punishing students can quickly stop a problem, it tends to be a short-term solution that can often be accompanied by negative side-effects such as a drop in positive attitudes towards school and a more negative perception of teachers.

## Should Teachers Punish Students?

Punishment is defined as *inflicting a penalty as retribution for a transgression*. According to this definition, since students often commit transgressions, it would make sense to punish them for bad behaviours. However, teachers must refrain from

applying such a "black and white" approach to dealing with unruly behaviour and use critical thinking instead to determine whether punishment is necessary. Teachers should always consider alternative options for dealing with bad behaviours before proceeding with punishment.

## Which Forms of Students Punishments Are Acceptable?

In most Western worlds, acceptable forms of punishment include but are not limited to demerit systems, daily report or behaviour contracts, apologies, time-out, detentions, being made to write essays, and being made to pick up litters around schools. However, in a study conducted by UNICEF, it was identified that there were over 43 types of punishments meted to students in schools around the world, including physical punishment (example, smacking) and psychological punishment (example, verbal abuse and isolation).

Punishment in schools differs widely from country to country. For example, while Sweden has made corporal punishment illegal, it remains popular in Nigeria. In majority of Western countries, any type of physical punishment is unacceptable as it is illegal and constitutes criminal assault. In view of this, some schools use physical exercise as a form of punishment (that is, press-ups, sit-ups, running). Although, it is not illegal, it is not considered acceptable as it is cruel and can be degrading for students.

## Is It Acceptable to Punish Everyone in a Class Over One Person's Mistake?

*Collective punishment* is the term used to describe a situation when a group of students, for example, a whole class or a whole grade is punished for the actions of one or a few students. Examples of collective punishment include being

taken off recess early or the class being banned from using a certain recreational area.

According to a 2019 UNICEF study, most schools do not allow collective punishment because it is known to demotivate well-behaved students and is unlikely to improve offenders' behaviours.

## PATIENCE IS A VIRTUE
Knowing how to maintain students' discipline in classrooms can be one of the most challenging aspects of teaching. Teachers must learn to evaluate situations on their individual merits in order to know how to respond, distinguishing between minor and major disruptive behaviours and delivering appropriate consequences and punishments where necessary in accordance with schools' policies.
In case of severe problems with classroom management and students that are unresponsive to corrections, teachers should reach out to colleagues for support and involve administration and students' families when necessary.

## Effective Discipline For Children
The word, "discipline" means to impart knowledge and skill – to teach. However, it is often equated with *punishment* and *control*. There is a great deal of controversy about the appropriate ways to discipline children, and parents are often confused about effective ways to set limits and instill self-control in their children.

In educational and secular literature, there is great diversity of opinions about the short-term and long-term effects of various disciplinary methods, especially the use of disciplinary spanking. This statement reviews the issues concerning childhood discipline and offers practical guidelines for

teachers to use in counselling parents about effective discipline.

Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) recommends that teachers take an anticipatory approach to discipline, including asking questions about techniques used in homes. Teachers should actively counsel parents about discipline and should strongly discourage the use of spanking.

## Roles of Teachers in Promoting Effective Discipline

To be effective, discipline needs to be:
- Given by an adult with an affective bond to the child.
- Consistent, close to the behaviour needing change.
- Perceived as 'fair' by the child.
- Developmentally and temperamentally appropriate; and self-enhancing, that is, ultimately leading to self-discipline.
- Teachers can promote effective discipline through evaluation, anticipatory guidance and counselling.

### *Evaluation*

Psychosocial interview should include:
- Non-judgmental inquiry about parents' attitudes toward discipline.
- Questions about who disciplines and the type of discipline used; discussion of difficulties or problems with discipline, and inquiries about parental stressors.

### *Anticipatory guidance*

Anticipatory guidance should be appropriate to a child's developmental level (for example, explain to parents that a toddler who resists being fed does it not to defy them, rather it is part of normal development). Areas of particular importance

are those known to be problematic: feeding, toilet training and bedtime struggles.

## *Counselling*

Counselling should:

- Reinforce parental competence and help parents find strategies that suit their families' unique needs.
- Suggest effective disciplinary techniques according to the child's developmental level, parent/child day, and cultural and social norms.
- Provide resources for parents in need such as printed handouts or referral to other appropriate professionals.

## GOALS OF EFFECTIVE DISCIPLINE

Discipline is the structure that helps a child to fit into the real world happily and effectively. It is the foundation for the development of a child's own self-discipline. Effective and positive discipline is about teaching and guiding children, not just forcing them to obey. As with all other interventions aimed at pointing out unacceptable behaviours, a child should always know that his/her parent loves and supports him or her. Trust between parents and a child should be maintained and constantly built upon.

Parenting is the task of raising children and providing them with necessary material and emotional care to further their physical, emotional, cognitive and social developments.

Disciplining children is one of the most important, yet, difficult responsibilities of parenting, which has no shortcuts. Teachers must stress that teaching about limits and acceptable behaviours take time and a great deal of energy. The hurried pace of today's society can be an obstacle to effective discipline.

The goal of effective discipline is to foster acceptable and appropriate behaviours in children and to raise emotionally mature adults. A disciplined person is able to postpone pleasure, is considerate of the needs of others, is assertive without being aggressive or hostile, and can tolerate discomfort when necessary.

The foundation of effective discipline is respect. A child should be able to respect his/her parent's authority and also the rights of others. Inconsistency in applying discipline will not help a child to respect his or her parents. Harsh discipline such as humiliation (verbal abuse, shouting and name-calling) will also make it hard for children to respect and trust their parents. Thus, *effective discipline* means discipline applied with mutual respect in a firm, fair, reasonable and consistent ways. The goal is to protect children from dangers, help them learn self-discipline and develop healthy consciences and internal senses of responsibilities and control. It should also instill values.

One of the major obstacles to achieving these goals is inconsistency, which will confuse any child regardless of developmental age. It can be particularly hard for parents to be consistent role models. Telling children to, *"Do as I say, but not as I do"* does not achieve effective discipline. Parental disagreements about child-rearing techniques as well as cultural differences between parents, often result in inconsistent methods of discipline. Teachers needs to be mindful of these challenges and suggest steps that parents can take to resolve them.

It is important that in teaching effective discipline, teachers do not impose their own agendas on the families they counsel. A balanced, objective view should be used to provide resources,

and the goal should be to remain objective. This means using principles supported by academic, peer-reviewed literature. This is particularly important when dealing with controversial issues such as disciplinary spanking.

## DEVELOPMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

Regardless of the developmental stage and age of a child, some basic principles can help guide teachers:

1. The purpose of effective discipline is to help children organize themselves, internalize rules and acquire appropriate behaviour patterns.
2. The temperaments of the child and the parents, particularly in the context of their sociocultural milieu, require flexibility. Children with special needs and developmental delay require additional adjustments and problem-solving.
3. Effective discipline does not instill shame, negative guilt, a sense of abandonment or a loss of trust. Instead, it instills a sense of greater trust between children and their parents.
4. Anticipatory guidance offers teachers an opportunity for prevention, to discuss the type of discipline according to the child's developmental age. Undesirable behaviours are best avoided through prevention and by building supportive structures that include clear, consistent rules.
5. Teachers should take care to provide anticipatory guidance and appropriate support to parents who are under stress, isolated, disadvantaged or impaired. Teachers should be familiar with resources in the families' community/communitities.
6. Teachers should consider the roles of parents in influencing their children's misbehaviours. For example, a depressed caregiver who is influencing the behaviour

and development of a child may require referral to another appropriate professional.

## Infants (Birth - 12 Months, that is, Creche Class)

Infants need a schedule around feeding, sleeping and play or interactions with others. The schedule helps regulate autonomic functions and provides senses of predictability and safety. Infants should not be overstimulated. They should be allowed to develop some tolerance to frustration and the ability to self-soothe. Discipline should not involve techniques such as time-out, spanking or consequences.

## Early Toddlers (One Year - Two Years)

At the early toddler stage, it is normal and necessary for toddlers to experiment with control of the physical world and with the capacity to exercise their own will versus that of others. Consequently, parental tolerance is recommended. Disciplinary interventions are necessary to ensure toddlers' safety, limit aggressions, and prevent destructive behaviours. Removing a child or an object with a firm, "No," or another very brief verbal explanation ("No - hot") and redirecting the child to an alternative activity usually works. Parents should remain with children at such times to supervise and ensure that unacceptable behaviours do not reocur, and also to assure them that they are not withdrawing their love from them.

Early toddlers are very susceptible to fears of abandonment and should not be kept in time-out away from their parents. However, occasionally, a parent may become so frustrated with his/her child that he or she needs a period of separation from the child.

Early toddlers are not verbal enough to understand or mature enough to respond to verbal prohibitions. Therefore, verbal

directions and explanations are unreliable forms of discipline for early toddlers. Example, when a toddler wants to play with a breakable glass object on a hard kitchen floor, parents should remove the child and the object and redirect the toddler's attention to a more appropriate activity such as playing with a ball in another room. Parents should remain with the child.

## Late Toddlers (Two Years - Three Years)
The struggle for mastery, independence and self-assertion continues. A child's frustration at realizing limitations in such struggles leads to temper outbursts. This does not necessarily express anger or willful defiance. The caregiver should have empathy, realizing the meaning of these manifestations. At the same time, the caregiver should continue to supervise, set limits and routines, and have realistic expectations of the child's achievement capabilities.

Knowing a child's pattern of reactions helps prevent situations in which frustrations flare up. When the child regains control, parents should give some simple verbal explanations and reassurance. The child should be redirected to some other activities, preferably away from the scene of a tantrum. The toddler cannot regulate behaviour based on verbal prohibitions or directions alone. Example, a toddler has a temper tantrum in a public place. Remove the child from the place of misbehaviour. Hold the child gently until he/she gains control. Give a short verbal instruction or reassurance followed by supervision and an example.

## Preschoolers and Kindergarten-Age Children (3 Years – 5 Years)
At three to five years of age, most children are able to accept reality and limitations, act in ways to obtain others' approvals, and become self-reliant for their immediate needs. However,

they have not internalized many rules, and are gullible; their judgments are not always reliable. They require good behavioural models after which to pattern their own behaviours. Consistency should apply not only to rules and actions of their primary caregivers, but in other adults who care for them.

Reliance on verbal rules increases, but still the child requires supervision to carry through directions and for safety. Time-out can be used if the child loses control. Redirection or small consequences related to and immediately following the misbehaviours are other alternatives. Approval and praise are the most powerful motivators for good behaviours. Lectures do not work well and some consider them to be counter-productive. Example, when a preschooler draws on a wall with crayons, employ the use of time-out to allow him to think about his/her misbehaviour. Consider also using logical consequences, example, take the crayons away and let the child clean up the mess to teach accountability.

## School-Age Children (Six Years - 12 Years)
A child's increasing independence may lead to conflicts. School-age children tend to act autonomously, choose their own activities and friends, and, to some extent, recognize others than parental authorities. Parents should continue to supervise, provide good behavioural models, consistently set rules, but also allow them to become increasingly autonomous. Parents should continue to make important decisions because school-age children cannot always put reasoning and judgment into practice.

Praise and approval should be used liberally, although not excessively, to encourage good behaviours and growth into

more mature human beings. The use of appropriate motivators should be encouraged.

Acceptable means of discipline include withdrawal or delay of privileges, consequences and time-out should be deployed. Example, if a child destroys toys, instead of replacing these toys, he/she should be made to learn the logical consequences, that is, destroying toys will result in no toys to play with.

## Adolescents (13 Years - 18 Years)

Conflicts frequently ensue because adolescents adhere increasingly to the peer groups, challenges family values and rules, and distance themselves from parents. Parents can meet these challenges by remaining available, setting rules in a noncritical ways, not belittling these adolescents, and avoiding lectures or predicting catastrophes. Contracting with adolescents is also a useful tool. Disciplinary spanking of adolescents is most inappropriate.

Despite their challenging attitudes and professions of independence, many adolescents do desire parental guidance and approvals. Parents should ensure that the basic rules are followed and that logical consequences are set and kept in a non-confrontational ways. Example, when an adolescent defiantly drives a car and is involved in an accident, the logical consequence would be that there is no car to drive and that the teenager has to help pay for its repairs. This teaches accountability.

## SETTING RULES AND APPLYING CONSEQUENCES

Rules are established for children so that they can learn to live cooperatively with others, to teach them to distinguish right from wrong, and to protect them from harm. Children raised

without reasonable limits will have difficulty adjusting socially. The following are some ways that parents can use rules and limits to promote effective discipline:

- *Reinforce desirable behaviour.* Praise positive behaviours and "catch children being good."
- *Avoid nagging and making threats without consequences.* The latter may even encourage undesired behaviours.
- *Apply rules consistently*. Be fair and firm.
- *Ignore unimportant and irrelevant behaviours,* example, swinging legs while sitting.
- *Set reasonable and consistent limits*. Consequences need to be realistic. For example, grounding for a month may not be feasible.
- State acceptable and appropriate behaviours that are attainable.
- *Prioritize rules.* Give top priority to safety, then to correcting behaviours that harm people and property as well as to behaviours such as whining, temper tantrums and interruptions. Concentrate on two or three rules at first.
- *Know and accept age-appropriate behaviours.* Accidentally spilling a glass of water is a normal behaviour for a toddler. It is not willful defiance. On the other hand, a child who refuses to wear a bicycle helmet after repeated warnings is being willfully defiant.
- *Allow for a child's temperament and individuality (goodness of fit).* A *strong-willed child* needs to be raised differently from a *'compliant child.'*

## HELPFUL SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO APPLY CONSEQUENCES
- Apply consequences as soon as possible.

- Do not enter into arguments with a child during the correction process.
- Make the consequences brief. For example, time-out (see *Forms of discipline*) should last one minute per year of the child's age, to a maximum of five minutes.
- Parents should mean what they say and say it without shouting at the child. Verbal abuse is no less damaging than physical punishments.
- Follow consequences with love and trust, and ensure that the child knows the correction is directed against the behaviour and not the person. Guard against humiliating your child. Model forgiveness and avoid bringing up past mistakes.

## FORMS OF DISCIPLINE

Three forms of discipline, in particular, are discussed in the current scientific literature:
- Time-out.
- Reasoning, or away-from-the-moment discussions.
- Disciplinary spanking.

## Time-Out

Time-out is one of the most effective disciplinary techniques available to parents of young children, aged two years through primary school years. Time-out strategy is effective because it keeps children from receiving attention that may inadvertently reinforce inappropriate behaviours. Like any other procedure, time-out must be used correctly to be effective. It must be used unemotionally and consistently every time a child misbehaves. Research on why time-out works effectively has been published in details. How time-out is initiated is important, as well as what a child does during this time; how time-out is

terminated, and what parents do when it is over. Some suggestions for parents on effective time-out include:

## *Introduce time-out by 24 months*

- *Pick the right place.* Be sure that time-out place does not have built-in rewards. Television should not be on during time-out.
- Time-out should last one minute per year of the child's age, to a maximum of five minutes.
- *Prepare the child by briefly helping him or her connect the behaviour with the time-out.* A simple phrase, such as "no hitting" is enough.
- *Parents should avoid using time-out for teaching or preaching.* When a child is in time-out, he/she should be ignored.
- Parents should be the time keeper.
- *After time-out is over, it is over.* Create a fresh start by offering a new activity. Do not discuss the unwanted behaviour. Just move on.
- As with other disciplinary techniques, parents should refrain from hurting their child's self-esteem by instilling shame, guilt, loss of trust or a sense of abandonment.
- *If used properly, time-out will work over time.* It may not necessarily eliminate unwanted behaviours, but it will decrease their frequency. If time-out does not work after repeated tries, a consultation is recommended.
- *Parents should be advised that these general guidelines may need to be adjusted to suit particular temperaments of their children.* Parents may have to experiment with the length of time-out, because one-minute per year of age may be too long for some children.
- Teachers may want to have a handout available that teaches parents how to use time-out procedures correctly

according to a child's age, personality, level of development, and so on.

## *Reasoning or away-from-the-moment discussions*

Discipline involves teaching positive behaviours as well as changing unwanted behaviours. That is, children need to know what to do as well as what not to do. In general, it is more effective to anticipate and prevent undesirable behaviours than to punish them. *"Away from the moment"* refers to dealing with difficult behaviours not in the heat of the moment, but rather in advance or away from the actual misbehaviour. *An away-from-the-moment* discussion can help prevent undesirable behaviours by giving parents opportunities to teach children desirable behaviours in advance. This technique is not appropriate for use in children younger than three to four years of age.

## *Disciplinary spanking*

Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) has carefully reviewed available research studies in the controversial area of *disciplinary spanking*. The existing studies are not in forms of double-blind and randomized controlled trials, as such studies would be impossible to conduct. Moreover, no modern *ethics committee* is likely to approve research that involves violence against children. Available research studies support the position that spanking and other forms of physical punishments are associated with negative child outcomes. TRCN, therefore, recommends that teachers should strongly discourage disciplinary spanking and all other forms of physical punishments. Physical redirection or restraint to support time-out or to prevent children from

harming themselves or others may be necessary, but should be done carefully and without violence.

Physical harm to a child inflicted by a parent out of control and in a rage is completely inappropriate and dangerous. During periods of anticipatory guidance on appropriate discipline, teachers should also remind parents to take a time-out for themselves before they lose control.

## SUMMARY

Discipline is about changing behaviours, not about punishing children. Discipline allows children to develop self-discipline, and helps them to become emotionally and socially mature adults. There are many effective techniques that can help parents teach and guide their children, and some forms of discipline will always remain controversial.

Teachers' role is to take an anticipatory approach to discipline, which involves asking questions about techniques used in homes. Teachers should actively counsel parents about discipline and specifically discourage all forms of physical punishments, including the use of spanking.

While taking a complete psychosocial history, teachers should include a discussion on effective means of discipline. A balanced view should be offered to parents. Teachers should become advocates for children as well as resources for parents in offering counselling and anticipatory guidance.

Inappropriate forms of discipline should be identified and corrected. Special attention should be given to a child's age, level of development and temperament when giving advice on effective means of discipline.

Consideration should be given to cultural differences. Adjustments should be made for a developmentally-challenged child. It is essential to emphasize to parents the importance of being consistent, being good role models and avoiding empty threats, that is, not following through with consequences.

Effective discipline should be based on academic facts rather than subjective opinions.

## Review Questions
1. Explain causes of children's misbehaviours.
2. Identify measures to curb indiscipline in classroom.
3. Discuss factors responsible for indiscipline in classrooms.
4. Identify and explain teachers' roles in sustaining discipline in classrooms.

# Chapter Seventeen

# PRIMARY SCHOOLS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCHOOL BOARDS AND HOST COMMUNITIES

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter considers the relationships between educational institutions, their host communities and regulatory agencies such as Ministry of Education and School Boards. It is expected that peaceful co-existence between institutions and their host communities affect their general performances. Relationships between schools and their hosts are mutually beneficial. While schools benefit from their hosts, products of these schools are absorbed into these communities. In this regard, administrators of educational institutions should be able to:

- Determine levels of aspirations, interests and desires which their hosts have of their institutions.
- Ascertain the dispositions of schools to their hosts.
- Disseminate useful information about their schools to their hosts through mass media, parent-teachers' associations and board meetings.
- Adjust school activities where applicable to incorporate societies' cultures and practices so as to further the levels of peaceful co-existence of institutions and their hosts.

In this chapter, you will be exposed to important agencies or bodies that have relationships with primary schools in Nigeria. These include the Ministries of Education (State and Federal),

Universal Basic Education Board (UBEC), State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) and host communities.

**OBJECTIVES**
At the end of this chapter, you should be able to:
1. Mention agencies or parastatals that relate with primary schools.
2. State the roles that Federal Ministry of Education play in primary education in Nigeria.
3. State the roles SUBEB play in primary education in Nigeria.
4. Explain the importance of primary school-community relations.
5. Primary schools' relationships with States' Ministries of Education.

Focus of this chapter will be on the kind of relationships between primary schools and State Ministries of Education. Note that both public and private schools are under the control of Government. Ministry of Education acts on behalf of Government to ensure compliance with rules and regulations on quality assurance in education. A State Ministry of Education is headed by a Commissioner. Director-General is the administrative head of the Ministry while professional divisions such as the Inspectorate, Planning, Research and Statistics; School Services and Technical Education are headed by professional officers.

The State Ministry of Education performs functions similar to that of the Federal Ministry of Education. These functions include:
- Establishment and control of primary schools.
- Appointment of boards in respect of primary schools.

- Coordinating activities of agencies in the development of education.
- Organizing seminars and conferences to discuss educational matters.
- Appointment of heads of primary and secondary schools.
- Leadership of each primary school determines the effectiveness of relationships that will exist between it and the Ministry.

## UNIVERSAL BASIC EDUCATION BOARD

Primary schools (public and private) relate with State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB). The Board is saddled with the responsibilities of administering primary schools (as well as junior secondary schools) at respective state levels. Its functions include those specified for the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), but at the State level. The specific functions of SUBEB are:

- Management of primary schools (as well as junior secondary schools) in states.
- Recruitments, appointments, promotions and discipline of teaching and non-teaching staff on Grade levels 07 and above.
- Posting and deployment of staff including inter-state transfers.
- Disbursements of funds provided to it from both Federal and State sources.
- Setting up effective functional supervisory units.
- Retirement and re-absorption of teachers.
- Undertaking new capital projects.
- Responsibility for the approval, training and retraining of teaching and non-teaching staff.

- Assessment and funding of salaries and allowances of teaching and non-teaching staff based on the scheme of service drawn up by State Governments.
- Ensuring that annual reports are rendered by heads of schools on teachers appointed to serve under them.

This is an agency established for each local government area of the state and it is subject to the control of SUBEB. The Agency relates with primary schools in the following areas:
- The day-to-day administration of primary schools.
- Appointment, posting, transfer, promotion and discipline of staff on grade levels 06 - 10.
- Making recommendations to SUBEB on promotion and discipline of teaching and non-teaching staff on grade levels 07 and above.
- Submission of annual estimates, annual accounts, and monthly returns to SUBEB.
- Payment of salaries, allowances and benefits to all teaching and non-teaching staff.
- Acquisition and distribution of materials and equipment to all primary schools.
- Undertaking general maintenance of primary schools' buildings and infrastructure.
- Stimulating, promoting and participating in the running of primary schools.

## PROBLEMS CONFRONTING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN STATES AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Relationships between primary schools, Universal Basic Education Commission, State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) and Local Government Education Authority (LGEA) show that there are existential conflicts. This is because the roles of these agencies in both State and Local

Governments are interrelated. For example, conflicts between States and Local Governments as regards the control of primary education funds has not been resolved. Also, the non-delineation of specific functions for Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), Ministry of Education, and the Local Government Education Authorities (LGEA) has severely weakened the organization of primary education in Nigeria.

## PRIMARY SCHOOLS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH THEIR HOST COMMUNITIES

Schools are offshoots of communities. Thus, Offorjebe and Onyali (2016) refer to school-community relations as a meaningful interaction between the school system and the immediate environments. It has to do with healthy relationships existing between schools (involving students, teachers, head teachers and other personnel) and society including governments, associations, old studentss and philanthropists. Primary schools depend on their host communities for survival. However, effectiveness of primary school-community relationships is determined by certain factors which are highlighted below:

## Factors Influencing School-Community Relations

Below are some of the factors that influence school-community relations:

### *Leadership style of a school head*

If a school head's leadership style is democratic, community members are encouraged to lend helping hands in school matters and vice-versa.

### *School Location*

The location of a school determines the willingness of members of the public to relate meaningfully with it. If a school is located on the outskirts of town, there is tendency for irregular visits by community members.

### *Communication channel*

Information dissemination plays vital roles in the establishment of meaningful relationships between a school and its host community.

As explained earlier, school is an offshoot of society that established it. Therefore, the activities of school members are not isolated from the situations in its host community. The legal, political, as well as religious environments determine the kind of interactions that go on between a school and its host community.

### CONCLUSION

The place of primary education in the achievement of overall educational objectives cannot be over-emphasised. If the laudable objectives of primary education is to be attained, primary schools' activities have to be moderated. Therefore, Ministries of Education at both Federal and State levels have vital roles to play. Not only that, the roles of communities from which these resources to primary schools are derived are crucial.

### Summary

In this chapter, you have learnt about the relevant bodies that relate with primary schools in Nigeria for effective achievements of the objectives of primary education. These include: Federal Ministry of Education, State Ministries of

Education, State Universal Basic Education Boards, Local Government Education Authorities and host communities.

## Review Questions

1. What are the factors that facilitate effective primary school-community relations?
2. List agencies that moderate the activities of primary schools in Nigeria.
3. What is school-community relations?
4. Discuss any four factors that influence school-community relations in Nigeria.

# Chapter Eighteen

# EXAMINATION MALPRACTICES AND DISCIPLINARY MEASURES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

## INTRODUCTION

The success recorded in the achievement of objectives at this level goes a long way in influencing the success of subsequent levels of education. Pupils have to be assessed as they progress through the classes of the primary school before the final evaluation. This chapter deals with two major issues in primary school administration. The first important issue is the examination. The second issue is that of student discipline. In this chapter, we are going to learn issues pertaining to staff discipline in primary schools and extra curricular activities.

Forms of Discipline and indiscipline among Pupils

Means of achieving discipline in schools

forms of indiscipline among primary school teachers.

Measures to curb examination malpractice in primary schools.

Content of the code of conduct for teaching staff in primary schools.

Importance of school examinations

Examination Malpractices and Disciplinary Measures in Primary Schools

Staff punishment for acts of indiscipline.

Primary schools examinations conduct.

Problems militating against extra curricula activities in schools

## OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss primary schools' examinations' conducts.
- Mention the importance of school examinations.
- Explain measures to curb examination malpractices in primary schools.
- Differentiate between discipline and indiscipline among pupils.
- Discuss means of achieving discipline in schools.
- Mention forms of indiscipline among primary school teachers.
- State the contents of the *code of conduct* for teaching staff in primary schools.
- Discuss staff punishments for acts of indiscipline.
- Highlight some of the problems militating against extra- curricula activities in schools.

Examination is a crucial activity in the life of a school. It is the mechanism through which a learner's achievements are measured in three domains - *psychomotor, affective* and *cognitive* through a set of instruments under the supervision of an examiner or examiners (Ononye, 2016).

The teaching-learning process aims at enhancing students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. The essence of examination at any level is to give genuine picture of the academic abilities of learners so as to help in counseling them as well as placement into subsequent classes. It implies that the process of administering any examination matters before considering the outcome.

For the examination result of any primary school to be dependable or reliable, there is need for effective planning and

administration. The following factors are necessary for the conduct of primary school examinations:

- Decision on when examinations will be scheduled.
- Availability of accurate data on the number of pupils who intend to write particular examinations.
- Adequate arrangements for materials needed, that is, examination questions, answer sheets, attendance sheets, etcetera.
- Collection and moderation of examination questions at least two weeks before commencement of examinations.
- Decision on the venue with consideration for seats, ventilation and so on.
- Decision on invigilators for examination supervision.
- Drawing up of examination time-table.

## PROBLEMS IN PRIMARY SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS

- Internal examination, and
- External examination.

*Internal examination* is conducted by a school's management within its premises in conjunction with teachers who teach different subjects in various classes. An examination could be *terminal* (conducted on termly basis) or *promotional*, which is done at the end of a session to decide who will transit to the next class among pupils and those who are to repeat their classes.

*External Examination* is conducted by an external body saddled with the responsibility to do so in conjunction with a school's management.

The following administrative problems can render both internal and external school examinations unreliable in the primary school system:

### *Non-cooperation on the part of some teachers in schools*

In a situation where teachers fail to submit questions as and when due, an examination time-table is affected while pupils' preparations too would be affected (this is peculiar to internal examinations).

### *Poor examination invigilation*

If the invigilation is not thoroughly done, weak pupils may score higher marks than those who are brilliant.

### *Leakage of examination questions*

When examination questions are not properly secured, it gives pupils an opportunity to see the questions ahead of the examinations.

### *Examination malpractice*

This is a serious administrative problem in the conduct of examinations. Below are forms of examination malpractices in primary schools as stipulated in Examination Malpractice Decree of 1999:

- Cheating in an examination hall.
- Stealing of examination papers.
- Impersonation.
- Disorderliness during examination.
- Disturbances during an examination
- Obstruction of supervisors' activities.

## MEASURES TO CURB EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE AND OTHER EXAMINATION-RELATED PROBLEMS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Having known that any irregularity could render the conduct of an examination invalid, there is need for every primary school head and stakeholders to guard against examination-

related problems. The following measures should be considered to ensure malpractice-free examination exercises:

- Teachers should make their subjects and class interesting to learners.
- Adequate preparations should be made before teaching so as to arouse learners' interests.
- Teachers should ensure coverage of subject syllabus without omission.
- Examination Committees are necessary in primary schools to consider related issues in examinations.

Among issues to be considered by them are:

- Deadlines on submission of questions.
- Decisions on dates of examinations.
- Drawing of examinations' time-tables.
- Decisions on disciplinary actions to be taken against both students and staff who violate examination rules.
- Monitoring conducts of examinations, and so on.

In addition to the measures above, every staff should be carried along in the examination process. Their inputs should be sought by *examination committees* because they will be affected during implementation.

## STAFF DISCIPLINE AND EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

## Concept of Discipline/Indiscipline in Schools

According to Ononye (2020), discipline includes all techniques a teacher uses to increase the proportion of a school's appropriate behaviours. Nwankwo (2019) refers to students' discipline as readiness or ability of students to respect authority, observe and obey school rules and regulations.

# Indiscipline

Indiscipline is the opposite of discipline. It is referred to as the absence in an individual of the proper training of the mind and body to produce the desired self-control necessary for him/her to perform the positive roles required for the achievement of organizational or societal goals and aspirations.

Indiscipline in primary school setting is the unwillingness or inability of pupils and/or teachers to respect authorities, observe and obey school rules and regulations and maintain high standards of behavoiurs conducive to the teaching-learning process and essential to the smooth running of schools. Indiscipline disrupts school activities while discipline enhances achievements of school objectives.

# Discipline in School

Consequences of indiscipline in primary schools are to the detriment of individuals in particular and entire schools in general. Therefore, the way out concerns every stakeholder in the primary school system. Some of the measures to curb acts of indiscipline in schools are:

1. Good school management.
2. Effective rules and regulations.
3. Emphasis on sound moral education.
4. Cooperation of parents and members of the public.
5. Judicious use of rewards and punishments.
6. Effective control of extemal influences.
7. Provision of effective guidance and counseling services.
8. Adoption of participative approaches in decision-making.

# FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Indiscipline could manifest in primary school pupils in the following forms:

- Truancy, frequent absence and late-coming to school.
- Lying, cheating, stealing and damaging or spoiling school property.
- Stubbornness, quarreling and selfishness.
- Dishonesty, disrespect and rudeness.
- Noise-making and showing unruly behaviours.
- Teasing, bullying and using indecent and abusive languages.
- Acts of irresponsibility, withdrawing and deliberately not doing assignments.
- Using unfair means to pass examinations.
- Scribbling on walls, pieces of furniture and school bus.
- Viciousness, sexually unacceptable conducts and making indecent remarks to the opposite sex.
- Drug abuse.
- Use of abusive languages, etcetera.

Amongst the forms of indiscipline listed, those that are prevalent in Nigeria's primary schools include, truancy, lying, using unfair means to pass during examinations, scribbling on walls and the use of abusive languages.

## Staff Discipline

Staff discipline involves self-control, restraints, and respect for oneself on the part of both teaching and non-teaching staff. We can also talk about types of discipline. There are two types of discipline: *Internal Discipline* and *External Discipline.*

### Internal Discipline

This refers to the orderly conduct of both teaching and non-teaching staff in habits of obedience to socially-approved

standards of thoughts and actions, irrespective of the existence of external authorities or laws to regulate behaviours. It is self-imposed. Staff who are usually associated with this kind of discipline do not expect order or law before they do the things that are right.

### *External discipline*
This is an externally-imposed kind of discipline. It is the orderly conduct of staff in habits of obedience to socially-approved standards of thoughts and actions which are developed in response to external threats of punishments or sanctions.

## Staff Iindiscipline
Staff indiscipline simply means lack of discipline among members of staff. It is an impediment to the attainment of goals and objectives of the school system. All behaviours contrary to norms and values of a school as an organization constitute indiscipline.

## ACTS OF INDISCIPLINE BY PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
Acts of indiscipline by primary school teachers could manifest in the following ways:
1. Lateness to school.
2. Irregularity in school.
3. Non-challant attitude to writing of lesson notes.
4. Sexual harassment of female pupils.
5. Leaking of school official matters.
6. Insubordination.
7. Aiding and abetting cheating in examinations.
8. Collection of illegal money from pupils.
9. Smoking in school premises, etcetera.

# CODE OF ETHICS FOR TEACHERS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

In order to guard against immoral acts from teaching staff, Government has made some efforts in drawing up some rules that should guide them in the process of discharging their duties. According to *Nigeria Teachers Service Manual* (1987), all members of the teaching staff are expected to abide by the following general guidelines:

- Teachers should set good examples for their students, particularly in their manners of dressing, speech and attitudes to work.
- They should show loyalty to their school head teachers and colleagues.
- They should respect one another, especially in the presence of pupils.
- They should try to live within their means to avoid financial embarrassments.

## Specific Regulations For Teachers

Teachers are expected to observe the following specific regulations which are briefly highlighted below:

- Recognition and respect for constituted authority (head teacher) by discharging duties to the best of their abilities.
- Keeping confidential school matters secret.
- Punctuality to school and classes.
- Avoidance of truancy.
- Keeping school records such as attendance register, scheme of work, lesson notes and mark books up to date.
- Active participation in co-curricular activities.
- Activities unrelated to school duties should never be undertaken without the express permission of the school authorities.

- Defamatory statements or comments about fellow teachers are forbidden.
- Conducting classes outside school hours on fees for pupils is unethical.
- Examination leakages or any forms of examination malpractice are forbidden.
- Indecent relationship or carnal knowledge of a teacher with his/her pupils is highly forbidden.
- Smoking and drinking are forbidden.

## Types of Punishment for Acts of Indiscipline

Infringement of any article of the *Code of Conduct* shall incur punishment by the Head Teacher and the School Management Board. Such punishments range from caution to dismissal depending on the gravity of the offence.

Punishments for teachers by head teachers are: oral caution, written caution (recorded), surcharge, adverse annual report, suspension from class (this should be reported to the Local Government or School Management Board).

## Meaning of Extra-Curricular Activities

These are the activities that pupils are exposed to in schools, which complement activities in the written curriculum.

## Some of Extra-Curricular Activities

A school is an organization of many activities and programmes packed for the accomplishment of stated objectives. Thus, there are extra curricular activities in which pupils engage outside the class work in primary schools to complement classroom exercises. Some examples of extra-curricular activities that take place in primary schools are:

### *Debate and Quiz Competitions*

This is one of the important extra-curricular activities in primary schools. Students are organised under a debate forum

to express their feelings, ideas and opinions concerning a particular topic. A group can speak against a particular topic such as, *"What a male can do, a female can do better"* while the other can speak on, "*Females cannot do what males can do."* Intellectual abilities of the students are developed through these programmes.

### Association/Society Day/Week
This is one of the extra-curricular activities in primary schools. The various clubs in a school system are given particular days to exhibit their activities. Examples of these are Farmers' Club, Science Students Club, Boys' Scout, Red Cross, Igbo Language Club, Yoruba Society, etcetera.

### Field Trip/Excursion
It is a programme designed to familiarize students with real objects, places, other things of which the theoretical aspects have been taught in classrooms. For instance, some geographical flocations taught in Geography classes like mountains, hills, valleys, islands and shrines in Yoruba land like Osun, Oranmiyan and Sango can be visited. This will allow pupils to have the advantage of having real knowledge of things explained to them during class sessions by their teachers.

### End-of-Year Programme
This programme marks the end of an academic session. Members of staff usually organize this in conjunction with the pupils. During this programme many activities take place. These include cultural dance, drama, etcetera.

### Inter-House Sports
It is a programme in the school system where the psychomotor domain of pupils is developed. Pupils are grouped into number of houses, usually four houses. The common sports houses are

Yellow, Blue, Green and Red. Events involved are hockey, relay race, shot-put throwing, javelin throwing, high jump, long jump, swimming, march past, among others.

## Problems Associated with Extra Curricular Activities in Primary Schools

There are some impediments militating against extra-curricula activities in primary schools. Some of these problems are:

### *Inadequate sports facilities*

This problem hinders pupils' involvements in sports activities. One of the common facilities is sports field. However, most sport fields are insufficient for pupils to play in.

### *Non Existence of Extra Curricular Activities*

Most schools do not allow their pupils to participate in extra-curricular activities. In most schools, events like debates and quizzes have become history.

### *Little or No Cooperation Among Staff In Organizing Extra Curricula Activities*

There is a tendency for teachers who do not have interests in most extra-curricular activities to decline invitations to plan for such exercises. This, in turn, leads to their non-cooperation when implementing the plans.

### *Inadequate Funding*

Funding is a major problem militating against effective organization of some activities/events such as Inter-house sports and excursions as these require some level of financial commitments. A school without a school bus may find it difficult to take pupils out for excursion.

## SUMMARY

Staff discipline is as important as pupils' discipline. An unruly behaviour from a teacher can put an entire school in jeopardy. Therefore, activities of teachers are expected to be moderated by *code of conduct* which highlights the dos and don't's.

Extra curricular activities are viewed as being complementary to class work because as the saying goes, *"All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy."* Therefore, schools are expected to balance the two. Schools' management should incorporate extra-curricular activities in their time-tables.

## Review Questions

1. Discuss examinations in primary schools.
2. Mention the importance of school examinations.
3. Explain measures to curb examination malpractices in primary schools.
4. Discuss some extra-curricular activities in primary schools.
5. What are the factors responsible for indiscipline among staff in primary schools?
6. How do we minimize staff indiscipline in our primary schools?
7. Distinguish between *discipline* and *indiscipline*.
8. What are the acts of indiscipline that could disrupt school activities?
9. Suggest means of getting rid of pupils' disciplinary acts in primary schools.
10. What are the arrangements for successful conduct of examinations?

# Chapter Nineteen

# STAFF DISCIPLINE AND IMPORTANT RELATIONSHIPS THAT EXIST IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will learn about the relationships between secondary schools, Ministry of Education and Teaching Service Commission. Patterns of relationships with host communities will also be discussed.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Relationship that exists between secondary schools and the: | Ministry of Educ., Teachers' Registration Council (TRCN) and the community | Acts of indiscipline among secondary school staff. | Remote causes of indiscipline among secondary school staff. |
| Obstacles to effective extra curricular activities | the Importance of extra curricular activities. | Solutions to acts of indiscipline among staff. | |
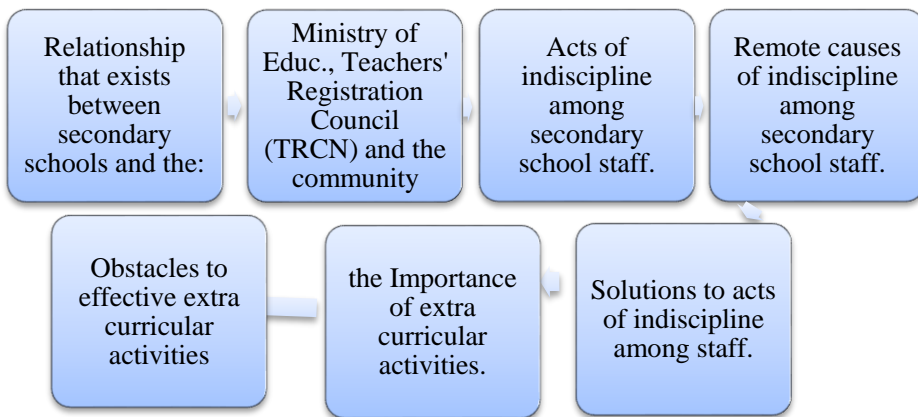
## OBJECTIVES

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

1. Explain the relationship that exists between secondary schools and Ministry of Education, Teachers Registration Council (TRCN) and their host communities.
2. Mention some of acts of indiscipline among secondary school staff.

3. Explain remote causes of indiscipline among secondary school staff.
4. Suggest solutions to acts of indiscipline among staff.
5. Discuss the importance of extra-curricular activities.
6. Mention obstacles to effective extra-curricular activities.

## SECONDARY SCHOOLS' RELATIONSHIP WITH MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Ministry of Education is a major Government department that handles issues relating to education at both national and state levels. The Federal Ministry of Education regulates both Federal and State secondary schools. However, State Ministries of Education are specifically concerned with state-owned public secondary as well as private secondary schools, which have different functions. Federal Ministry of Education is headed by a Minister (a political appointee) while State Ministries of Education are headed by Commissioners (political appointees).

While Director-General is the administrative head of the Ministry, the Inspectorate Unit of the Ministry visits both private and public schools for inspections. Types of supervisions carried out by the Unit include full inspection, routine checking, follow-up inspections and recognition inspection/certification. The Unit has mandate to upgrade schools and call up any secondary school that does not meet up with expected standards.

Planning, Research and Statistics (PRS) Unit is the custodian of schools' statistics. The number of schools by local governments, enrolment by genders, number of teaching and non-teaching staff are among schools' statistics expected to be

kept by this Unit. Schools are expected to relate effectively with this Unit so as to update their staff strength and enrolment as well as information on facilities in schools. These data enable government to take appropriate decisions. However, it is quite unfortunate that Planning, Research and Statistics Units of some state Ministries of Education do not possess current data on schools.

## SECONDARY SCHOOLS' RELATIONSHIP WITH TEACHERS' REGISTRATION COUNCIL TRCN

Teachers' Registration Council (TRCN) is another government department that handles secondary school matters, especially teaching staff. Schools are expected to relate properly with the Council. The Commission has mandate to appoint, post, transfer, promote, dismiss and exercise disciplinary control over teaching and non-teaching staff. For the purpose of administrative convenience, Teachers' Registration Council (TRCN) in every State groups the local government areas into zones. Each Zone is handled by a Zonal Education Administrator who reports to the Permanent Secretary.

Teachers' Registration Council (TRCN) maintains three (3) Committees, each headed by full-time members.

Teaching Service Commission sees to quality assurance of public secondary schools through healthy relationships with schools.

## SECONDARY SCHOOLS RELATIONSHIPS WITH THEIR HOST COMMUNITIES

Schools and their local communities are interrelated. As Jaiyeoba and Atanda (2004) explained, a school is viewed as an institution set up to bring about desirable changes in the

lives of learners as well as in their communities. Schools gain from their communities and vice-versa. Thus, the school system cannot be isolated from the community if its existence is to be justified.

Edem (1987) recognized the capacity of a school to interact and cooperate with other agencies in the community as an important factor in determining the success of the school. Jaiyeoba (2004) viewed school-community relationships as part of the operational areas of school administration. It is a situation in which a local community where a school is located participates in school programmes and activities.

A good avenue for school-community relationship is Parents-Teachers Association (PTA). PTA is an organization which brings parents and teachers together in the interests of students.

There are reasons why there must be healthy relationships between secondary schools and their host communities. Some of the problems of secondary schools of which communities could be of help include inadequate facilities, classrooms, and laboratory teaching staff as well as problem of indiscipline among students.

Discipline has been variously defined by different authors. Most often, definitions depend on the perspectives of individual authors. Some see it as closely linked to order and self-control while others link it to punishment. Onyali (2014) views discipline as the sum of educative efforts, including the teaching process, process of character-shaping, submission to rules and authority as well as the development of trust.

For the purpose of this section, discipline can be seen as a systematic method of obtaining compliance or order and

obedience among teachers to ensure that the set goals of teaching and learning are realized. Discipline, thus involves the following three elements:

a. Training to act in accordance with rules.
b. Activity, exercise or a regimen that develops or improves a skill.
c. Punishment inflicted by way of correction and training.

Therefore, discipline is a control that is gained by requiring that rules or orders be obeyed and punishments be given to bad behaviours.

Ndu in Obi (2014) sees discipline as training that develops character, orderliness, self-control and efficiency. Discipline is defined as the practice of training people to obey rules or a code of behaviour that uses punishment to correct disobedience. Consequently, discipline may be broadly seen as:

a. Training expected to produce a specific character or pattern of behaviour, especially training that produces moral or mental improvements.
b. Controlled behaviour resulting from disciplinary trainings; self-control.
c. Control obtained by enforcing compliance or order:
   i. A systematic method to obtain obedience.
   ii. A state of order based on submission to rules and authority.

## PUNISHMENT INTENDED TO CORRECT OR TRAIN
Discipline can be conceived as:
- A set of rules or methods, as those regulating the practice of a church or monastic order.

- To train by instruction and practice, especially to teach self-control; to teach to obey rules or accept authority.
- To punish in order to gain control or enforce obedience.

Without prejudice, discipline in any educational institution could be seen as a functional product of self-control, orderliness, tolerance, self-restraint and honesty. Also included in the list is integrity, commitment, perseverance, accountability, prudence among others.

A disciplined teacher is one who has established a goal and is willing to achieve that goal at the expense of his/her individuality. It is the assertion of willpower over more base desires, and is usually understood to be synonymous with self-control. A teacher who is self-disciplined has the ability to control and overcome his/her weaknesses, pursing what he/she thinks is right despite temptations to do the contrary.

A violation of disciplinary life of a school negatively affects teaching and learning. It is, therefore, appropriate to state that teachers' discipline and control are fundamental in the realization of schools' aims and objectives.

## SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
In the school system, the primary objective of administration has to do with the coordination and integration of all resources for effective, efficient and functional teaching and learning. It is in this line that Ezeugbor (2014), Nwosu and Modebelu (2016); Okorji and Unachukwu (2014) see *administration* as the process of mobilizing all resources for the achievements of pre-determined goals and objectives of education.

According to Ukpong (2016), *School administration* is the ability of teachers to utilize the scarce resources to influence students positively towards learning. In addition, school

administration involves managing, administering the curriculum and teaching; discipline, examination and evaluation. These onerous responsibilities are carried out by school administrators through collaborative decision-making, planning, organizing, directing and supervising every aspect of a school's programme with special emphasis on teaching and learning. To achieve these demands, a school's environment should be characterized by obedience to rules and regulations, orderliness, self-control and over all discipline, especially among the teaching staff.

Different bodies like Federal and State Ministries of Education, Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) and Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) in recognition of the obvious need for discipline in Nigerian education system have prescribed various codes of conducts for teachers and punishments following infractions of such code of conducts. This is geared towards maintaining professional standards of practice and conduct that are universally acceptable in Nigerian education system.

## FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
Recall that you learnt about indiscipline in primary schools in the last chapter. The definition of indiscipline does not differ at any level of education, but its forms or acts do. Indiscipline is simply described as the mode of life that is not in conformity with rules and also involves non-subjection to control. Ikediugwu (2017) opined that indiscipline connotes the violations of school rules and regulations capable of obstructing the smooth and orderly functioning of a school system.

Some of acts of forms of indiscipline in secondary schools include:

## *Indecent dressing*

Some students in secondary schools deviate from proper ways of dressing. Male students fly their shirts, wearing rough uniforms and bathroom slippers to school. On the other hands, female students turn their uniforms to body-hugs, mini-skirts and so on.

## *Cultism*

Cultism has now become a menace in our secondary schools. Cultists are now using our secondary schools as their recruitment ground for their nefarious activities, thus increasing indiscipline in secondary schools.

## *Stealing*

That students steal is no longer news. Stealing is an act of indiscipline, which is common in our schools. Students steal virtually everything - from pencils to money.

## *Fighting*

Fighting is a common act of indiscipline in our secondary schools. Students fight one another within and outside school premises. Stories abound of secondary school students fighting or beating up their teachers.

## FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS

Factors that are responsible for indiscipline in secondary schools include:

## School Management

Components of this factor includes lack of facilities and equipment, admission of children with poor academic

standards, lack of sufficient moral and religious instructions as well as automatic promotions. These could be remote factors for students' acts of indiscipline.

## Staff Factor

These include lack of sincerity and devotion to duty; moral laxity of teachers, incompetent staff and undue familiarity of some teachers with students.

## Society and Parents

Interference of influential parents in school administrations, failure of parents to provide necessary school requirements and undue publicity of sensational news by the mass media.

Other factors include:
- Peer group influence.
- Ignorance of the rules and regulations in the classroom by students.

## HANDLING PROBLEMS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Effective teaching and learning can only take place in an environment devoid of indiscipline. To this end, acts of indiscipline could be minimized in our secondary schools through the following:

## Communication

Effective communication between school management and students.

## Modeling appropriate behaviours

Teachers should be of exemplary behaviours for students to emulate.

## Behaviour modification

Behaviour modification can be used by teachers and parents. In this case, what is an unsuitable behaviour is first established while desired behaviours are modeled. Often, a culprit is consulted quietly and privately in order to assist him/her to drop an undesirable behaviour.

## Moral values

Another way of handling problems of indiscipline is the development of moral values through moral instructions. Moral instructions should be made part of school subjects.

## DISCIPLINE AND CONTROL OF TEACHERS

Federal Ministry of Education (1990) in Nigerian Teachers' Service Manual Article 5.2 states that infringement of any article of the *Code of Conduct* by a Headmaster or Principal shall incur the punishment of the Schools' Management Board. Such punishment shall range from caution to dismissal depending on the gravity of the offence. It emphasized that the principle of fair-hearing is imperative.

In the case of teachers' misconduct, punishment is to be administered by the Principal/Headmaster. It shall take the form of:

- Oral caution.
- Written caution recorded in the log book.
- Surcharge (over absenteeism from school or of such dereliction of duty).
- Negative annual report.
- Suspension from class with an immediate report to the re levant authority requesting ratification of the suspension and placement on half salary, pending appropriate action by the authority.

# FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG STAFF IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Indiscipline means lack of discipline. Staff indiscipline is lack of discipline on the part of teaching and non-teaching staff. Any behaviour by the staff that is contrary to the norms of the school constitutes indiscipline. Some common examples of acts of indiscipline among staff in secondary schools are:

- Collusion in examination malpractice.
- Sexual harassment of the opposite sex.
- Illegal collection of money from students.
- Alcoholic beverage consumption during school hours.
- Smoking of cigarettes during official hours.
- Insubordination in official matters.
- Absenteeism.
- Divulging official secret.
- Laziness/irresponsibility.

# CAUSES OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STAFF

Various forms or acts of indiscipline highlighted above have their remote causes, which include:

- Ineffective school heads.
- Unhealthy relationships between principals and staff.
- Poor remuneration of staff.
- Ineffective supervision.
- Employment of incompetent staff.
- Evils of society such as corruption.
- Economic hardships.
- Indecent dressing by students.
- Communication gaps among school heads, teachers and non-teaching staff.

# ENFORCEMENT OF DISCIPLINE

Enforcement of discipline in secondary schools is not one-man affair. It requires joint efforts of all stakeholders, otherwise, such enforcements would not be effective. Therefore, principals, teaching and non-teaching staff; students, members of the public, and government agencies have crucial roles to play in ensuring staff discipline. The following suggestions are necessary:

- Both teaching and non-teaching staff should be adequately motivated through improved conditions of service.
- Teachers' salaries should be increased to be equivalent to what their counterparts in corporate organizations earn.
- Parents should encourage their children to dress properly to school. The length of uniform for female students should extend beyond the knees.
- Secondary school staff, especially teachers should be given copies of *"Professional ethics"* and *Code of Conducts* for internalization. This may reduce acts of indiscipline on their part.
- Disciplinary measures should be instituted and consistently implemented to deter staff from acts of indiscipline.
- Head teachers (principals) should build healthy relationships between them and their staff.
- Regular and objective supervisions should be carried out by principals. This would help to improve on the performance of incompetent teachers and also guide against irresponsibility on the part of lazy ones.

# EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOLS STUDENTS

In the previous chapter, we had taked about extra-curricular activities. In order to advance our discussion, however, we shall focus on extra-curricular activities that are peculiar to secondary schools.

Extra-curricular activities are complementary activities in schools that enhance the cognitive development of learners. The ones that are common in secondary schools are:

## Sports

These include football, basketball, volleyball, handball, hockey, table tennis, lawn tennis and athletics such as short, medium and long-distance races, shot put, javelin, high jump, long jump, and so on.

## Club Activities

Secondary students do engage in club activities as part of their extra-curricular activities. Some secondary school-based recognized clubs that students can belong to include: Boys' Scout Movement, Man 'O' War Club, Leo Club, Girls Guide, Rotaract Club, and the Red Cross.

## Socio-Cultural Activities

There are several socio-cultural activities which take place in secondary schools. These are part of schools' extra-curricular activities. Students could belong to different legal and registered socio-cultural tools. Such socio-cultural activities include:

- Cultural Dancers.
- Drama Groups.

## Literary and Debating Societies

These are part of extra-curricular activities. Students are given topics to speak on in support or against some topical issues that are prevalent in society.

## Excursions

Secondary school students go on excursions from time to time to substantiate what they learnt in classrooms. Students studying Govemment could be taken to a State House of Assembly in their State to observe legislative procedures or court premises to have idea of court processes.

## PROBLEMS MILITATING AGAINST EFFECTIVE EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Regular and effective extra-curricular activities are affected by some factors which include:

## Inadequate Sports Facilities

Inadequate sports facilities limit secondary school students' participation in sporting activities. The only common and popular game in schools is football. Games like *hand ball* and *hockey* are becoming history in schools because government does not provide schools with facilities for playing such games.

## Personality of the Principals

Principals are chief executives of various secondary schools. Their love for sports will determine their levels of involvements and encouragement that would be given to both staff and students.

## Time Factor

Apart from 20 or 30 minutes break time, schools hardly have any period set aside to encourage students to participate in

sports and club activities. Some teachers even engage students in note-writing during break time.

## Shortage of Funds

Most of the facilities and equipment for sports are not in place because of paucity of funds. Government hardly makes separate provisions of grants for the execution of extra-curricular activities.

## Non-Cooperation From Parents And The Public

Some parents do not encourage their children to participate in extra-curricular activities. This might be as a result of lack of moral support or open declaration of their dislikes for certain sports or club activities.

## EXTRA OR CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES: THE WAY FORWARD

Extra or co-curricular activities can be improved upon and encouraged in secondary schools in the following ways:

- Provision of sports facilities by Governments.
- Enlightenment of the general public on the importance of co-curricular activities.
- Special time for extra-curricular activities should be provided in the time-table.
- School principals should become role models in extra-curricular activities.
- Philanthropists and clubs in the enlarged society should sponsor some extra-curricular activities.
- School principals need to sensitize and motivate their staff to participate in extra-curricular activities.

## CONCLUSION

Survival of secondary schools depends on their healthy relationships with specific government agencies saddled with certain responsibilities. These bodies or agents include

Ministries of Education, Teachers' Registration Council (TRCN), Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) and their host communities.

The role of both teaching and non-teaching staff is very germane in students' effective learning. As it is necessary for students to be disciplined, teaching and non-teaching staff are expected to be disciplined as well.

This chapter explained the various forms of indiscipline among secondary schools staff and how to minimize or eradicate them. You also learnt about the importance of extra-curricular activities. Factors militating against effective extra-curricular activities were also discussed.

## SUMMARY
In this chapter, you learnt about some acts of indiscipline by secondary schools staff. Some of these include: smoking, sexual harassment, alcoholic beverage consumption during school hours, illegal collection of money, and collusion in examination malpractices. Because of these menace, certain suggestions were made.

We also learnt that extra-curricular activities are essential in school curriculum but some obstacles hinder their effectiveness. Principals were enjoined to play major roles in creating awareness on the importance of extra-curricular activities within their schools.

In this chapter, we also discussed three major entities that relate with Nigerian secondary schools whose relationships are germane to the success of secondary education. These bodies are State and Federal Ministries of Education, Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) and host communities.

## Review Questions

1. Explain the relationship that exists between secondary schools and Federal Ministry and State Ministries of Education; Teachers Registration Council (TRCN) and host communities.
2. Mention some acts of indiscipline among secondary schools' staff.
3. Explain remote causes of indiscipline among secondary schools' staff.
4. Suggest solutions to acts of indiscipline among staff.
5. Discuss the importance of extra-curricular activities.
6. Mention obstacles to effective extra-curricular activities.
7. List community stakeholders and their likely contributions to the development of schools in their communities.

# Chapter Twenty

# ADMINISTRATIVE CHALLENGES IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN NIGERIA

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we are going to focus attention on higher education. Higher education is the highest of the three levels of education. You shall learn about global objectives of higher education, tertiary education and its goals; quality of teachers and instructions in Nigerian tertiary institutions; physical plants and financial positions of tertiary institutions in Nigeria; tertiary institutions' relationships with Fderal Ministry of Education, Governing Councils and other regulatory agencies (NUC, NCCE, etcetera). Acts of indiscipline in tertiary institutions (cultism and examination malpractices) and extra-curricular activities.

Higher education

Objectives of tertiary education in nigeria

Different institutions that offer tertiary education

Specific objectives of various institutions of higher learning (universities, polytechnics, colleges of education).

The relevance of each of the higher institutions to individual and societal survival.
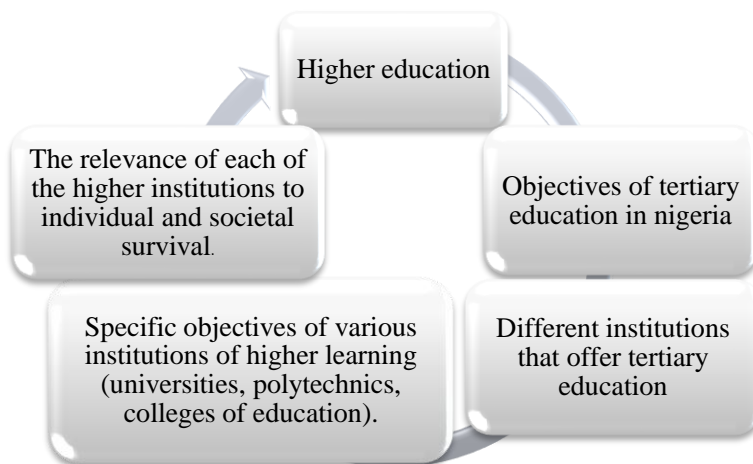
## OBJECTIVES

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

- Define higher education.
- Mention overall objectives of tertiary education in Nigeria.
- State different institutions that offer tertiary education.
- List specific objectives of various institutions of higher learning (Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education and Monotechnics).
- Discuss the relevance of each higher institution to individuals and societal survival.

## TERTIARY EDUCATION

The National Policy on Education (2004) defined *Tertiary Education* as the education given after secondary education. It education obtained in universities, colleges of education, polytechnics, monotechnics as well as those institutions offering correspondence courses. Ikediugwu (2017) stated that tertiary or higher education has two meanings. First, it means the next academic level (without research component) after secondary education. Second, it signifies the system of institutions that provides post-secondary school courses which also engages in research. The second meaning is most relevant to university education.

## GOALS OF TERTIARY EDUCATION

According to the National Policy on Education (2004:31), the goals of tertiary education are to:
- Contribute to national development through high level relevant manpower training.
- Develop and inculcate proper values for the survival of individuals and societies.
- Acquire physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of society.

- Promote and encourage scholarship and community service.
- Forge and cement national unity.
- Promote national and international understanding and interactions.

The policy document added that tertiary institutions shall pursue these goals through:
- Teaching.
- Research and development.
- Staff development programmes.
- A variety of modes of programmes including:
  - Full-time.
  - Block-release.
  - Deny release.
  - Sandwich, etcetera.
- Access to training funds such as those provided by Industrial Training Fund (ITF) and Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES).
- Maintenance of minimum educational standards through appropriate agencies.

## UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

University is the apex of all tertiary institutions. It is expected to make optimum contributions to national development by:
- Intensifying and diversifying its programmes for the development of high level manpower within the context of the needs of national requirements.
- Making professional course contents to reflect our national requirements.
- Making all students, as part of a general programme of all-round improvements in university education to offer general study courses such as history of ideas, philosophy of knowledge and nationalism.

There are three categories of universities by ownership in Nigeria. These include:

- Federally-owned universities
- State-owned universities, and
- Private-owned universities.

Universities can also be categorized along the courses offered. We have specialist universities that offer particular programmes. For instance, we have universities specializing in Agriculture like Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta (FUNAAB), Ogun State; universities specializing in technology like the Federal University of Technology Owerri (FUTO). The second type is the general universities, where different programmes are offered. Examples include: University of lbadan (U1), University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN); University of Lagos (UNILAG), National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) and Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), Zaria.

## HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

Two accounts of missionary endeavours to promote Western education in Nigeria preceded the imperial occupation and were well documented by African historians of education. (Fafunwa, 1991; Taiwo, 1980 and Osokoya, 1989). The first account was the contact made by Portuguese merchants in the first half of the 15th Century. As early as 1472, Portuguese had landed in Benin City (a Nigerian city in present Edo State) for trading purposes. They, therefore, established trading posts along the coastal areas of Nigeria including Lagos and Brass. Meanwhile, as they realized the need to communicate with people of the area in a common language and possibly share a common faith with their customers, they invited the Roman

Catholic Mission from their home country who eventually founded schools and churches along the trading posts. By 1515, a school had been founded in Oba's Palace in Benin City while a seminary to train African priests and teachers to manage churches and schools was founded in Sao Tome (an island off the Coast of Nigeria) in 1571. This encounter was, however, an abortive experience as the Portuguese' influence faded away as a result of inter-tribal wars that ravaged the area for about 300 years over the natives' greeds to catch slaves for export to Europe and American (Fafunwa, 1991).

The second missionary attempt, however, was successful and had a lasting impact on the people of Nigeria. Between 1842 and 1892, eight different Christian missions had established themselves in different parts of Southern Nigeria while several abortive attempts were made by some missions to penetrate into the Islamic areas of the north. The Wesleyan Methodist, the first to arrive confined themselves to the South-Western part of Yoruba land with their strength concentrated in Lagos, Abeokuta and lbadan. The Church Missionary Society (C.M.S), by far the largest, concentrated in Yoruba land and Niger-Delta (Osokoya, 2010). The United Presbyterian Church (Church of Scotland) concentrated efforts in Old Calabar. The Southern American Baptist Church found strength in Lagos, Abeokuta and Ogbomoso while the Qua lboe Mission from protestant Ireland established themselves along the Qua lboe River in present day Akwa Ibom State.

On arrival, these missions founded schools with curriculum heavily weighted on the three areas: *Reading, Writing* and *Arithmetic*. Mission schools were inadequately funded as the missions enjoyed virtually no financial support from their home countries. Schools were run on limited funds subscribed

by the local congregations. Teachers who were appointed were untrained and unqualified as teacher education programmes were not available in the country then. Attempts made in these early years of formal education to recruit teachers from the West Indies and older British settlements of West Africa did not solve the problem. Painting the picture of teachers employed in mission schools in 1901, Afigbo (1968) quoted the then Inspector of School, who wrote:

> *"Very few teachers in schools in the protectorate hold any certificate or have any training as teachers. They are for the most part, 'mission agents' of whose duties teaching in the mission schools forms only a part and no educational qualification or attainment are required for them."*

Historically, the first teacher training institution in Nigeria was founded by the Church Missionary Society in 1859. The school that was established in Abeokuta and named, *"The Training Institution"* was moved to Lagos in 1867 when the missionaries were expelled from the town (Fafunwa, 1991). The school was later moved to Oyo in 1896 and renamed, *"St. Andrews College, Oyo."* The Baptist Mission followed the example of the CMS and founded a teacher training college in Ogbomosho in 1897. In the same vein, the Wesleyan Methodist founded *Wesley College*, lbadan in 1905. The first teacher training in northern Nigeria was *Nassarawa College* founded by the Colonial Government in 1909.

The main concern of the missions' teacher training institutions were to produce school masters who were to graduate to classroom teachers, catechists, deacons and priests (Osoba and Fajana, 1980). Therefore, subjects taught in these teacher

training institutes at the time included: New Testament Criticism, Christian Faith, School Method and Management, Preaching and Theology; Hygiene, Geography, History, English Language, etcetera (Fafunwa, 1991). Operations of teacher education under this period was heavily criticized by the *Phelps Stokes Commission Report* of 1922 for its irrelevant and poorly conceived curriculum, inadequate supervisory system and the high rate of teacher-pupil ratio.

In 1929, Mr. E. R. J. Hussey, first Director of Education, re-organised the teacher training system in Nigeria along the suggestions given by the *Phelps Stokes Report*. Meanwhile, he centralised the control of education in Nigeria by merging the existing two Departments of Education in Northern and Southern Provinces. He there after created two types of teacher training institutions, namely:

1. *The Elementary Training Centre (E. T. C.).* This is a two- year course leading to the award of Teachers Grade III Certificate for lower primary school teachers.
2. *The Higher Elementary Training College (H.E.T.C.).* This is another two-year course leading to the award of Teachers' Grade II Certificate.

Another historical landmark in the development of teacher education in Nigeria was the establishment of Yaba Higher College by the British Colonial Administration in 1932. The College ran a three-year diploma teacher education programme from its inception. Unfortunately, Yaba Higher College suffered immensely during the Second World War. Its campus and medical school were acquired by the army for war purposes. The College was finally absorbed by the University College, lbadan in 1947. The diploma course was discontinued in 1950.

Teacher education programme in Nigeria was further enhanced when University College, lbadan, founded in 1948 introduced one-year diploma course in education from the 1957/1958 academic session.

## REGIONALIZATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

The 1946 Richards' Constitution divided Nigeria into three Regions: East, West and North with a regional assembly. The Regions were dominated by three political parties - National Convention of Nigerian Citizens (N.C.N.C.) in the East; Action Group (A.G.) in the West and Northern People's Congress (N.P.C) in the North, respectively.

The 1951 Macpherson Constitution further strengthened regionalism and particularly empowered each region to pass laws on education. The regionalization of education in Nigeria set the stage for intensive political rivalry in the provision of social services, particularly education for the governed in their respective areas. For Western and Eastern Regional Governments, education was utmost priority.

The Western Regional Government embarked on *Free Universal Primary Education* in 1955. While Eastern Regional Government followed suit in 1957, the Northern Regional Government did not embark on the Free Universal Education programme until the project was launched nationwide in September, 1976. Lagos Municipal Government launched the UPE programme in January, 1957. The implementation of *Free Universal Primary Education* programmes in the 1950s gave rise to crash programmes for massive production of trained teachers, particularly in the Western Region. New teacher training colleges were founded

while some of the old ones were expanded to meet the increasing demands for teachers.

## TEACHER EDUCATION AFTER INDEPENDENCE

Nigeria obtained her independence from the British imperialists in October, 1960. She, however, experienced a Civil War between 1968 and 1970 which had an adverse effect on her socio-economic development and consequently her educational system. The experiences of the Civil War, however, rekindled Nigerians' faith in education as Government saw education as the major vehicle for national rehabilitation, reconstruction and reconciliation. The military, unlike civilians heavily depended on centralised administration. It launched the Universal Primary Education nationwide in 1976. The UPE gave rise to unprecedented growth not only in the primary, but also at the secondary and tertiary levels.

The demands for teacher education was enormous. In view of this, Federal Government took over the financial responsibilities for all Grade ll Teachers' Colleges throughout the Federation as part of the programme for the scheme. In addition, Federal Government awarded bursaries to all pre-service teachers in Colleges of Education and Universities. In addition, Federal Government founded more teacher training institutions with diversified programmes while universities were expanded.

## CURRENT DISPENSATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Today, teacher education is much improved than it was before independence and few decades thereafter. The National Policy on Education published in 1977 and revised in 1981, 1998 and

2004 clearly articulates the importance attached to teacher education and affirms that, *"No education system can rise above the quality of its teachers."* The Policy enumerates the goals of teacher education as:

- Producing highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our education system.
- Encouraging the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers.
- Helping teachers to fit into the social life of their host communities and society at large, and to enhance their commitments to national goals.
- Providing teachers with intellectual and professional backgrounds adequate for their assignments and to make them adaptable to changing conditions.
- Enhancing teachers' commitments to the teaching profession.

The Policy makes it mandatory for all teachers in Nigeria to be trained and stipulates *Nigeria Certificate of Education* (NCE) as the minimum qualification for anyone who desires to come into the profession. The Policy also provides that:

> *"Teacher education shall continue to take cognizance of changes in methodology and in the curriculum…. Teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession."*

It further recognizes the need for in-service training *"as an integral part of continuing teacher education."*

The statutory responsibility for teacher education in Nigeria today is vested in Colleges of Education, Institutes of

Education, Polytechnics, National Teachers' Institute (distance learning) and Universities' Faculties of Education.

Polytechnics and Colleges of Education award the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) which is a sub-degree, but a professionally-demanding diploma obtainable after three years of full-time study. The admission requirements for the NCE programme is Senior Secondary Certificate or its equivalent with passes in five subjects including English Language. The curriculum for NCE teachers is well-designed to produce teachers exposed to a breadth of studies covering all that are required to make them competent professionals.
New courses such as Computer Education, Mathematics and General English have been made compulsory for all NCE students. Also relevant themes such as Nigerian Constitution, Environmental Conservation Education, Population and Family Life Education; HIV/AIDS Education, Drug Abuse and Women's Education have recently been infused into the curriculum.

The National Teachers' Institute (NTI) was established in 1976 by Decree No. 7 of 1976 to offer upgrading programmes for teachers through distance learning. Over the years, NTI has been providing in-service training for teachers during school holidays and week-ends for the award of NCE, B.Ed and Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) certificates.

Institutes of Education in various universities have also been involved through distance learning and part-time courses in the training of teachers for N.C.E, B.Ed. and PGDE Certificates. Faculties of Education prepare pre-science teachers for B.Ed., B.A. Ed. and M. Ed degrees. There are four major requirements for the degree programme in Nigerian universities, namely:

- General Studies.
- Educational Studies.
- Studies related to students' intended field of teaching.
- Teaching practice.

## CHALLENGES OF TEACHER EDUCATION
The future challenges of teacher education in Nigeria are numerous, but the following have been selected for discussion in this section:

## Quality Assurance and Internal Efficiency
The academic and emotional qualities of intending teachers for training are critical for quality assurance and internal efficiency for professionalism in teaching in the future. Candidates who usually apply to higher institutions for teacher education in Nigeria are those who have either been denied admissions or are basically unqualified for admission into such popular professions including Medicine, Law, Engineering, Architecture, etcetera. The usual shortage of applicants seeking admission into teaching programmes in our national universities is a pointer to why admission selection could not be rigorous as it is in other notable and popular professions. International Labour Organisation (ILO) recommends that teachers should be selected on the basis of moral, intellectual and physical qualities.

According to Lassa (2000), in United Kingdom, applicants must be seen to possess certain personal qualities and characteristics before they are admitted for training, Yet, in most of the Nigerian Universities, Colleges of Education and Polytechnics, students' admissions are usually based on obtaining the minimum academic requirements while other requirements such as emotional and psychological stabilities,

physical uprightness and communication proficiencies are hardly given consideration. In addition to the above, the low quality of teachers produced through in-service training by N.T.l. is a serious challenge to teacher education. Nigerian scholars noted that most of the teachers upgraded to Teachers Grade ll by N.T.l. are deficient not only in the academic subjects they teach, but also in techniques of teaching (Obanya, 2004; Enukora, 2003). The most disheartening challenge is the ongoing Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) which is currently being executed by the National Teachers' Institute (NTI).

Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) is a crash programme of the Federal Government to raise teachers to implement the UBE programme. It was introduced to address the gross shortage of qualified teachers at the inception of UBE in 1999 in an apparent search for cost-effective alternatives for bridging the gap (FGN, 2003). PTTP is a 15-month course including 12-weeks' school experience and three-month internship in a primary school. The mode of teaching combines face-to-face contact during week-ends and holidays, self-instruction course materials and school experience after which the candidate is qualified to teach. Critics of the programme, however, condemned the low academic standards of the recipients and the poor quality of admission requirements for the programme (Enukora, et al 2003).

## Professionalization of Teaching

Teaching in Nigeria cannot yet be regarded as a profession in the true sense of the word. This is because a large number of untrained and uncertificated personnel are still retained on the job. Many unqualified teachers are still in the employment role

of some State's teaching service boards while most higher education lecturers are yet to undergo training in education. Until Government makes it mandatory for all involved in the task of teaching to be qualified in Nigeria, teaching will still continue to be any man's business and cannot claim professionalism as other notable professions such as Law, Medicine, Engineering, etcetera.

## Brain Drain Syndrome

The quality of education in Nigeria has reduced in recent years because of the brain-drain phenomenon, which led to the drift of more able and more experienced university lecturers to countries where they are offered better remunerations. This brain-drain syndrome are attributable to a large extent to lack of incentives to improve performances, very poor equipped working environments, inadequate social recognitions, lack of control over working conditions and late payment of salaries of teachers. Reliance on inexperienced lecturers in various educational fields in the country definitely affects the quality of students' works, and of course, lecturers of the future. This vicious circle contributes to the low status of education in universities, colleges of education as well as secondary and primary schools.

## Low Morale of Teachers

The problems of attrition in the teaching force and the dwindling enrolment in teacher education programmes have contributed immensely to the low social status of teachers in Nigeria. Teachers' conditions of service are not enticing enough to attract and retain the best brains in Nigeria.

## Globalization and Insufficient Knowledge of Information Communication Technology (ICT)

Another major challenge to teacher education in Nigeria is that of globalization. The knowledge and use of computer is a necessity for all teachers if we are to be relevant in the future. Teachers need to be trained and re-trained in *Information Communication Technology* (ICT), more so, that the world is gradually becoming a global village. For our future teachers to be able to operate effectively and efficiently, they must imbibe the new technologies and methodologies of the modern times.

## Operation of Continuous Assessment Practice

Perhaps, a revolution in teacher education programme in Nigeria is the issue of *Improved Assessment Practice of Students' Learning Outcomes*. The National Policy on Education (1981) recommended the implementation of continuous assessment practice at all levels of education in Nigeria.

Continuous assessment is the method of finding out what the students have gained from learning activities in terms of knowledge, thinking and reasoning, character development and industry over a period of time. Scholars in evaluation (Falayajo, 2004; Obanya, 1982; Emeke, 1999; Yoloye, 1984 and Bajah, 1984) adjudge continuous assessment as the best thing that could happen to the system of assessment in Nigeria's educational institutions. Yet, its implementation has been partially undertaken because teachers have not been well-trained for it. It is necessary to include training in continuous assessment practice in the pre-service and in-service programmes of teacher education in Nigeria.

**TEACHER EDUCATION**

Nigeria showed her belief in teacher education in realizing the goals of the education system as well as being a veritable means of achieving national development. Thus, she asserted that teacher education shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development. The objectives of teacher education include:

- To produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of the educational system.
- To encourage the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers.
- To help teachers fit into the social life of their host communities and society at large.
- Enhance their commitments to national goals.
- To provide teachers with intellectual and professional backgrounds adequate for their assignments and make them adaptable to changing situations.
- To enhance teachers' commitments to the teaching profession (NPE, l998).

The institutions that are given recognition by Government to provide teacher education are:

- Institutes of Education.
- National Open University.
- National Teachers' Institute.
- National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE)

National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) was set up by the defunct Federal Military Government under Decree No.3 of 1989 with its headquarters in Kaduna. The Commission's functions are similar to those of National

Universities Commission (NUC) and National Board For Technical Education (NBTE).

What NUC is to all Universities in the country and the NBTE is to all Polytechnics in the country, NCCE is to all Colleges of Education in the country. The National Commission for Colleges of Education, among other things carries out the following functions:

1. Advises Government on the creation of new programmes and Colleges of Education in the country.
2. Accredits approved courses and programmes in Colleges of Education.
3. Prepares periodic masterplans for balanced programmes and coordinates development of all Colleges of Education
4. Stipulates entry qualifications into all Colleges of Education.
5. Disburses Government's grants.
6. Oversees the judicious use of grants in all Colleges of Education.
7. Undertakes periodic reviews of terms and conditions of service of personnel in Colleges of Education.
8. Develops general programmes and courses to be pursued by the Colleges in order to ensure that they are adequate for the development of teacher education and production of qualified teachers for primary and secondary schools in Nigeria.
9. Establishes standards and develops curriculum for all Colleges of Education in Nigeria.
10. Collates, analyses and publishes information relating to teacher education and teachers in Nigeria.

Since its inception, National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) has also been noted for organizing and sponsoring conferences, seminars and workshops for the development of educational programmes, practices and teacher education, vis-à-vis its roles in national development in Nigeria. Some of the proceedings of these conferences, seminars and workshops have consequently been published in educational journals and books of reference.

The recently published NCCE Handbook contains all the programmes and courses approved by NCCE to be undertaken in all Colleges of Education in the country. As an agent of the Federal Ministry of Education, NCCE is responsible to the Ministry.

The Commission has also extended its scope to include the ranking of Colleges of Education in Nigeria according to their performances with respect to their programmes.

## National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)

National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) was established as an Agent of the Federal Ministry of Education. The Board was established to carter to all institutions of learning undertaking technical education programmes in Nigeria. These include Polytechnics and Colleges of Technology that are either owned by Federal and State Governments.

Other functions of NBTE include:
1. Advises Government on the creation of new programmes in Polytechnics and Colleges of Technology
2. Accredits approved courses and programmes in Polytechnics and Colleges of Technology

3. Stipulates entry qualifications into all polytechnics in the country.
4. Disburses Government grants and oversees the judicious use of such grants in polytechnics in Nigeria.
5. Collects, collates, analyses and published information relating to technical and technological education in Nigeria.
6. Sees to the development of technical education in Nigeria.
7. Undertakes periodic reviews of terms and conditions of service of all personnel in polytechnics in Nigeria.
8. Establishes standards and develops curriculum for all polytechnics in Nigeria.

The NBTE is responsible to the Federal Ministry of Education.

## Polytechnic Education

*Polytechnic* refers to any non-university tertiary institution in Nigeria offering varieties of technical, technological and business diploma programmes at National Diploma (ND), Higher National Diploma (HND) and post-HND levels that qualify holders for registration into their professional fields (*National Board for Technical Education*, 2002).

Polytechnic education provides the technical knowledge and skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic developments of Nigeria (FGN, 2004).

The specific goals of polytechnic education in Nigeria are to:
1. Provide full-time or part-time courses of instruction and training in Engineering, other technologies, Applied Science, Business and Management leading to the production of training manpower.

2. Provide the technical knowledge and skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic developments of Nigeria.
3. Give training and impart the necessary skills for the production of technicians, technologists and other skilled personnel who shall be enterprising and self-reliant.
4. Give exposure on professional studies in technologies (NPE, 1998).

## Monotechnic Education

Monotechnics are single-subject technological institutions for specialized programmes such as agriculture, fisheries, forestry, surveying, accountancy, nursing, mining, petroleum and so on. Structure and status of programmes in monotechnics are equivalent to those of polytechnics and regulated by National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). The goals are to:

1. Provide full-time or part-time courses of instruction and training in Engineering, other technologies, Applied Science, Business and Management leading to the production of trained manpower.
2. Provide the technical knowledge and skills necessary for agricultural industrial, commercial and economic development of Nigeria.
3. Give training and impart necessary skills for the production of technicians, technologists and other skilled personnel who shall be enterprising and self-reliant.
4. Give exposure on professional studies in technologies (NPE, 1998).

## CONCLUSION

Education is the bedrock of national development. However, the kind of education that will bring about national development goes beyond primary and secondary education. This emphasizes the importance of tertiary education. Tertiary education offers skills required for individual self-reliance which in turn boosts economic growth.

In Nigeria, institutions offering tertiary education include Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education and Monotechnics. Out of these institutions of higher learning, universities are at the peak of the educational system. This implies, therefore, that the priority given to university education by stakeholders will determine the extent the nation will grow.

## Summary

In this chapter, you learnt what tertiary education are as well as their general objectives. You also learnt that tertiary education is obtained in universities, polytechnics, monotechnics and colleges of education; that university occupies the highest level of the educational system.

Teacher education is considered very relevant for Nigeria's socio-economic and socio-polical developments because it serves as the foundation for quality and relevant education at all levels of the system.

In re-assessing the trends and dynamics of teacher education in Nigeria since the colonial era, some major historical landmarks were identified. The first was Free Universal Primary Education Policies of the Action Group and the National Council of Nigerian Citizens (NCNC), which led to a great demand for trained teachers in Nigerian schools. The role of the Military Administration of General Murtala

Muhammed/Olusegun Obasanjo in the provision of free universal primary education nation-wide in 1976 was also a major mile-stone in the growth of teacher education. The need to meet the basic teacher education requirements for the new *Universal Basic Education* as well as the implementation of 2004 *National Policy on Education* were recognized as historical landmarks.

It was noted that access to teacher education programmes in the Nigerian higher education did not conform to international standards as laid down by International Labour Organisation (ILO). There were brain-drain syndrome as well as insufficient knowledge of Information and Communication Technology among Nigerian teachers. There is, therefore, the need for all Nigerian teachers to be proficient in the use of computer. It is only when they are well-equipped in the use of computer that they can imbibe the new technologies and methodologies of the 21st Century.

There is also need to train our future teachers on entrepreneurial skills' development. It is only when teachers are well equipped with such skills that they can transfer them to students.

Finally, the task of improving teachers' welfare must be addressed by Nigeria's Governments. The teaching environment must be well-equipped to retain qualified and experienced teachers in our classrooms. Teachers' salaries must be paid regularly while other social benefits should be provided to motivate and retain teachers.

## Review Questions
1. What are the general goals of tertiary education in Nigeria?

2. What is the role of tertiary education in national development?
3. Differentiate between *polytechnic* and *monotechnic*.

# Chapter Twenty-One
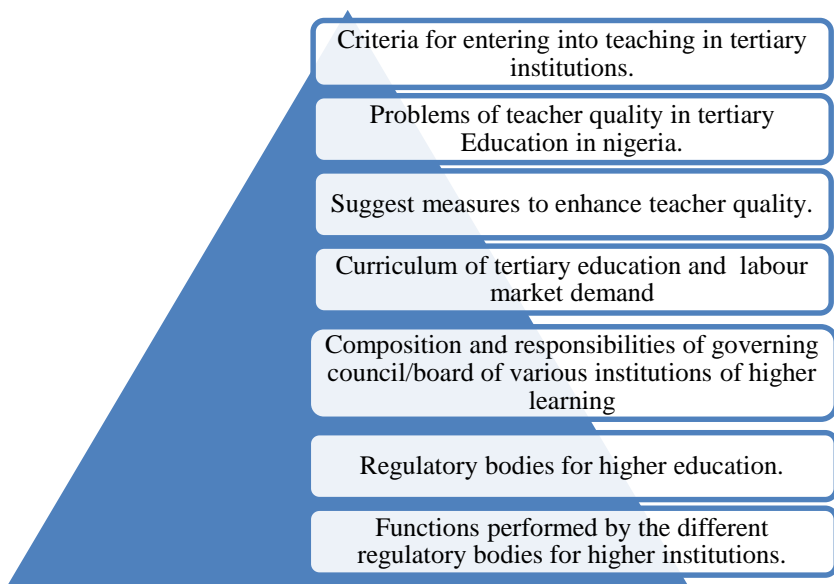
# QUALITY OF TEACHERS AND INSTRUCTIONS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, focus will be on *Quality of teachers and instructions in tertiary institutions.* These two factors are important towards achievements of the goals of tertiary education. Though technological advancement has introduced different media of instruction, all these media are to complement teachers' efforts, not to replace them.

The quality of teachers who teach in our various tertiary institutions is important. Ifn they are poorly trained and equipped, it means that their products will be poorly prepared. It is a garbage-in-garbage-out. If teachers in our tertiary institutions are well-ground in their core subject areas, there is no gainsaiying the fact that their products will be universally accepted.

Tertiary institutions are set out to achieve a set of objectives for the survival of individuals and society. The establishment, resource allocation, appointments of staff, administration and funding of these institutions are handled by one body or the other. In this chapter, you will learn about the relationships that exist between institutions of higher learning and various statutory bodies like Federal Ministry of Education, Governing Councils, Boards and other regulatory bodies saddled with quality control functions for given institutions.

Criteria for entering into teaching in tertiary institutions.

Problems of teacher quality in tertiary Education in nigeria.

Suggest measures to enhance teacher quality.

Curriculum of tertiary education and labour market demand

Composition and responsibilities of governing council/board of various institutions of higher learning

Regulatory bodies for higher education.

Functions performed by the different regulatory bodies for higher institutions.

## OBJECTIVES

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

1. Explain the criteria for being enlisted to teach in tertiary institutions.
2. Discuss problems of teacher quality in tertiary education in Nigeria.
3. Suggest measures to enhance teacher quality.
4. Relate the curriculum of tertiary education to labour market demands.
5. Discuss the composition and responsibilities of Governing Council/Board of various institutions of higher learning such as the Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education.
6. Mention the regulatory bodies for higher education.
7. List functions performed by the different regulatory bodies for higher institutions.

# HIGHER EDUCATION AND TEACHER SELECTION

The National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004) states clearly that no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers. The laudable goals of tertiary education are only realizable when the curricula to achieve them are delivered by professionals in their various fields. The Nigerian Government knows the worth and value of teachers in tertiary institutions. Indeed, participants at the Baguada Seminar on *"Quantities and qualities in Nigerian Education"* (NERC, 1980) shared the consensus that the quality of any educational system depends very much on the competence, commitment and motivation of teachers. The report of the seminar puts it succinctly as follows:

> *"Teachers are the main determinant of quality education; if they are apathetic, uncommitted, uninspired, lazy, unmotivated, immoral, anti-social, the whole nation is doomed. If they are ignorant in their disciplines and impart wrong information, they are not only useless, but dangerous. The kind of teachers trained and posted to schools may well determine what the next generation will be."*

Employment of teachers in different tertiary institutions takes different forms. However, the minimum entry qualification of a teaching staff into any polytechnic is a Bachelor's degree in relevant field. In Colleges of Education, National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) requires that candidates to be considered for appointments should have, in addition to first degree, some qualification in education. This means that they have to be certified as professional teachers. The minimum academic qualification required for appointing a

university teacher in Nigeria is Master's Degree. Occasionally, *"Persons who earned high quality Bachelor's degrees are given positions of Assistant Lecturer"* while in some cases, *"those who have Second Class (Honours) Upper Division are given the job of a Graduate Assistant"* (Mgbekem, 2004:165).

Nevertheless, for university lectureship, there is an emphasis by NUC that the minimum requirement should be a doctoral degree. Government expects that *"persons with Third Class (Honors) and Pass degrees are never considered for lectureship appointment"* (Mgbekem, 2004).

To demonstrate her keen interest in teachers' professionalism, in the National Policy on Education, "government emphasized that all teachers in tertiary institutions shall be encouraged to undergo training in the methods and techniques of teaching." To this end, some of the teachers in universities who are not certified teachers have enrolled for courses leading to the award of a Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE).

## PROBLEMS OF TEACHER QUALITY IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

A lot of factors constitute problem to teachers' quality across tertiary institutions in Nigeria. The problems of teacher quality are listed below:

## Jettisoning of Employment Procedures into Tertiary Institutions

Some institutions of higher learning compromise standards in their employment processes. Out of the pool of applicants for teaching appointments, mediocre are sometimes selected based on recommendations from the "powers that be." The consequences of this is borne by students.

## Over-Crowding Lecture Rooms

The enrolment explosion in various institutions of higher learning creates problems for teachers. Most lecturers often find it extremely difficult to recognize more than fifty percent of students in their classes.

## Brain Drain

The recurrent problems invading Nigeria's teriary education system have also led to a number of lecturers and researchers leaving the shores of the country for greener pastures abroad.

## Inadequate Infrastructural Facilities

There are resources that are expected to enhance teachers' quality. These include regular supply of electricity, access to Internet facilities, well-equipped laboratories, functional libraries, and befitting offices, etcetera. This inadequacy has often formed part of Academic Staff Union of Universities' (ASUU's) grouse with Government leading to prolonged strikes.

## Inaccessibility to Grants

Research and Conference attendance are crucial and of great importance to faculty members in tertiary institutions of learning. Regular research improves teachers' quality because new discoveries are often made. It is through research that teachers could become innovative. This would consequently enhance their performances. In some institutions, teachers do not enjoy research grants. To a large extent, this limits their exposures.

## ATTRACTION AND RETENTION OF QUALITY TEACHERS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

Employment of good quality teachers in tertiary institutions is a pre-condition to quality of instruction. The case study on

how to attract teachers of good qualities and their retention in universities is considered here. The same process transpires in polytechnics, monotechnics and colleges of education.

According to Babalola (2008), the general procedure for attracting, selecting and retraining the best scholars to teach at the university level in Nigeria involves articulation of staff post, requisition by heads of academic units, authorisation by the establishment unit to recruit, advertisement (internal/ external to contact all sources), application analysis into suitable, possible and unsuitable applicants, short-listing from the suitable lists, assessment of suitable applicants through interviews, appointment (letter) subject to medical tests and references as well as acceptance of offer by the most suitable applicant(s).

Others include administrative appropriation (opening of a file and organization of induction), assumption of duty by filling of an engagement form, addressing a *Letter of Regret* to unsuccessful applicants, and accounting system for effective coordination of pay-roll. Having recruited the best scholars from diverse sources, the conditions of service is spelt out to them.

After employment, quality teachers can be encouraged to stay on the job through the following:
- Provision for research grants.
- Sponsoring them to attend conferences.
- Providing them good office accommodation.
- Provision of necessary tools such as desktop, laptop, scanner, printer, Internet facilities.
- Regular payment of salary and allowances.
- Involving them in decisions that affect them.

- Allowing them to use their initiatives.
- Organizing capacity-building workshops/seminars for them.

## TERTIARY EDUCATION, QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION AND LABOUR MARKET DEMANDS

Concerns have been raised about the decline in the quality of education in Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education. This is evident by the quality of graduates produced by these institutions. For instance, graduates from Nigerian universities are faced with problem of unemployment upon graduation. In 2006, the Federal Ministry of Education conducted a large survey involving more than 10,000 online participants to track products of Nigeria's educational sector. The survey clearly showed a disturbing trend in which over 60% of participants were unemployed or under-employed (Babalola, 2007). This could be attributed to their poor quality as well as mismatch between labour market and higher education curriculum. From their observations, Saint, Hartmet and Strassner (2003) lamented that Nigeria's university system is performing poorly in the area of teaching and learning in terms of labour market absorption and employers' assessment of graduates. Thus, Mohammed and Gbenu (2007) and Obayan (1999) affirmed that the quality of education offered by higher education institutions in recent times has deteriorated substantially.

Babalola (2007) described the situation in our tertiary institutions as *"institutional failure"* because of skill mismatch. He said that skill mismatch is one of the major reasons Nigeria's graduates are jobless. Other reasons are:

## Disparity Between Teaching In Our Institutions and Needs of The Labour Market

According to Nwankwo (2019), lack of consultation with private sector has led to teaching of outdated curriculum, resources and teaching methods. Majority of students learn through lectures and academic textbooks and are academically sound, but often have limited opportunities of acquiring practical experiences by using machinery, equipment and practical techniques associated with their professions.

## Lack of Qualified Teachers to Teach Vocational, Innovative, Entrepreneurship and Job Skills

In addition to the above, strike actions in tertiary institutions of learning have constituted serious threats to effective learning. All tertiary institutions witnessed a strike action in 2009.

Non-accreditation of some of the programmes in our tertiary institutions is another major factor in ensuring quality of instructions. A report shows that out of 836 undergraduate programmes evaluated for accreditation in 1991, only 185 met the requirements in terms of academic contents, staffing and physical facilities, 79 were denied accreditation and as many as 572 received only interim accreditation (Sanyal, et al, 1995). Also, NUC's report in 2006 observed that of 1,345 academic programmes evaluated, 102 (7.6%) were denied accreditation, 670 (49.9%) had interim accreditation while 371 (42.5%) had full accreditation (NUC, 2006). What do we expect from programmes that are not given full accreditation and those with interim accreditation?

- They are signals of poor instructions.
- Review of curriculum to suit emerging needs.

- Development of consumer-driven and entrepreneurial programmes in all higher institutions of learning.
- Strong linkage with the private sector. The needs of private and corporate organizations have been put into consideration through their involvements in curriculum review.
- Inculcation of requisite skills to thrive in the labour market.
- Regular accreditation exercises to improve quality of instruction.
- Upgrading of instructional facilities in institutions of higher learning.

## Tertiary Institutions' Relationship with Ministry of Education

It is important to start the discussion here on the legal framework for educational management in Nigeria. The 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria provides the basic legal framework for educational management in the country. In Section 18, Chapter 2 of the Constitution spelt out the national educational objectives thus:

1. Government shall direct its policy towards ensuring that there are equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels.
2. Government shall promote science and technology.
3. Government shall strive to eradicate illiteracy.

Schedule II of the Constitution defined the legislative powers of the three tiers of Government. Education is on the *concurrent legislative list*, giving powers to both Federal and State Governments to make laws for the planning, organization and management of education. Item 'K' on that list deals with university, technological and post-primary

education, including professional education and provides that Federal and State Governments can legislate on, establish and manage institutions for the purposes of providing university, technological, professional or post-primary education.

In view of the above, the establishment of institutions of higher education in the country can be done by both Federal and State Governments. For effective planning and administration, both Federal and State Governments utilize ministries on various issues. Thus, Federal Ministry of Education bears the responsibility that relates to education that exists at the centre.

Federal and State Ministries of Education have different departments of education. Federal Ministry of Education has mandate to issue policy that is binding on both Federal and State tertiary institutions for quality assurance while States, too, have authority to regulate higher education policy in line with National Policy on Education.

Following are some areas where the Ministry of Education and tertiary institutions relate:

1. Ministry of Education advises Government on the establishment of tertiary institutions.
2. Ministry of Education is responsible for the supervision of higher education in areas such as curriculum and staff matters, physical plants, and so on.
3. Involvements in staffing of higher institutions.
4. Recommendations of members of Governing Councils.
5. Preparation of budgets for higher education.
6. Collections and analysis of relevant demographic information and data necessary for the effective and efficient organization and management of tertiary education.

## TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS AND GOVERNING BOARD OR COUNCIL

As discussed earlier, Federal Ministry of Education has the mandate to establish federal higher institutions. States also enjoy the same opportunity through as enshrined in Concurrent List.

After the establishment of a tertiary institution by either the Federal or State Government, there is need to constitute a Governing Board. The Governing Board can also be referred to as the Governing Council. This is the body charged with the responsibility of running the affairs of the concerned institution. Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka is a case study.

## FUNCTIONS OF UNIVERSITY COUNCIL AND SENATE THE COUNCIL

1. The University Council is responsible for policy matters, finance and properties of the university including public relations. It is noteworthy to mention that Council operates through other committees with several responsibilities.
2. The Council is the governing body of the university and shall have the general management of the affairs of the university and in particular the control of the property and expenditure of the university.
3. The Council has powers to do anything which in its opinion is calculated to facilitate the carrying of the activities of the university.
4. The Council may make statutes regulating the constitution and conduct of the university and regulating any authority or matter connected with the university.

5. The Council shall keep proper accounts in respect of the period of twelve months ending with the thirtieth day of June of each year, and proper records in relation to those accounts.
6. The composition and functions performed by the Council of the university may be similar to all Federal institutions of higher learning, especially universities.

State and private tertiary institutions may take different forms. We can, therefore, conclude that the Governing Council has an important role to play in effective administration of tertiary institutions.

## The Senate

The University Senate organises and controls teaching in the University, and promotes university research. It sees to the disciplining of students, awards degrees, diplomas and certificates; recommends to Council persons found worthy for the award of honorary degrees, and grants fellowships and prizes.

Senate has Boards and Committees, which include:
1. Admissions Committee.
2. Examination Board Committee.
3. Scholarship Committee.
4. Curriculum Committee.
5. Research Grants Committee.
6. Development Committee.
7. Publications Committee.
8. Time-Table Committee.
9. Committee on Award of Honorary Degrees.
10. Ceremonials Committee.
11. Board of School of Postgraduate Studies.
12. Career Board.

13. Library Board.

## The Convocation
The University Convocation comprises:
1. High ranking officers of the University: Chancellor, Pro-Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and other principal officers.
2. Academic Staff.
3. All staff registered according to the provisions of the Law (Alumni).

## The Congregation
The membership of Congregation includes:
1. The Vice-Chancellor.
2. Full time members of the Academic Staff.
3. The Registrar.
4. The Bursar.
5. Every Administrative Staff who holds a degree of any University recognized for the purpose by the Statute.

Congregation elects two members of the Council as may be provided by Statute or regulations. Congregation expresses its opinion on any matter affecting the interest and welfare of the University.

## University Stakeholders
Stakeholders in the University are bodies which jointly have interest in the University and are affected by the object of interest. These include: students, University workers, proprietors of government bodies, parents and students. The University Stakeholders have expectations which are discharged through various units of the University. They can be Internal or External Stakeholders. In contemporary Nigerian universities, students and staff form the internal Stakeholders of the University. External Stakeholders include:

1. Prospective applicants, their parents and job seekers.
2. Parents of current students.
3. Alumni/Alumnae and former students.
4. Government.
5. Host communities.
6. Other Universities.

## TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH REGULATORY BODIES

In this subsection, we are going to devote our attention to the statutory bodies established by Federal Government to regulate the establishment, operations and administration of different institutions of higher learning. These bodies include:
1. National Universities Commission
2. National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)
3. National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE)

## RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN UNIVERSITIES AND NATIONAL UNIVERSITIES COMMISSION

## National Universities Commission

National Universities Commission (NUC) is a government regulatory agency which acts as a catalyst for positive change and innovation for the delivery of quality university education in Nigeria.

National Universities Commission was established in 1962 as an advisory agency in the Cabinet Office. However, in 1974, it became a statutory body. Its first Executive Secretary was Professor Jubril Aminu. NUC is a parastatal under the Federal Ministry of Education (FME). The Commission has a Governing Council as well as an Executive Secretary.

## *Functions of National Universities Commission*

According to NUC, the main functions of the Commission are:

1. Granting approval for all academic programs run in Nigerian universities.
2. Granting approval for the establishment of all higher educational institutions offering degree programmes in Nigerian universities.
3. Being channel for all external supports to Nigerian universities.
4. Advises the President and State Governors, through the Minister on the creation of new universities and other degree-awarding institutions in Nigeria.
5. To prepare, after consultation with State Governments, universities, National Manpower Board and such other bodies as it considers appropriate, periodic master plans for the balanced and co-coordinated developments of all universities in Nigeria.
6. To lay down Minimum Academic Standards in the Federal Republic of Nigeria and to accredit their degrees and other academic awards.
7. To ensure that quality is maintained within the academic programmes of the Nigerian University System.
8. To make such other investigations relating to higher education as the Commission may consider necessary in the national interest.
9. To inquire into and advise Federal Government on the financial needs, both recurrent and capital, of university education in Nigeria and, in particular, to investigate and study the financial needs of university research and to ensure that adequate provision is made for this in the universities.

10. To take into account, in advising Federal and State Governments on university finances, such grants as may be made to the Universities by Federal and State Governments, private proprietors and by persons and institutions in and outside Nigeria.
11. To undertake periodic reviews of terms and conditions of service of personnel engaged in universities and to make recommendations thereon to Federal Government where appropriate.
12. To undertake periodic reviews of terms and conditions of service of personnel engaged in the universities and to make recommendations thereon to Federal Government where appropriate.
13. To recommend to the Visitor of a university that a visitation be made to such university as and when it considers necessary.
14. To act as the agency for channeling all external aid to universities in Nigeria.
15. To receive block grants from Federal Government and allocate them to Federal Universities in accordance with such formula as may be laid down by the National Council of Ministers.
16. The Goals of the National Universities Commission:
    a. Attainment of stable and crisis-free University System.
    b. To work with Nigerian Universities to achieve full accreditation status for at least 80% of the academic programmes.
    c. To initiate and promote proficiency in the use of ICT for service delivery within the Commission and the Nigerian University System.

    d. Upgrade and maintain physical facilities in Nigerian University System for delivery of quality university education.

    e. To match university graduate output with national manpower needs.

    f. To foster partnership between Nigerian University System and the private sector.

## National Universities Commission Has Twelve Directorates

1. Directorate of Academic Planning.
2. Directorate of Inspection and Monitoring.
3. Directorate of Management Support Services.
4. Directorate of Establishment of Private Universities.
5. Directorate of Students' Support Services.
6. Directorate of Research, Innovations and Information Technology.
7. Directorate of Finance and Accounts.
8. Directorate of Accreditation.
9. Directorate of Open and Distance Education.
10. Directorate of Liaison Services and International Cooperation.
11. Directorate of Corporate Communications.
12. Directorate of the Executive Secretary's Office.

The Commission has recorded a number of successes since its inception. These successes can be attributed to quality of leadership, dedication and commitment of the staff; quality of its Board members, cooperation received from universities and support from Federal Government.

As a coordinating body, the Commission ensures it discharges its responsibilities by recruiting adequate and relevant

manpower and appeals to universities for their sustained support and understanding.

However, the empowerment of NUC to perfonn additional functions hitherto performed by the Senate in Universities is seen as infringement on university autonomy and academic freedom (Tamuno, 1987; Akinkugbe, 2001; Akinwumi and Afolayan, 2001). In his opinion, Akinkugbe perceived MAS document of NUC as an intention to reduce academic freedom in Nigerian universities. Thus, it appears that there exists a frosty relationship between NUC and university community, a development that is not supportive of quality assurance in Universities. This has been one of the major issues that ASUU is contesting with Govemment. It was one of the reasons for the strike actions embarked upon by ASUU in recent time. Therefore, to ensure effectiveness in universities, Ade-Ajayi (2001) suggested that NUC must revert to its traditional role at inception, which is that of advisory function.

## Relationship Between Colleges of Education and National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE)

National Commission for Colleges of Education was established by Decree (now Act) 13 of l7th January, 1989 (Amended Act 12 of 1993) as completion of tripod of excellence in the supervision of higher education in Nigeria.

The establishment of the Commission was a resultant effect of the utmost importance accorded to quality teacher education by Federal Government of Nigeria since inception. The Commission has continuously pursued goals of quality assurance in teacher education. There are 152 Colleges of Education in Nigeria, consisting of 27 Federal, 82 Private and 54 State Colleges of Education under its supervision.

## National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), Polytechnics and Monotechnics

National Board for Technical Education is a principal organ of Federal Ministry of Education specifically created to handle all aspects of technical and in addition to providing standardized minimum guide curricula for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Functions of NBTE include:

- Supervises and regulates Polytechnics, Monotechnics and other Technical and Vocational Education falling outside university education through an accreditation process and the programmes offered.
- It is also involved in the funding of Polytechnics owned by Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Other specific functions performed by NBTE are:

1. To support the training and development of teacher and vocational education managers, technical teachers and other technical personnel.
2. To review and update technical vocational education curricula and prepare curriculum for new disciplines and for other target groups.
3. To support identification and preparation of feasibility studies and project documents for further projects to strengthen the development of technical and vocational education in Nigeria.

## Tertiary Institutions' Relationship with Their Host Communities

As we have learnt in previous chapters, schools are institutions established by communities to preserve and promote values. Tertiary institutions are hoping on their host communities to sustain development. The relationship between institutions and their host communities is not uni-directional, but a double-

edge sword. The two entities derive some benefits from each other. In fact, one of the three cardinal points for which tertiary institutions are established is community service:

- Communities conceived the idea of establishing schools in some cases.
- Community resources like land are used for erecting institutions of higher learning.
- Institutions are financed through public taxes.
- Teaching and non-teaching staff are from communities, that is, the larger society which is Nigeria.
- Enrolment is drawn from communities.
- Products/graduates of these institutions come back into the society to practice.

In view of the above, none of the two could exist in isolation. Therefore, the community enjoys the existence of tertiary institutions in the following ways:

- Offer of job opportunities to communities or country.
- Admission opportunities for children in the society.
- Facilities like halls are used by communities for social engagements.
- Sports facilities are used by communities. Events like inter house sports, football leagues and some other events are held on campuses. These strengthen school-community ties.
- Places like Botanical and Zoological garden serve as tourist centres.
- Expertise of tertiary institutions are assets to communities in some cases like workshops, community developments.
- On the other hand, our tertiary institutions also derive these benefits from the communities:

- Financial support in executing some projects from philanthropists.
- Donation of material resources for the benefits of these institutions.
- Moral support in achieving some objectives.

## Participants in Research Work

This is a good avenue for institutions to relate with community members. It is also a measure to achieve accountability.

However, meaningful relationship is only guaranteed in the atmosphere of good leadership. Thus, management of our tertiary institutions should endeavour to create enabling environments that will bring about healthy relationships between institutions and their host communities.

## CONCLUSION

The place of higher education in realizing national goals and industrial survival cannot be over-emphasized. Teachers as well as instructional quality determine the extent to which higher education goals can be realized. Acknowledging this fact, Government requires teachers in tertiary institutions of learning to be knowledgeable in methods and techniques of teaching.

Activities of our institutions of higher learning are regulated by concerned authorities saddled with such responsibilities. Tertiary institutions are offshoots of the larger society. The survival of these institutions depends largely on healthy relationships between the two entities. Therefore, management teams in these institutions have the responsibility to create enabling environments that could facilitate good community relations. Through such avenues, these institutions could solve most of their problems.

## Summary

In this chapter, you learnt about what it requires to be a teacher in any institution of higher learning. Problems of teacher-quality were discussed. You also learnt about measures to attract and retain quality teachers in tertiary institutions of learning. The later part of this chapter exposed you to the problems of instruction in these institutions and how to improve them to make graduates employable. This chapter also introduced you to regulatory bodies like National Universities Commission (NUC), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and National Commission on Colleges of Education (NCCE) with their various roles. We also discussed relationships that exist between communities and tertiary institutions and how to enhance such relationships.

## Review Questions

1. How can we ensure graduate employability through tertiary institutions in Nigeria?
2. State four problems of teacher-quality in tertiary institutions in Nigeria.
3. Why do you think the relationships between tertiary institutions and their host communities have to be sustained and improved?
4. What are the bodies meant to coordinate the activities of tertiary institutions in Nigeria?

# Chapter Twenty-Two
# FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will learn about discipline in tertiary institutions. Your previous knowledge of other chapters will be of help. In addition, forms of extra-curricular activities in institutions of higher learning will also be learnt.

Acts of indiscipline in tertiary institutions

Causes of indiscipline among students in tertiary institutions

Solutions to problems of indiscipline

Extra-curricular activities in tertiary institutions and how to enhance extra- curricular activities in institutions of higher learning.
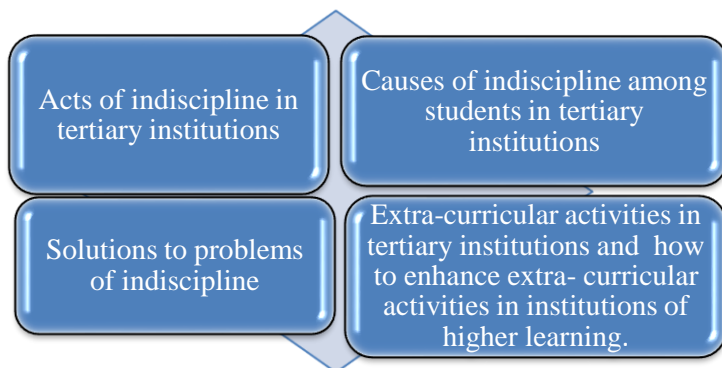
## OBJECTIVES

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

1. Mention acts of indiscipline in tertiary institutions.
2. Explain causes of indiscipline among students in tertiary institutions.
3. Discuss solutions to problems of indiscipline.
4. Highlight extra-curricular activities in tertiary institutions.
5. Enumerate how to enhance extra-curricular activities in institutions of higher learning.

# FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

Your previous knowledge of what discipline and indiscipline imply based on what you have learnt in other chapters are important here. You may need to go back to revise.

It is pertinent to restate what discipline and indiscipline are:

1. Discipline implies conformity to rules and regulations prescribed by constituted authorities while indiscipline implies disorderliness in regard to norms and rules of an organization.
2. Acts of indiscipline being perpetrated by students in tertiary institutions are more than what is experienced in primary and secondary schools.
3. Acts of indiscipline as specified by Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka Students' Information Handbook, for instance, are classified into two:
   (a). Misconduct. (b). Criminal Offences.

According to Ikediugwu (2017), *Misconducts* can be categorized under the following:

## Misconduct
### *Examination Misconduct*
1. This involves action or inaction of any student in and around an examination hall, which is inimical to or subversive of the integrity of the University Examination process such as:
   a. Non-display of Identity Cards.
   b. Entering an examination hall after the first 30 minutes and during the last 30 minutes.
   c. Smoking during an examination.
   d. Noise-making during an examination.
   e. Refusal to submit oneself for search by an invigilator of the same sex.

f. Use of scrap papers in an examination hall.
g. Possession of University examination answer sheets.
h. Mutilation or removal of any paper or answer script supplied.
i. Failure to submit answer script to the invigilator after an examination.
j. Oral communication between examinees during examination.
k. Oral communication involving passing of notes or other accessories to aid performances in an examination.
l. Refusal to sit for and/or prevent other students from sitting for an examination.
m. Smuggling of prepared answer scripts into an examination hall or submission of same under false pretence that they were prepared in the examination hall.
n. Possession of question paper, acquisition of live question papers, etcetera before an examination is held.

## 2. *Unruly Behaviours*

This includes disorderly behaviours or acts of indiscipline indicating lack of self-reliance. Offences classified under this include reckless driving on campus, disturbance of peace of any kind anywhere on campus, jumping the queue, crossing the lawn, defacing a university building in any way, throwing of missiles, injecting of a private or public vehicle on campus, use of threat of violence of any kind on anybody, fighting and illegal detention of people.

## 3. *Indecent Behaviours*

Acts that constitute *indecent behaviour* are: defecating outside designated areas, urinating outside designated areas, streak brushing of teeth outside designated areas, spitting in public places and overt sexual gestures in public places.

### 4. *Vandalism*
This is willful damage or destruction of University or private property.

### 5. *Bed space Trafficking*
It implies unauthorized transfer and receipt of bed space gratis or by direct sale. It also includes squatting within hall, squatting across halls and squatting of non-students.

### 6. *Pilfering and Stealing*
Pilfering is the unauthorized removal of any small property or petty object belonging to another person with the intention of permanently depriving the owner of its use. While stealing is the unauthorized removal of a property that belongs to another person.

### 7. *Membership of any secret cult on campus.*

### 8. *Double Matriculation*
It is a very serious offence in which a matriculated student retakes a JAMB examination in order to change to another course in the same or another university.

## Criminal Offences
Criminal offences are acts that contravene the laws of the land and as such shall be handled by law enforcement agents. These include:

a. Fraud
b. Theft
c. Burglary
d. Assault occasioning harm
e. Murder
f. Membership of secret cult
g. Arson
h. Rape
i. Possession and use of hard drugs and drug trafficking

Punishments for *misconducts* and *criminal offences* depend on gravity of offences committed. Punishments range from reprimand, rustication for one or two semesters to expulsion.

## CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF ACTS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

### Parental Upbringing

The mode of child-upbringing by parents determines the lifestyle of the child as he/she grows up. Parents with laissez-faire style or autocratic parents have tendency of bringing up spoilt children or deviants.

### Peer Group Influences

The company of friends a student associates with has great influence on his/her character. The dictum, *"Birds of the same feather flock together"* and the adage, *"Bad company corrupts good morals"* attest to this.

### Maladministration by Management of an Institution

Some managers of tertiary institutions do not posses managerial skills required to thrive in administration. When school administrators take vital decisions for granted, it has detrimental effects.

### Insensitivity to Students' Needs

When students' needs are not attended to, they could resort to disorderliness. For example, when school management fails to construct adequate toilet facilities, students may resort/take to defecating in school's environment.

### Societal Influence

Since schools are offshoot of society, the activities of members of the larger society influence whatever happens on

our campuses. Thus, cult activities outside schools can influence students on campuses.

## Absence of Control Measures
Acts of indiscipline thrive in a system where there is no control measure to curtail or forestall acts of indiscipline from students.

## EFFECTS OF ACTS OF INDISCIPLINE
Knowing full well that indiscipline means disorderliness, its effects are grievous to peaceful existence in our tertiary institutions. The general effects or impacts of acts of indiscipline in our institutions of higher learning include:

## Campus Disturbances
In most cases, activities of cult members constitute disturbance on our campuses.

## Hindrance to Effective Teaching-Learning
Stigma on integrity of concerned institution:
- An act of indiscipline like examination malpractice brings dent or stigma on the integrity of the concerned institution.
- Disruption of school calendar.
- Loss of lives and property.
- Production of incompetent graduates.
- Closure of institution.

## SOLUTIONS TO ACTS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS
Acts of indiscipline among students in tertiary institutions are detrimental to progress on campuses. Here are suggested solutions to curb these acts of indiscipline:
- Proper upbringing of children by parents or guardians.

- Functional Guidance and Counseling clinics for students in every campus.
- Good administrative style by school managers.
- Involvements of students in the process of making decisions relating to discipline that will affect them.
- Emphasis on moral education.
- Sensitivity to students' plights.
- Implementation of rules and regulations on discipline with sincerity.
- Involvement of parents in students' affairs for proper modification.

## FORMS OF INDISCIPLINE AMONG STAFF IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

Members of staff of tertiary institutions are not left out of acts of indiscipline. Following are some of acts of indiscipline by these staff:

- Undue familiarity with students of the opposite sex.
- Trading marks/scores for sex with students.
- Exchange of scores for money with students.
- Involvement in secret cults.
- Leaking of official secrets/matters.
- Misappropriation of funds.
- Violation of copyright in their publications.
- Academic fraud.
- Some of them are involved in examination malpractice by falsifying scores.
- Sexual harassments.

There is a host of acts of indiscipline exhibited by the staff.

# SOLUTIONS TO STAFF INDISCIPLINE

In order to eradicate acts of indiscipline among staff in tertiary institutions in Nigeria, some of these tips are important for consideration:

1. Issuance of code of conduct to all staff which contains job ethics, rules binding them and consequences for their violations.
2. Regular management and staff meetings to discuss matters relating to peaceful co-existence on campus.
3. Putting functional *Staff-Disciplinary Committee* in place to handle cases of indiscipline as and when due.
4. Due consideration to staff welfare in order to guard against collection of illegal fees and sale of materials.
5. Educate students, especially females on dress codes so as to avoid sexual harassments.
6. Allow freedom of expression of staff.
7. Involve students in the assessment of staff for promotion. This will correct absenteeism from lectures by some staff.

# FORMS AND STATUS OF EXTRA-CURRICULA ACTIVITIES IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

## Union Activities

Every student belongs to campus union of his/her institution. By virtue of this, he or she can contest any post or vote candidates of his/her choice during union elections. He/she can participate in Rag Day as part of union activities.

## Social Clubs

These are other avenues for students to exhibit their social skills. Students are allowed to join any of the recognized clubs on campuses.

Organisations or clubs existing for students' memberships are Nigerian Red Cross Society, Palm-Wine Drinkers' Club (Kegites Club), Jaycees International, Sigma Club, and so on.

## Religious Activities

Religious activities are legitimate for students to participate voluntarily.

## Academic Associations

Literacy and debating societies and press clubs are good examples here.

## Sports Activities

Sports for which facilities are available for students in many tertiary institutions in the country are: Athletics (track and field), Badminton, Basketball, Cricket, Handball, Hockey, Judo, Karate, Tennis, Soccer, Swimming, Squash, Table tennis, Volleyball.

To encourage students' participation in sports, various institutions of higher learning avail themselves of national sports activities for students in Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education. In Universities, there is a sports festival tagged, *Nigerian Universities Games Association* (NUGA), *Nigerian Colleges of Education Games Association* (NACEGA) for Colleges of Education while Polytechnics have the *Nigeria Polytechnic Games Association* (NIPOGA).

It is quite unfortunate that some tertiary institutions do not have well-equipped sports fields for track and field events. These prevent students from effective participation in sports activities. Governments as well as schools' managements needs to improve sporting facilities on campus so as to create interests in sports, smart, and effective learning. Some of these acts are classified as *misconduct* while others are tagged

*criminal offences*. Whatever the case, they are referred to as *acts of indiscipline*. Both students and staff are not left out of these acts. Those acts could jeopardize the achievements of the goals of tertiary education. Therefore, this chapter recommended some measures that could help to restrain perpetrators of acts of indiscipline.

## Summary

In this chapter, you learnt different forms of indiscipline among students and staff. In addition, remote causes of acts of indiscipline among student were also discussed, vis-a-viz measures to control them. Finally, we discussed different forms of extra-curricular activities in tertiary institutions which range from religious, social, sports, and union activities, among others.

## Review Questions

1. List some acts of indiscipline among staff of tertiary institutions.
2. Highlight five solutions to minimize staff indiscipline in Nigerian tertiary institutions.
3. List some of the criminal offences that are likely to be committed by students in Nigerian tertiary institutions.
4. Think of other acts of indiscipline among academic staff in tertiary institutions.

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