Work Ecology
and
Human Development

FEM 3104 (Unit 1-9/9)

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MODUL PEMBELAJARAN : FEM 3104 EKOLOGI KERJA & PEMBANGUNAN MANUSIA
disediakan dalam bentuk bahan pengajaran dan pembelajaran kendiri di bawah program Pendidikan Jarak Jauh, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Sebarang pertanyaan dan cadangan untuk memperbaiki gaya penyampaian dan isi kandungan modul ini bolehlah dikemukakan kepada penulis dengan menggunakan alamat Pusat Pendidikan Luar.

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Reka Bentuk Kalit dan Cetak oleh : MASKHA SDN. BHD.
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54200 Kuala Lumpur.
Introduction

Welcome all students to Work Ecology and Human Development course. This course as the name suggest focuses on human in the work place. More specifically, the course discusses on how people’s behave, their thoughts and emotion while interacting and transacting in the environments related to their work. From an ecological perspectives, human exists and functions within a context. No human exists in a vacuum, without any interactions with organisms or elements in his or her surrounding. Using an ecological and applied psychological approach, the present course invite students to look at work as an ecosystem that present itself with myriad of factors in which a working person is embedded.

Through this course students will learn the meaning of work and how its ecologies shape human functionings in formal and informal settings. In a simple term work refers to what people do to earn a living. Even though earning a living can be done informally and from home, work is typically perceived as a formal paid job a person engaged outside the home and within an organisation.

The greatest asset in all work organisations is the people or employees. However, too often managing employees is the hardest endeavor in any work organisation. As expected, employees are humans with many
different colours of personalities and will display a wide variations of behaviors, moods, and emotions. For some managers, such diversities create challenges that make their management more stimulating and interesting. While for some others, particularly those who encounter difficult personalities among their employees would prefer managing things more than people. As such some employers prefer to equip and upgrade the physical aspects of their organizations more than managing people. However, building and providing sophisticated systems alone will not guarantee quality performance and productivity. Managing people is to a large extent a vital aspect of building a successful work organisation. Hence, this module is designed to provide students with an understanding of workers’ behaviors, thoughts and emotions while in their work ecologies and how to manage the workers (including themselves) so that they can functions to their fullest potentials.

As mentioned above, this module combines the ecological and applied psychological perspectives in discussing work and human development. Through this course students will study people's behavior, thoughts and feelings regarding work, as well as get an insight into work related aspects such as individual differences, motivation, leadership, training and development, selection, and other people-related aspects of management. Some ethical issues, theories and techniques that have impact on well-being and effectiveness of individuals groups and organizations will also be included in this module. Specifically, the topics that will be covered in this module are as shown.
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To perform well in this course, students are required to work hard and consistently review the materials in the module as well as in the references. Consistent hard work is emphasized rather than last minute revision before a test or final examination. Additionally, students need to ensure that their term papers are of scholarly quality, original (i.e., no plagiarism) and submitted on time. Students may contact us for any queries on the module or assignment.

Best regards from your Instructors,

**Professor Dr Rozumah Baharudin**
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Faculty of Human Ecology
Universiti Putra Malaysia

**Dr. Haslinda Abdullah**
Department of Social Science and Development
Faculty of Human Ecology
Universiti Putra Malaysia
a. The course:

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<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Human Development &amp; Family Studies</th>
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<tr>
<td>Course title</td>
<td>Work Ecology and Human Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>FEM 3104</td>
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b. The authors:

**Rozumah bte Baharudin, Ph. D; Professor**

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- **Area of Specialization**: Psychology
c. **Course synopsis**

The course focuses on attitude, moral and motivation and style in work and employee supervisions and how social interaction affects work productivity and satisfaction; special attention will be given to problems of workers.

(*Penekanan kursus ialah terhadap sikap, moral, motivasi dan stail penyeliaan kerja dan penyeliaan pekerja serta interaksi sosial penentu produktiviti pekerja dan kepuasan kerja; pemerhatian khas ialah kepada masalah pekerja*)

d. **Course Evaluation (see details)**

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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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Evaluation 1: Individual Assignment (30%)

Instructions:

1. Students will need to complete only one (1) individual assignment.

2. Students need to prepare a paper that focuses on Work and Human Development (the word human can refer to human being as a whole or individual human such as parents, children, adolescents, or even family).

3. In the paper students must illustrate their understanding of the work of work in the present day information-communication and technological (ICT) society and its evolution or development from earlier eras.

4. Describe how changes in the work ecologies influence the way of life of human in the present day society.

5. Students must use most recent references to support their arguments, discussions or presentation of ideas. It is strongly recommended that students make references to articles that are published in refereed journals.

6. All citations in the text must be listed in the references or bibliography. Use of proper citation format is expected.

7. The paper must be at least 15-20 pages long, typed using Arial, Font 12, and organized in a most scholarly manner. Students are advised to follow the APA (American Psychological Association) format for writing technical papers.

8. Plagiarism and duplicating/copying will not be tolerated, and will have negative influence on the students marks/grade.

9. Late submission will be penalized accordingly.
Evaluation 2: Mid-semester Exam (30%)

- The mid-semester examination will cover Units 1 to 4. Questions will be asked in both multiple-choice and subjective format. There will be at least 60 multiple-choice questions and two short essays.

Evaluation 3: Final Exam (30%)

- As in the mid-semester examination, the final examination will cover Units 1 to 14. Questions will be asked in both multiple-choice and subjective format. There will be at least 60 multiple-choice questions and two short essays.

e. References


f. **The icons in the module:**

Icons are used in the module to emphasize a point and to facilitate your learning. The meanings of each these icons are as indicated.

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<th>Icons</th>
<th>Meaning of symbols</th>
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**WORK HARD & BEST OF LUCK**

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UNIT 1

Introduction: Concepts and Definitions

1.0 Introduction

The aim of Unit 1 is to help students understand the meaning of work, the nature of work psychology and the ecology or context within which it operates. The unit discusses the following subtopics: a brief description of the discipline of psychology and work psychology that branches out of applied psychology, some history of work psychology and work psychology today, how the world of work is changing and its impact; and the nature diversity in the workplace.

Objectives of the unit:

1.1 Define work, ecology, psychology and work psychology
1.2 Understand the concept and definition of work psychology
1.3 Describe the origin of work psychology
1.4 Describe work psychology today
1.5 Describe areas of work psychologist
1.6 Discuss the changing world of work
1.7 Work Psychology and Specific Groups in the Workplace

Summary
1.1 Definitions of work, ecology, psychology and work psychology

Work

As an adult, you are probably engaged in some kind of activities that you called work. Work for you is a serious and very formal income generating activity that you have to do in order to support your living. However, the meaning of work is different for children; what we called work is an informal unstructured fun activities that they do to stimulate their development. So, let us explore the meaning of work.

Work can be defined in many ways. Basically, work is a physical or mental effort or activity directed toward the production or accomplishment of something. Work is a job and viewed as a trade or any other profession of livelihood. Work can also be defined as something that one is doing, making, or performing, especially as an occupation or undertaking, eg. a duty or task. Below are other definitions of work:

- An amount of such activity either done or required: a week’s work.
- The part of a day devoted to an occupation or undertaking: met her after work.
- One’s place of employment: Should I call you at home or at work?
- Something that has been produced or accomplished through the effort, activity, or agency of a person or thing: This story is the work of an active imagination. Erosion is the work of wind, water, and time.

Ecology

For some of you the word, ecology’ may be very new for you. And yet, for some others, it may be something that they have come across in their biology class. In this course you will learn that the word is also applicable in the social science discipline.
The term ‘ecology’ (oekologie) was first defined by Ernst Haeckel in 1866:

“The comprehensive science of the relationship of the organism to the environment”.

The word ecology thus, simply refers to the study or knowledge of the interaction between a living creature with the contexts in which it is surrounded. The first principle of ecology is that each living organism has an ongoing and continual relationship with every other element that makes up its environment. Any situation in which there is an interaction between organisms and their environment on the hand, is called an ecosystem. In summing up, we can basically say, ecology is the study of the interaction between human/worker with his/her environment; whilst ecosystem is the circumstances/location where the interaction occurs.

Psychology

Again, this is a very familiar term for most of us. However, we may again differ in what we understand by the word psychology. Some of us may refer to psychology as a behavior, or feelings, or even the state of the mind. Unlike ecology, we are probably not far apart in our understanding of the word psychology. Although it may have various definitions, in simple words it means the science of mental life (Miller, 1996). Mental refers to three phenomena: behaviours, thoughts, and emotions. Psychology involves all three of these phenomena.
**Work Psychology**

What is work psychology, then? After understanding the meaning of work and psychology, you can now certainly understand what work psychology refers to. Yes, it merely refers to people's behavior, thoughts and emotions related to their work.

Work psychology is defined in terms of its ecology/context of application, and is not in itself one of the sub-discipline of psychology. It is in fact an area of applied psychology. Work psychologist use concepts, theories and techniques derived from all areas of basic psychology. Work psychology will be the basis for understanding work ecology, and will thus be widely used in this course.

**Human Development**

Human development is the process of growing to maturity and reaching one's full potential. In biological terms, this entails growth from a one-celled zygote to an adult human being. The psychological study of human development is called developmental psychology.

We can conceive the concept of human development in a variety of ways.

- In political-economic terms, human development has to do with stability, security and relative prosperity.
• In social terms, it has to do with literacy, education, social relationships, quality of life, etc.
• In moral terms, it has to do with the development of the conscience, moral awareness, and the will and capacity to act according to our knowledge of what is right.
• In psychological terms, human development has to do with mental health, self-esteem, success in significant relationships, happiness

Work Ecology and Human Development

This course attempts to apply ecological and psychological perspectives to understand the behavior of people in their work ecosystem which can shape or aid the workers development or well-being and organization.

To further understand the application of the ecological and psychological perspectives in this course, we will need to study the basic premise of both perspectives. For the ecological perspective, you will need to recall materials that you have learned from your FEM3001 (Introduction to Human Development) course. The ecological perspective will encourage us to study work and human development wholistically rather than understanding it from a single factor. In other words, the ecological perspective suggests that multiple factors may help to explain how people behave at work, and subsequently affect their quality of life. The contextual influence on the person embedded in their work is given special emphasis in the ecological perspective. As mentioned earlier, the psychological perspectives focus on people’s behavior, thought, and emotion; and in this course these elements are discussed in the working context of the individuals. In the next section, you are introduced to some areas in basic psychology in the hope that you can apply what you learned here to further explain the impact of workers interaction with their work environments on their development.
1.2 Areas in basic psychology

Work psychology is an area of applied psychology, which uses concepts, theories and techniques derived from all areas of basic psychology.

There are 5 areas in basic psychology:

1. Physiological psychology
   Relationship between mind and body (e.g., focused on bodily changes associated with feeling stressed at work)

2. Cognitive psychology
   Cognitive functioning: that is, our thought processes (e.g., remember information, weighing up information when making decisions)

3. Developmental psychology
   Concerns the ways in which people grow and change psychologically (e.g., how & when children able to understand particular concepts)

4. Social psychology
   Concerns how our behaviours, thoughts and emotions affect, and are affected by, other people (e.g., how groups of people make decisions)

5. Personality psychology
   Focuses on people’s characteristic tendency to behave, think and feel in certain ways (e.g., how people differ from each other psychologically, and how those differences can be measured)
1.3 Origin of Work Psychology

Work psychology has two distinct roots within applied psychology:

1. Traditional

   - 1) Fitting man to the job (FMJ)
     Selects an employee based on training and vocational guidance.
   - 2) Fitting the job to the man (FJM)
     Focuses on the job, task and working conditions that suits a person’s physical and psychological characteristics.

Both traditions concerns the relationship between individuals and their work.

2. Human Relations (HR)

   - Concerned with the complex interplay between individuals, groups, organisations and work.
   - It emphasizes individuals’ experiences and interpretations at work.
   - It emphasizes social factors at work much more than the FMJ and FJM.
Exercise: Explain in your own words the differences in meaning between work, ecology, psychology and work ecology.

1.4 Work Psychology Today

There are a lot of different names for work psychology: Among them are:

- Industrial psychology
- Occupational psychology
- Psychology of work and organisation
- Work and organisational psychology
- Vocational psychology

Work psychology is a simpler term which encompasses both the individual and organisational levels of analysis.

1.5 Areas of Work Psychologist

There are 8 main areas in which work psychologist operates as teachers, researchers and consultants:

1. Personnel selection and assessment: for all types of job by a variety of methods, including tests and interviews.
2. Training: identification of training needs and the design, delivery and evaluation of training.

3. Performance appraisal and career development: identification of key aspects of job performance; design of systems for accurate performance assessment and development; training in the use of appraisal and development interventions such as personal development plans.

4. Organisational development and change: analysis of systems and relationships, leadership and negotiation skills; analysis and change of organisational culture and/or climate.

5. Human-machine interaction: analysis and design of work equipment and environments to fit human physical and cognitive capabilities.

6. Counselling and personal development: techniques of listening and counselling regarding work and career-related issues; assessment and analysis or people's career and aspirations.

7. Design of environments and work – health and safety: the assessment of existing and preferred features of the environment such as light levels, workspace positioning, and sources of danger, risk or stress.

8. Employer relations and motivation: allocation and design of jobs that are as motivating and satisfying as possible; team-building negotiating and bargaining; techniques for analysing and improving inter-group relations.

1.6 The Changing World of Work

The last 20th century saw quite some radical changes in the nature of work. This changes continue into the early 21st century. Most of these changes are the results of the advancement in both technology and economic trends in todays world. The achievements in communication technology for example, allow present day workers to enjoy the freedom of work mobility rather than remained in one location. Some workers can now work at or from home and could communicate with their main offices regarding their work. They could additionally
know what is going in their offices or constantly report on their work via any technological medium of their choice, such as through video conferencing, electronic mails, fax machine or even mobile phones. Modern technology can now permit workers to reach their potential markets in any parts of the world and at any time they think appropriate.

As a result of technology, work force in any work organization may be smaller in size than it used to be. Before the availability of word processing using the computer for example, documents produced in most offices are normally typed by a typist. Today this is rarely the case, most workers or officers have their hands-on the computer and type their own documents. It is therefore common now to find no typing positions in most work organizations. Furthermore, in some companies only the core staffs are hired as full-time workers, to carry out the main business of the office. Supporting staffs may more often hired as part-time or contract workers. This type of work arrangements is possible today with the help of technology, which could not only make office tasks to be conducted by fewer workers, but could also produce work in much less time. However, introducing new technology can be a problem and challenging for some organizations. As Blacker and Brown (1986, in Arnold et al., 2005) noted that new technology need to be introduced according to several phases and approaches. These phases include:

1. Initial awareness
2. Feasibility analysis
3. System design
4. System implementation
Blacker and Brown (1986, in Arnold et al., 2005) suggested to use the following approaches for each phases in introducing new technology:

1. Muddle-through approach
2. Task and technology approach
3. Organisational and end-user approach

The muddle-through approach is considered as the most common method of introducing the use of new technology. A rational and efficient method that work well in some circumstances is the task and technology approach. The organisational and end-user approach that makes use of the knowledge of system operators is expected to produce good results.

Economically developed countries such as North America, Northern and Western Europe, and the United Kingdom may outsource their manufacturing operations particularly, to those less developed where wages are lower. This outsourcing created a new patterns of conducting work, in which low skilled jobs in rich countries are being exported to poor countries. High skilled jobs are thus, more dominant in rich countries and vice-versa. Along with these changes is the development of intensification of work that could not only cut cost but also improve performance. Consequently, in todays world of work we will see the progression of public services and industries from governments to private sectors. This change demands workers to demonstrate a totally different attitude and behavior towards work. Before or during much of the 20th century, many people work in the government sectors that guaranteed them job security and some how make them feel more comfortable and less worried about their future in the employment. However, with the intensification of jobs, workers need to be
willing to spend longer working hours, improve themselves to lifelong learning, are able to change and willing to change the kind of job that they are doing perhaps several times during the course of their careers. The nature of job are more demanding and competitive in the private sectors which force workers to work harder and face greater stresses and pressures.

The world of work is changing due to a myriad of other factors as well. For example, changes in demographic patterns brought change to the working population. Families are now smaller, thus there are smaller numbers of people provided for labour force and starting work earlier. Longer life expectancy in most developed countries changes the average age of the working population. There may thus be necessary to increase the retirement age, changes in pension provision and increase efforts for social care. Another factor that contributed to the change in the world of work is the issue of equality of provision and treatment for men and women. Although this issue may be difficult to resolve, some changes are beginning to take place for example, longer maternity leave, paternal leave for childbirth, appointment of women ministers and vice chancellors, etc. In addition to better gender sensitivity, most countries are already giving attentions to ethnically diverse workforce and people of the needs of specific groups of people such as the less disadvantage group and those with disabilities. The table below summarizes some of the changes in the world of work and their implications for work psychologist (Arnold et al., 2005, pg. 30).
<table>
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<tr>
<th>World of work changes</th>
<th>Implications for work psychology (i.e., topics of increasing importance)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ageing working population.</td>
<td>Learning, performance, satisfaction and engagement with work of older people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing labour market participation and equality for historically disadvantaged groups, including ethnic minorities and people with a disability.</td>
<td>Further development of fair selection procedures, the work experiences of members of disadvantaged groups; impact of diversity on workplaces and organisational performance; diversity policies; inter-group relations at work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing workloads for people in work.</td>
<td>Stress and pressure at work; burnout and mental health; balance between work and other aspects of life; effects of workload on thinking and behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More people working remotely (e.g., at home) using information and communication technologies (ICT).</td>
<td>Selection of people suited to home working; supervision and leadership of people not physically present; impact of isolation on work performance and satisfaction; effective virtual communication and teamwork; recruitment and selection via the internet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressures on organisations both to cut costs and to use knowledge well.</td>
<td>Impact of these competing pressures (including new technology) on the design of jobs; organisational learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downsized, delayered and outsourced organisations.</td>
<td>Fewer and more ambiguous organisational career paths; individual coping with change and uncertainty; relations between ‘core’ and ‘peripheral’ workers; working life in small organisations; entrepreneurship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Slow) increase in women’s participation in traditionally male-dominated high-status work.</td>
<td>The experience of being a woman in a man’s world; gender stereotypes; women’s career success, rewards and costs relative to men’s; ‘feminine’ ways of working.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction in availability of manual work; growth of low-skill service sector jobs; growing divide between those with marketable skills and qualifications and those without.</td>
<td>The psychological and societal impact of income and wealth differences; the experiences and consequences of unemployment and underemployment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing internationalisation of organisation and markets.</td>
<td>Cross-cultural comparisons of workplaces; working abroad; interpersonal and intercultural influence; the appropriateness of selection, etc. procedures across cultures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Arnold et al. (2005, pg. 30).
1.7 Work Psychology and Specific Groups in the Workplace

The earlier sections in this unit addresses information that is applicable to all workers in the workplace in general including those from specific or diverse groups. All kinds of diversity is expected to be present in the world of work. Three specific elements of diversity most often featured in legislation and affect a large group of people are gender, ethnicity and disability. Key points that were highlighted by Arnold et al. (2005, pg 39-45) related to the issue of diversity are as follows:

» There is better recognition in the labor market for women, ethnic minorities and people with disability although they have yet to enjoy equality, and legislation to protect them.

» Women are still in lower paying jobs compared to men, raising questions on whether they are being oppressed, or have the freedom to make choices that were unavailable earlier.

» In the labour market when compared to the majority, minorities tend to be in a more disadvantaged situation. This could be brought about by aspects of person perception and identity that lead majority and minority to have certain opinions of themselves and others.

» The talents of people with a disability are beginning to be recognised in the workplace, although there are still some disadvantage compared to those with no disability.
Summary

- Work is referred to as what people do to make a living.
- Ecology refers to the relationship of the organism to the environment.
- Work psychology is defined as people's behavior, thoughts and emotions related to their work.
- Work psychology is an area of applied psychology that uses concepts, theories and techniques derived from all areas of basic psychology.
- Five areas in basic psychology are Physiological psychology, Cognitive psychology, Developmental Psychology, Social Psychology and Personality Psychology.
- The root of work psychology is traditional and human relation.
- The world of work saw some major changes during the last 20th century, involving technological advances and economic trends.
- Diversity at work place particularly for needs of specific group are considered by present day work psychologist.
UNIT 2

THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE RELATED TO WORK

2.0 Introduction

In unit 2, we will discuss on what theories can be used in the area of work ecology. As in the Unit 1, we will borrow, adopt or adapt ideas from work psychology to understand how theories can be applicable in work ecology. In the first section, we looked at the nature of theories and what good theories need to consider. Secondly, we looked at the relationship of good theory and good practice. Finally, we looked at why work ecologists and psychologists need to understand research method and how to interpret data obtained and analyzed.

Objectives of the unit:

By the end of this module, students will be able to:

2.1 Theory for Work Ecology
2.2 Theory and Practice for Work Ecology
2.3 Research Methods for Work Ecology

2.1 Theory for Work Ecology

You may find that the word theory could be defined in several ways. In fact you will realised that its meaning is quite distinct from one field of study to another, and is dependent on how (i.e., the methodologies) and when/where it is use (i.e.,
context of discussions). As in the discipline of psychology, this unit refers theory to an organised collection of ideas that can help to describe, explain or predict an individual's behaviour.

Scientifically a theory describes the extent of a relationship between variables (e.g., the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance) and how they interact within a system. Theories are normally developed after going through a series of process, that is, after many observations and tests. This process could sometimes take a very long time. Specifically, a theory:

- Is more than a simple hypothesis
- Focus on potentially verifiable phenomena
- Is highly ordered and structured
- Identifies important factors & their contexts
- State how variables are to be measured

In order to determine whether a theory is useful in understanding individual behavior at work, the following five elements regarding the individual must be present or describe within the theory. These five elements can help us to investigate any aspect of an individual within his or her work ecologies. For example, these five elements can guide you to study why some workers always come late for work, what factors contribute to conducive work environment and what promote productivity.
2.2 Theory and Practice for Work Ecology

Work psychology is a predominantly problem centered. Similar focus is emphasized in work ecology. However, problem unnecessarily negative. In research problem can be an issue, concern or a felt need. An executive in a company for example, may feel that there is a need to further upgrade the work environment of workers in the company although there are no complainms about the present working condition. He or she probably felt that the upgrading could enhance productivity of his/her company to greater heights.

A good theory is typically viewed as precise in specifying a particular behavior, thoughts or feelings, and the characteristics of the individual and context that shape them. However, there is no probably single theoretical perspective that can sufficiently study people at work. However, a good theory is essential to good practice. Basing practice on good theory is better than basing it on superstition, guesswork or on an inferior theory.

Kurt Lewin (1945) argued that there is nothing as practical as a good theory. Miner (2003) believes that theories that are found to be valid in organizational
behavior and strategic management also tended to be seen as usefully applicable in work organizations. Thus, good theory is link to good practice.

Discuss why a good theory is important for good practice. Why is basing practice on superstition, guesswork or on an inferior theory is considered inappropriate in work psychology?

2.3 Research Methods for Work Ecology

A variety of techniques for research in human behavior, thoughts and emotions in the workplace can be utilized. To consider these techniques you as work ecologist must know the difference between research design and methods.

- Research designs:
  - refers to the overall research strategy.
  - the strategy depends on the researcher’s beliefs about scientific investigation as well as the nature of the phenomena being researched.

- Research methods:
  - are the specific ways in which information is gathered within the overall research strategy.

There is more than one way of carrying out research design and method:

1. Research methods In this method you obtained your research data using questionnaires, psychometric tests, interviews, observation of behaviour, measurement of bodily activity and existing data banks.
2. **Research designs** → Strategies for conducting research that you can utilize which include surveys, experimental design, qualitative design, and action research design.

- Surveys are relatively easy to conduct and they investigate the real world in which people work. However, it is often difficult to be sure about causes and effects.
- Laboratory experiments allow the work psychologist to control and manipulate the situation in order to establish whether there are causal relationships between variables. But it is often not clear whether the same relationships would occur in real-life situations.
- Qualitative research often involves an attempt to describe and analyze how individuals make sense of the situations they are in. The focus may be on behavior, social interaction, personal experience and self-presentation.
- In action research, the psychologist and the people involved in the situation being research work together to define the aims of the research and solve practical problems.

Much research in the ecology of work or work psychology examines one or both the following questions:
- Do two or more groups of people differ from each other?
- Do two or more variables covary (that is, go together) within a particular group of people?

Work ecologists and psychologists use statistics to assess whether two or more groups of people differ psychologically in some ways, or whether two or more aspects of people’s psychological functioning tend to go together. Amongst the statistics used are t-test, analysis of variance, Chi-square, Correlation, and Multiple regression.
t-test:
- assesses the significance of a difference between two group mean scores taking into account the sample sizes and the amount of variation in scores within each group.

Analysis of variance:
- extends the principles of the t-test to more than two groups.

Chi-square:
- is used to test differences between groups in the frequency with which group members fall into defined categories.

Correlation:
- test the extent of which scores on two variables tend to go together (i.e., covary)

Multiple regression:
- is an extension of correlation for more than two variables. It allows the social scientist to assess the relative importance of independent variables as predictor of a dependent variable.

Techniques for analyzing qualitative data normally are often influence by the researcher’s philosophical and theoretical position. The technique may vary in the extent to which information collected are divide into small portion vary include dividing the information collected into smaller fraction and assigning the data into categories. The qualitative and quantitative techniques have a common purpose, i.e., establishing meaning rather than causal connections between variables.
Explain in your own words the difference between research method and research design. Discuss the kinds of statistics that you can use to explain why people differ in their behavior at the workplace.

Summary

- Work psychologist use theory to investigate any work related phenomena.
- Good theory is usually applicable in work organization.
- Research design used by work psychologist include surveys, experiments, qualitative research and action research.
- Research method used by work psychologist include questionnaires, tests, interviews, observations, and psychological measures.
- Statistical techniques are available to help draw appropriate conclusions from quantitative data.
- When two or more groups are being compared statistical techniques include t-test, analysis of variance and chi-square.
- When two or more variables are being examined to see whether they tend to go together statistical technique include correlation and multiple regression.
- Techniques for analyzing qualitative data normally include dividing the information collected into small portion and assigning the data into categories.
UNIT 3

WORK AND WORK PRODUCTION SYSTEM

3.0 Introduction

In this unit, we will look into the different modes of work and work production system as we move from one society to another. There has been such a big change in the work and work production system from the traditional society to an industrial society and informational system. This unit will begin with the concept of society, different types of society and the mode of productions.

Objectives of the unit:

By the end of this module, students will be able to:

3.1 Describe the meaning of society
3.2 Describe the different types of society
3.3 Describe the different mode of productions

3.1 The meaning of society

Since birth we have all live in a society; none of us can live alone or in a vacuum. In a society individual will have the opportunity to interact with other individuals. This can be other individuals from other families from the same ethnic groups or other ethnicities. You can actually define society as comprising of a group with common interest, distinct culture and institutions.

We are all socialized according to the society we lived in. Our behavior is shaped by our society. The way we lived and work for our survival is very much influence
by the specific practices of the society we become a part of. Every society survives by producing goods and by meeting its own needs that includes physical needs such as food, clothing and shelter. Only through the organization of economic production can society helps to fulfill these needs for its members. However, numerous factors can shape society’s organization of production. Among these factors are the resources available within the natural environment; the tools or technology available that enable the use of the resources; the know-how, skills or techniques on how to use the technology; and how man-power or labour force are organized in order to use both the technology and natural resources.

The word ‘society’ is believed to have emerged in the 15th century and is derived from the French société. This word has its origin from the Latin societas, a “friendly association with others”. Implicit in the meaning of society is that is the element of sharing some mutual concern or interest, a common objective or common characteristics among its members.

3.2 Types of Society
There are many types of societies. Sociologists provide clear description of these different types and how they differ in characteristics.

1. Tribal society
2. Agrarian society
3. Industrial society
4. Post-Industrial society

1. Tribal society
   » A society that is organized according to tribes.
   » The tribe lives within definite and common geography.
   » The members possess a consciousness of mutual unity.
   » The members speak a common language.
The members generally marry into their own group but this has gradually change where increased contact with outsiders has encouraged instances of marring outside as well.

» The tribes believe in ties of blood relationship between its members.
» Tribes have faith in their having descended from a common, real or mythical, ancestor and hence believe in blood relationships with other members.
» Tribes follow their own political organization which maintains harmony.
» Tribe put religion is of utmost importance.
» The tribal political and social organization is based on religion because they are granted religious sanctity and recognition.

2. Agrarian Society

» An agrarian society is one that is based on agriculture as its prime means for support and sustenance. The society acknowledges other means of livelihood and work habits but stresses on agriculture and farming, and was the main form of socio-economic organization for most of recorded human history.
» Rural economy (agricultural sector) supported urban economy (manufacturing and commercial sectors).
» More complex division of labor.
» Social stratification increases in complexity.
» Religion played a major role in justifying the operation of the political system and its economic consequences.

3. Industrial Society

» A society that has a modern social structure which developed in the west in the period of time following the industrial revolution.
» Are also known as mass societies.
» The change from an agricultural to an industrial organization was due to steam power, which allowed mass production and reducing the agricultural work necessary.
» Put emphasis on the achievement and innovation.
» Religious and culture values were weaker.
» The encouragement of social mobility.

5. Post-industrial Society

» The concept of Post-Industrial society that describes the economic and social changes in the late twentieth century, was first formulated in 1962 by D. Bell.
» Bell noted that theoretical knowledge forms the fundamental principle in modern societies and is the source of innovation and policy formulation. This can be traced from an economic point of view where the production of goods and manufacturing began to decline and replaced by services.
» Social class is also restructured where a new class evolves constituting professional and technical occupations which is highly regarded in all spheres (economic, political and social decision making), believed to be influenced by new intellectual technologies and the new intellectual class.
» In this society technocrats gain more power in economic and political life. The functioning of a society tend to be shaped by the hands of a technical bureaucracy of the techno-structure of large corporations.

b. Modes of Production

The mode of production in any society has a huge impact on people in the society. A mode of production is the pattern of roles, norms, and activities
organized around the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services by the society. Every society has, at least a mode of production and distribution, and it may differ from one society to another. These different modes further correspond to different social classes and strata in the population.

Karl Marx describes a mode of production as a specific combination of productive forces (e.g., labour power & means of production); and social and technical relations of production (e.g., property, relations between people and objects of their work). Marx acknowledged seven distinct periods of human history, each corresponding to a particular mode of production:

1. The Foraging Mode of Production or "primitive communism".
2. The Asiatic mode of production.
3. The slave mode of production.
4. The feudal mode of production.
5. The capitalist mode of production
6. The socialist mode of production.
7. The communist mode of production.

A detailed description of the above mode of productions (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mode_of_production) are as follow.

The Foraging Mode of Production. Marx himself called this mode "primitive communism". Human society is seen as organized in traditional tribe structures, typified by shared production and consumption of the entire social product. As no permanent surplus product is produced, there is also no possibility of a ruling class coming into existence. As this mode of production lacks differentiation into classes, it is said to be classless. Paleolithic and Neolithic tools, pre- and early-agricultural production, and rigorous ritualized social control have often been said to be the typifying productive forces of this mode of production. This has also been called primitive communism. However, the foraging mode of production still
exists, and often typified in contemporary hunter-gatherer societies. Past theories of the foraging mode of production have focused on lack of control over food production (Meillassoux, 1973). More recent scholarship has argued that hunter-gatherers use the foraging mode of production to maintain a specific set of social relations that, perhaps controversially, are said to emphasize egalitarianism and the collective appropriation of resources (Tim Ingold, 1987, 1988; Robert Kelly, 1995).

The asiatic mode of production. This is a controversial contribution to Marxist theory, initially used to explain pre-slave and pre-feudal large earthwork constructions in China, India, the Euphrates and Nile river valleys (and named on this basis of the primary evidence coming from greater "Asia"). The asiatic mode of production is said to be the initial form of class society, where a small group extracts social surplus through violence aimed at settled or unsettled band communities within a domain. Exploited labour is extracted as forced corvee labour during a slack period of the year (allowing for monumental construction such as the pyramids, ziggurats, ancient Indian communal baths or the Chinese Great Wall). Exploited labour is also extracted in the form of goods directly seized from the exploited communities. The primary property form of this mode is the direct religious possession of communities (villages, bands, hamlets) and all those within them. The ruling class of this society is generally a semi-theocratic aristocracy which claims to be the incarnation of gods on earth. The forces of production associated with this society include basic agricultural techniques, massive construction and storage of goods for social benefit (grainaries).

The slave mode of production. It is similar to the asiatic mode, but differentiated in that the form of property is the direct possession of individual human beings. Additionally, the ruling class usually avoids the more outlandish claims of being the direct incarnation of a god, and prefers to be the descendants of gods, or seeks other justifications for its
rule. Ancient Greek and Roman societies are the most typical examples of this mode. The forces of production associated with this mode include advanced (two field) agriculture, the extensive use of animals in agriculture, and advanced trade networks.

The feudal mode of production. It is usually typified by high feudalism in Western Europe. The primary form of property is the possession of land in reciprocal contract relations: the possession of human beings as peasants or serfs is dependent upon their being entailed upon the land. Exploitation occurs through reciprocated contract (though ultimately resting on the threat of forced extractions). The ruling class is usually a nobility or aristocracy. The primary forces of production include highly complex agriculture (two, three field, lucerne fallowing and manuring) with the addition of non-human and non-animal power devices (clockwork, windmills) and the intensification of specialisation in the crafts—craftsmen exclusively producing one specialised class of product.

The capitalist mode of production. It is usually associated with modern industrial societies. The primary form of property is the possession of objects and services through state guaranteed contract. The primary form of exploitation is wage labour (see Das Kapital, wage slavery and exploitation). The ruling class is the bourgeoisie, which exploits the proletariat. Capitalism may produce one class (bourgeoisie) who possess the means of production for the whole of society and another class who possess only their own labour power, which they must sell in order to survive. The key forces of production include the factory system, mechanised powered production, Taylorism, robotisation, bureaucracy and the modern state.

The socialist mode of production. Since this mode of production has not yet come into effect, its exact nature and whether it will exist remains debatable. Some theorists argue that prefiguring forms of socialism can be
seen in voluntary workers’ cooperatives, strike committees, labour unions, soviets and revolutions. The socialist mode of production is meant to be a society based on workers’ control of all production, with a property form equating consumption with productive labour. The key forces of production are similar to those in capitalism, but changed in their nature due to workers’ control and collective management. Additionally, the merging of mental and manual labour is meant to increase the level of productivity and quality of the productive forces. The primary ruling class of this mode is meant to be the working class. The primary form of exploitation is meant to be self-exploitation - in other words, the exploitation of some people by others (the "exploitation of man by man") is meant to be abolished.

The communist mode of production. Since it refers to the far future, it is a highly debated theoretical construct. Some theorists argue that prefiguring forms of communism can be seen in communes and other collective living experiments. Communism is meant to be a classless society, with the management of things replacing the management of people. Particular productive forces are not described, but are assumed to be more or less within the reach of any contemporary capitalist society. Despite the imminent potential of communism, some economic theorists have hypothesised that communism is more than a thousand years away from full implementation while others refute that it will be realized at all.
Describe the feudal system based on the graphic below.

King: The king owned all the land. He made grants of land to his supporters. These supporters had to swear an oath of loyalty to the king.

Nobles: The nobles, barons, and bishops had to provide the king with a number of knights, money, advice, and a place to stay while traveling.

Lords: The country was divided into thousands of knights' fees. Each was supplied with a manor and had to provide one knight to the king.

Villains: Villains received land in return for working in the lord's manor. They could not sell their land.

Serfs: Serfs had no land. They worked for the lord.

Obtained from: http://www.mce.k12mn.net/middleages/feudalsystem.htm
Exercise: Discuss the societies that existed during the industrial era.

Summary

- There are three main modes of production: pre-industrial, early industrialization, and industrialization.
- Pre-industrial society consists of four societies which are 1) Hunting and gathering society, 2) Feudal societies, 3) Agrarian societies and 4) Industrial society.
- Hunting and gathering society are reliant on hunting, fishing, or the gathering of wild plants for subsistence.
- Feudal societies are based on allocation of lands and consist of three levels of characteristics: lords, vassals, and fiefs.
- Agrarian societies are based on agriculture as its prime means for support and sustenance.
- Industrial society are a modern social structure that develop through the use of steam power.
UNIT 4

WORKERS ACTION AND BEHAVIOR

4.0 Introduction

The aim of this unit is to help students understand the determinants of workers action and behavior. This unit will focus on how workers action and behavior can be influenced by many factors such as personality and individual differences.

There has been a long interest among researchers and academia to uncover the effects of particular personality traits, background experiences or combinations of ability on job commitment, motivation, satisfaction, and the speed at which workers acquire knowledge and working skills. Recent research support earlier findings that personality traits relate to measured job-performance outcomes. Workers whose personality does not match their job will most likely demonstrate lower quality work performance. Research and literature have shown that personality tests account for between 15 and 30 percent of the variance in explaining work behavior.

Objective of this unit:

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

4.1 Describe theory explaining matching personality and job.
4.2 Relationship between personality and work-related behavior
4.3 Five Basic Factors Related to Occupational Behavior
4.4 Personality testing in the workplace
4.5 Discuss traits theories of organizational behavior.
4.6 Discuss why personality traits may not predict behavior at work.

4.1 Matching Personality and Job

Personality and individual differences existed within the micro-environment of a person work ecology. Research reports indicate that personality traits are related to measured job-performance. Workers whose personality does not match their job will most likely demonstrate lower quality work performance.

Holland’s Theory

John Holland developed a theory that shows how people and careers can be characterized by six basic personality types, which are:

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

Realistic people have the following characteristics:

- Strong mechanical, psychomotor, and athletic abilities;
- Honest; loyal;
- Like the outdoors;
- Prefer working with machines, tools, plants, and animals.
Working environment:
- Structured
- Clear goals and lines of authority
- Work with hands, machines, or tools
- Casual dress
- Focus on tangible results
- Engineering, military, skilled trades

Investigative

Characteristics of those who are investigative are as follow:
- Strong problem solving and analytical skills
- Mathematically inclined
- Like to observe, learn, and evaluate
- Prefer working alone
- Reserved
- Idea generators

Working environment:
- Nonstructured
- Research oriented
- Intellectual
- Discover, collect, and analyze ideas/data;
- Science, math, medicine, and computer related
- Labs, universities, high tech, hospitals
Artistic

Artistic people are:
- Creative
- Complex
- Emotional
- Intuitive
- Idealistic
- Flair for communicating ideas
- Prefer working independently
- Like to sing
- Write, act, paint, think creatively

Working environment:
- Nonstructured
- Creative
- Flexible
- Rewards unconventional and aesthetic values
- Creation of products and ideas
- Arts organizations, films/TV, publishing, advertising, museums, theater, galleries

Social

Those who are social people tend to be:
- Friendly
- Outgoing
- Find fulfillment in helping others
- Strong verbal and personal skills
- Teaching abilities
- Impulsive

Working environment:
- Harmonious
- Congenial
- Work on people-related problems/issues
- Inform train, develop, cure, or enlighten others
- Team oriented
- Human resources
- Training, education, social service, hospitality, health care
- Nonprofit organization

Enterprising

Enterprising people have the following characteristics:
- Confident
- Assertive
- Sociable
- Speaking and leadership abilities
- Like to use influence
- Strong interpersonal skills
- Status conscious

Working environment:
- True business environment
- Results oriented
- Driven
- High-quality service and product orientation
• Entrepreneurial
• High prestige
• Power focused
• Sales, management, politics, finance, retail, leadership

Conventional!

Conventional people have these characteristics:
• Dependable
• Disciplined
• Precise
• Persistent orderly
• Efficient
• Practical
• Detail oriented
• Clerical and numerical abilities

Working environment:
1. Orderly
2. Clear rules and policies
3. Systematized manipulation and organization of data
4. Control and handling of money
5. High income potential
6. Accounting, business, finance, administration
Summary of Holland's theory:

1. People can be categorized into six personality types.
2. There are no pure types. Each of us possesses characteristics from each type but only resemble one type more than the other types.
3. Our type of personality develops through the influence of genetic and environment.
4. Careers are chosen consistent with our type of personality. Those who have great connection between their type of personality and work environment will find job satisfaction, performance and stability.

4.2 Relationship between Personality and Work-Related Behavior
An individual personality traits and his/her occupational behavior is moderated by a myriad of variables that exist within the ecosystem of the individual. Personality factors partly determine work-related behaviors where as organizational and occupational variables shape personality functioning.

There is an indirect and multicausal relationship between personality and work-related outcomes. Figure 4.1 shows the traditional occupational or industrial psychology model. Personality traits are the main focus of the model where it relates to occupational variables. Most personality theory describes some phenomenon, mechanism or process, which is a product of the trait. The third path in the model focuses on organizational or structural aspect and indicates factors that mediate between an individual and the organization in which he/she works. Typically, an organization has a formal structure and is presented in a chart form that can be either multilayered (tall) or flat. The line of communication up and down the organization can also be traced from an organizational chart; in other words, it indicates who report to whom.
Organizational behaviour

Organization constraints
- Structure
- Selected procedure
- Approval procedure

Personality characteristics
- "Biological" traits
- Cognitive dimensions
- Decision & thinking styles
- Coping patterns

3

Occupational variables
- Attitudes to work
- Beliefs about work
- Behaviors at work
- Psychological measure

2

Psychological processes
- Mechanisms
- Phenomena

Occupational/industrial psychology

Figure 4.1: A model for the Relationship between Personality and Work.
Five Basic Factors Related to Occupational Behavior

Various ecological factors may explain the way workers behave at work. Figure 4.2 shows some of the important factors that can predict occupational behavior. Explanations of these five factors follow. The bi-directionality of the arrows shown in the figure suggests that these factors are reciprocally influential both on their own and in combination towards occupational behavior.

Figure 4.2: A model on some predictors of occupational behavior
1. Ability
   - This refers to the level in which a person can competently synchronize multiple processes to achieve a particular goal. It can include simple to complex intelligence tasks.

2. Demographic factors
   - This refers to personal background factors including sex, age, education and occupation. This factor is different from psychographic factors such as beliefs and values.

3. Intelligence
   - This factor refers to a person mental ability for abstract and critical thinking. There is a long standing argument on the effect of general intelligence on organizational behaviour.

4. Motivation
   - This concept refers to the tendency to response to some stimuli with accompanying emotion. Thus, a person with stronger desire for achievement, will have stronger motivation for success at work.
5. Personality

- This refers to all those basic traits of a person that is consistently carry on overtime in everyday situations. These traits supposedly account for what, why and how of human functioning.

4.4 Personality Testing in the Workplace

Personality and ability testing are used for various purposes in the workplace. Among those are for recruitment, selection, appraisal, promotion and research. Although testing is popular at work, it has both advantages and disadvantages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADVANTAGES</th>
<th>DISADVANTAGES/OBJECTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>provides quantitative information; easily use for comparison among individuals</td>
<td>may be faked or does not truly reflect the individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can be recorded for future reference</td>
<td>may be unreliable, many factors may affect results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provide explicit and specific results not abstract (e.g., satisfactory, sufficient)</td>
<td>may be invalid and unable to predict behavior over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fair and eliminate bias (i.e., no favoritism, corruption, etc.)</td>
<td>may be bias (i.e., males tend to do better and therefore stand better chance for being selected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are comprehensive (i.e., covers all basic dimensions of personality &amp; ability)</td>
<td>interpretations of results if fall on the wrong hands may give inaccurate picture of the candidate, thus need skill and experience tester and interpreter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are scientifically developed, can discriminate the good from the average and the bad.</td>
<td>Results may be due to overexposure to the test or overpractice, thus may unable to trace the true quality of the individual.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5 Trait theories of Organization Behavior

There are various trait theories that attempt to describe and measure individual at work; however, some tend to measure many traits and others are more specific. Those that measure broader-band or many traits are more popular among work psychologists than the narrow-band measure. This section will discuss five measures of which three of those are considered in the broader-band category and measuring occupational behavior more comprehensively, and two are narrow-band.

**Broad-band Trait Theories**

1. Eysenckian theory
2. Cattell’s 16 PF
3. Costa & McCrae’s “Big 5”

**Narrow-band Trait Theories**

1. The Type A behavior pattern
2. The “hardy personality”
Eysenckian theory

This theory is considered as the most sophisticated trait personality theory. It was developed by Hans Eysenck, a German psychologist (presently British).

The theory has been empirically tested and undergone various changes over the past 30-year period. At least three popular personality inventory or questionnaires, considered robust were generated by this theory:

i. Maudsley personality inventory (MPI)

ii. Eysenck personality inventory (EPI)

iii. Eysenck personality questionnaire (EPQ)

The basis of this theory is on the psychophysiological aspect of personality which relate to social behavior, namely:

- Extraversion
- Neuroticism
- Psychoticism

These three personality traits are however, unrelated. They can be measured and described on a continuum. Furthermore, the traits are biologically based and have many behavioral implications. Some differences between extraverts and introverts in particular, have been well documented:
### Some differences between Extraverts and Introverts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Extraverts</th>
<th>Introverts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do better in school, particularly in more advanced subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdraw from college for academic reasons</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdraw from college for psychiatric reasons</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer vocations involving interactions with other people</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefers more solitary vocations</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek diversion from job routine</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have less need for novelty</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are more suggestible</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are more easily sensitive to pain</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become easily fatigued and bored</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement interferes with performance</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement enhances performance</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tend to be more careful and slower</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefers scientific and theoretical jobs such as journalism, architecture and the teaching of mathematics</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More interest in occupations involving more social contact (e.g., selling insurance and social work)</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better able to handle routine work activities</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function less efficiently in the presence of distractions</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefers job with higher levels of cognitive task demands, pace of task demands, cognitive closure, extrinsic rewards, and intrinsic rewards.</td>
<td>/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cattell’s 16 PF

The Cattell’s 16PF (16 Personality Factor) has been published for over 40 years by R.B. Cattell (1971). The test measure 16 dimensions of personality and is considered the most comprehensive and functional in its measure of personality. It is probably the most widely used personality test in industrial, organizational, and occupational settings.

Each factor of the Cattell’s 16PF can be measured on a scale. The table below provides the descriptions of each of the 16 factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Warmth</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Reasoning</td>
<td>Less Intelligent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Affected by Feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D Dominance</td>
<td>Humble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Liveliness</td>
<td>Sober</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Rule Consciousness</td>
<td>Expedient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G Social Boldness</td>
<td>Shy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H Sensitivity</td>
<td>Tough-minded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Vigilance</td>
<td>Trusting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J Abstraction</td>
<td>Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K Privateness</td>
<td>Straightforward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L Apprehension</td>
<td>Self-assured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M Openness to Change</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N Self-Reliance</td>
<td>Group-dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O Perfectionism</td>
<td>Self-conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1 Tension</td>
<td>Relaxed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Costa & McCrae's “Big 5”**

Influenced by Eysenckian and Cattellian, American Costa and McCrae's revived the world of personality theory and testing by introducing five dimensions of personality. Costa and McCrae's argue everyone possesses in some amount these five personality traits. The five basic unrelated traits are as shown in Table below:

**The Big Five Traits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Neuroticism</td>
<td>Sensitive, emotional, and prone to experience feelings that are upsetting</td>
<td>Generally calm and able to deal with stress. Sometimes experience feelings of guilt, anger or sadness.</td>
<td>Secure, hardy and generally relaxed, even under stressful conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Extraversion</td>
<td>Extraverted, outgoing, active and high-spirited. Prefer to be around people most of the time.</td>
<td>Moderate in activity and enthusiasm. Enjoy the company of others &amp; also value privacy.</td>
<td>Introverted, reserved and serious. Prefer to be alone or with a few close friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Openness to experience</td>
<td>Open to new experiences. Have broad interests and are very imaginative.</td>
<td>Practical but willing to consider new ways of doing things.</td>
<td>Down-to-earth, practical, traditional and pretty much set in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Agreeableness</td>
<td>Compassionate, good-natured and eager to cooperate and avoid conflict.</td>
<td>Generally warm, trusting and agreeable, but can sometimes be stubborn and competitive.</td>
<td>Hardheaded, skeptical, proud and competitive. Tend to express anger directly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Conscientiousness and well organized. Have high standards and always strive to achieve goals.</td>
<td>Dependable and moderately well organized. Generally have clear goals but are able to set work aside.</td>
<td>Easygoing, not very well organized, and sometimes careless. Prefer not to make plans.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Type A behavior pattern

The type of behavior pattern one possesses is related to their level of commitment to their job. Research have shown that Type A and Type B personalities demonstrate different behavior patterns at work. Table below outline some of the characteristics of the two types of behavior.

Type A and B personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type A</th>
<th>Type B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extremely competitive</td>
<td>Never suffer from time urgency and impatience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-achieving</td>
<td>Harbour no free-floating hostility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>Feel no need to impress others unless the situation demands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hasty</td>
<td>Know how to relax and have fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impatient</td>
<td>Have no need to demonstrate achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restless</td>
<td>Able to work without agitation and to relax without guilt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More neurotic</td>
<td>In short, none of the habit of Type A personality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More extraverted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More anxious</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater need for control</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More ambitious</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More autonomy and power</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explosive speech patterns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenseness of facial muscles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearing under pressure of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time &amp; responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer pressure to work overtime</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compete for prizes, etc.,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work overload to meet high,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often unrealistic, performance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>standards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting deadlines that reflect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chronic time urgency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workaholic &amp; longer work hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapid career achievement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The etiology, components and psychological processes associated with the Type A personality pattern have not been concretely established. However, scholars agree that having Type A workers in the organization is a mixed blessing. Although they work harder, are more committed and strive for success, Type A are more likely to experience stress which are transmittable to other workers.

The “hardy personality”

The “hardy personality“ concept was developed by Kobassa in 1979. This concept measures the relationship between stress and health which are inadequately address by the Type A and B personality theory. The “hardy personality” theory states that individuals who are high in hardiness are less likely to fall ill, mentally or physically than those with lower level of hardiness who display alienation, powerlessness and threat in the face of work stress and change. Hardiness refers to personality cognitive or attributional style that expresses:

Commitment – ability to believe in oneself & fully involved in many life situations (e.g., work, family, interpersonal relationships, & social institutions);

Control – believe in the ability to influence the course of events, take responsibility and not holding fate as accountable.

or;

Challenge – believe that change is inevitable in life and regard it as a challenge that stimulates and provides new opportunities rather than threat.

As students may have noted, the Type A personality tend to be individuals who are prone to stress, while the hardiness individuals are those who cope well with stress. Based on her theory, Kobassa provide evidence that executives with high
stress but low illness were more hardy, high self-commitment, responsive and energetic.

4.6 Why Personality Traits May Not Predict Behavior At Work.

Personality traits may be useful to indicate a person social behavior at the workplace or in other situations. However, they may sometimes not truly predict one's occupational behavior. Several reasons were noted for the non-significant findings, three of those are:

- Occupational behavior is shaped and constrained by a myriad of factors, not just personality traits. These factors include working conditions, job satisfaction, incentive schemes, etc.

- Personality may just be a moderating variable and not a direct predictor of occupational behavior. Other variables such as social class, intelligence, and organizational structure may combine with a person's personality to impact on his/her behavior at work.

Personality trait measure or instrument usually focuses on a single trait when it should actually focus on the multidimensional aspect of personality.
Summary

- A myriad of factors moderate the relationship between a person's personality traits and his or her occupational behavior.
- Five factors related to occupational behavior are ability, motivation, demographic factors, personality traits and intelligence.
- Personality and ability testing are often used at work for purposes such as recruitment, selection, appraisal, promotion and research.
- Trait theories attempt to describe and measure individuals at work. Five measures discussed were Eysenckian Theory, Cattell’s 16 PF, Costa & McCrae’s “Big 5”. The Type A behavior pattern, and the “hardy personality”.
- Personality and ability testing are commonly use for recruitment, selection, appraisal, promotion and research in the workplace.
UNIT 5

WORK ASPIRATION AND SATISFACTION

5.0 Introduction

In this unit, we will discuss on work aspiration and satisfaction. These two concepts are highly related and play important roles in workers work attitude and productivity. Basically, everyone aspires to work rather than do nothing for a living. In other words, most people aspire to secure work to sustain themselves and their families. However, the secured job may not be what the worker desire. In today’s competitive world some graduates may just grasp a job offered by an agency, rather than remain jobless, in order to survive. The job offered may not be the kind that the graduate aspire. Clearly, in this case the job is taken temporarily while waiting for another offer that matches the person wants or ambitions. We can imagine how in this situation the kind of behavior that such a worker will demonstrate in the workplace. How about when we could get hold of job that meet our expectation and aspiration? Would we be happier in such a job, and subsequently be more committed to produce the best for the company? This unit will allow you to explore further the role of aspiration and satisfaction in the ecology of work.

Objective of this unit:

5.1 Define work aspiration and satisfaction
5.2 Characteristics a people with high aspiration
5.3 Discuss job satisfaction
5.4 Discuss theories of job satisfaction
5.1 Definition of Work Aspiration and Satisfaction

**Work Aspiration**

Work aspiration can be defined as a desire or ambition to achieve something related to work.

**Work Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job.

5.2 Characteristics of People with High Aspiration

Aspiration is related to motivation, which subsequently, influences productivity. Thus, workers with higher aspiration tend to be more content with their job. The following are some of the characteristics of workers with high aspiration:

1. Work hard
2. Enjoy work
3. Responsible
4. Very focus
5. Confident
6. Have high standard
5.3 Job Satisfaction

There are a variety of factors that can influence a person's level of job satisfaction. Some of these factors are as follow.

1. The level of pay and benefits
2. The perceived fairness of the promotion system within a company
3. The quality of the working conditions, leadership and social relationships
4. The job itself (the variety of tasks involved, the interest and challenge the job generates, and the clarity of the job description/requirements).

The happier an individual is within their job, the more satisfied they are said to be. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation, although it is clearly linked. Job design aims to enhance job satisfaction and performance, methods include job rotation, job enlargement and job enrichment.

Other influences on satisfaction include the management style and culture, employee involvement, empowerment and autonomous work groups. Job satisfaction is a very important attitude which is frequently measured by organisations.

The most common way of measurement is the use of rating scales where employees report their reactions to their jobs. Questions relate to rate of pay, work responsibilities, variety of tasks, promotional opportunities the work itself and co-workers. Some questioners ask yes or no questions while others ask to rate satisfaction on 1-5 scale (where 1 represents "not at all satisfied" and 5 represents "extremely satisfied").
5.4 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Many theories could be found regarding job satisfaction. However, we will be focusing on two theories, which are Herzberg's two-factor theory and Social Learning theory.

I. Herzberg's Two-factor Theory

This theory which was developed by Frederick Herzberg is also known as is the Motivator-Hygiene Theory. This theory concluded that certain factors in the workplace caused job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg classified these factors into hygiene and motivation factors.

Hygiene Factors

Factors that causes dissatisfaction are known as hygiene factors. Among these factors are:

- Not enough pay
- Not good working conditions
- Not enough job security
- Not enough respect
- Not, not, not
Motivating Factors

Factors that are positives offered with the job and can motivate workers to higher performance.

- There is a change for promotion
- There is equal treatment
- There is ample opportunity for additional money
- There are things that people value, not things that are expected

Implications of Herzberg's Theory

There are two main implications that we can deduce from Herzberg's theory. These include the following.

Managers who provide hygiene factors only should not expect motivation, only

Managers who provide motivating factors should expect employee motivation.
II. Social Learning Theory

This theory by Bandura highlights the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. In the world of work, this theory emphasizes how workers acquire certain behavior observationally through modeling. From observing others at work one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed. This observation information will later serves as a guide for action in his or her future tasks. In other words, people tend to imitate what they have observed.

Bandura’s theory explains human behaviors in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral and environmental influences. He explains four components that become the underlying processes for observational learning, which are:

- **Attention**
  
  including modeled events (distinctiveness, affective valence, complexity, prevalence, functional value) and observer characteristics (sensory capacities, arousal level, perceptual set, past reinforcement),

- **Retention**

  including symbolic coding, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, motor rehearsal),
Motor Reproduction

including physical capabilities, self-observation of reproduction, accuracy of feedback, and

Motivation

including external, vicarious and self reinforcement.

In addition to the above processes, Bandura's social learning theory noted three principles that governed the theory. Any analysis of work related behavior can be guided using these principles.

1. The highest level of observational learning is achieved by first organizing and rehearsing the modeled behavior symbolically and then enacting it overtly. Coding modeled behavior into words, labels or images results in better retention than simply observing.

2. Individuals are more likely to adopt a modeled behavior if it results in outcomes they value.

3. Individuals are more likely to adopt a modeled behavior if the model is similar to the observer and has admired status and the behavior has functional value.
SUMMARY

Work aspiration is a desire to achieve something related to work while work satisfaction is contentment towards work.

People with high aspiration will most likely have high motivation thus influencing their productivity at work.

Various factors are found to influence job satisfaction. A happier individual is with her job, the more satisfied they are said to be.

Two important theories in job satisfaction are Herzberg’s Two-factor Theory and Social Learning Theory.

Herzberg’s Two-factor Theory focuses on certain factors in the workplace that can cause job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This theory is further classified into hygiene and motivation factors.

Social Learning Theory stresses the importance of observing and modeling behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others.
UNIT 6
WORK PERFORMANCE AND PRODUCTIVITY

6.0 Introduction
The aim of this unit is to help students understand work performance and productivity.

Objective of this unit:
6.1 Definition of Concepts
6.2 Conditions for Assessing Work Performance and Productivity

6.1 Definition of Concepts
Work performance and productivity can be define as a process whereby an individual(s) makes a judgment about the value or standard of another individual's work performance and/or, an individual makes a judgement about his/her own work performance.

Judgment made can be formal that is, in writing (preferred) with an interview, or informal that is, a discussion with no documentation.

Performance appraisal should be done within the first 3 months of employment and annually thereafter. The objective of performance appraisal are:
• To improve and promote the efficiency of the organisation.
• To ensure safety in work practice.
• To provide assistance in achieving organisational goals.
• To facilitate skill development for the individual employee.
• To provide a basis for in-service education for all staff and/or "professional staff."
• To enable "assessor(s)" to give positive feedback to staff about their work performance formally and informally.
• To provide a basis for assessing an individual's readiness for promotion.
• To support referee opinions when providing references.
• To decide whether to introduce the Disciplinary Procedure.
• They can be used for deciding whether to introduce the Grievance Procedure.
• They can be used as evidence for justifying or defending an employee's "harsh, unjust, or unreasonable" dismissal case hearing.

6.2 Conditions for Assessing Work Performance and Productivity

It is essential performance appraisal is viewed by staff as a positive learning experience. Therefore, it is deemed important if trust is to be developed between those conducting the appraisal and the person receiving it.

Objectivity can be met with reasonable accuracy if judgments are based on behaviors observed and compared with the organizational documentation guidelines.

The personality of the individual does not enter into the appraisal process unless the personality trait is having a positive or negative impact on work performance. In other words, whether you like, or dislike the appraisee should in no way influence the outcome of the appraisal.

In order to reduce subjectivity to a minimum, appraisers should ask themselves what behaviors they have observed that led them to make the judgments made and what aspects of the appraisee's annual objectives have been met.

You must be able to describe exampld behaviour and/or be able to measure the extent to which the appraisee's annual objectives were met.

If any assessor is unable to provide examples of behavior observed then he/she should seriously consider withdrawing from the appraisal process.

It is well documented that where appraisers consist of subordinates, peers and the person the appraisee reports to, objectivity and accountability is enhanced.

Arnold, J and et al. (2005) noted three important components for assessing performance:

1. Observing behavior
2. Recording behavior
3. Rating behavior

→ Involves skill and required practice.

1. Observing behavior
• Observing directly how one perform a task.
• May collect samples of behaviors.
• May collect info on behaviors in past job.
• Employees may be asked to give reports on own performance over the years.
• Employers rating are frequently used job assessment.

2. Recording Behavior
   • Important to record evidence of how individual performed over the appraisal period.
   • Can aid in decision-making.
   • Record can reflect on consistency of assessor in the assessment.

3. Rating behavior
   • Most difficult aspect of assessment.
   • Involves the use of recorded observations in making judgement and comparisons with other co-workers.
   • Can be used to rate applicants’ suitability for a job.
UNIT 7
WORK MOTIVATION

7.0 Introduction

In this unit, students are introduced to work motivation. This unit aims to make students understand the meaning of motivation and how it is needed in work.

Famous theories in motivation would also be made known to students. It is hoped that by understanding some out of the many motivational theories would help them have a more comprehensive knowledge on work motivation.

Objective of this unit:

7.1 Definition of Motivation
7.2 Importance of Learning Motivation
7.3 Discuss the motivation to work
7.4 Discuss the theories of work motivation

7.1 Definition of Work Motivation

Work motivation can be define as an internal state or condition which sometimes can be described as a need, desire or want that activates or energize behavior and give it direction (see Kleinginna and Kleinginna, 1981a).

Work motivation can also be define as an arousal, direction and persistence of behavior (Franken, 1994).

In short, motivation is a psychological process that gives our behavior directions in order to achieve a desired goal.

7.2 Importance of Learning Motivation

Why is it important for readers to learn motivation? Learning motivation will help:
1) In understanding our behaviour and those of others.
2) A manager build and manage a “system of motivation.”
3) Offers conceptual tools for analyzing motivation problems in organizations

7.3 Motivation to Work

There are many factors that drive people to work. Among them are:
- work provides a source of income
- a source of activity and stimulation
- a source of social contacts
- a means of structuring time
- a source of self-fulfillment
- a self-actualization

People mostly work due to the explicit and implicit rewards that it brings. However, there are many psychological theories of work motivation. Among the many theories are:

1) Need theories
2) Cognitive theories
3) Job design theories
4) Behavioral theories

7.4 Need Theories

Need theories view motivation as a drive that directs desire for certain objects or achievement. There are many need theories. However, we will focus on four of them, which are:

1) Maslow’s Theory
2) ERG Theory
3) Two-Factor Theory
4) McClelland’s Achievement Motivation Theory

**Maslow’s Theory**

This theory by Maslow states that human needs are based on physical and psychological health. Maslow stresses the importance of 5 basic needs:

1) Physiological
2) Safety
3) Love/Belonging
4) Esteem
5) Self-Actualization
Normal individuals would try to satisfy all of these basic needs. At times, more than one need is focused on. Unsatisfied needs become a motivator to individuals to achieve a desired goal.

If any of these needs are unmet by an individual, they would have unhealthy physical and psychological development.

**ERG Theory**

ERG theory is similar yet different to Maslow’s Theory of needs. Compared to Maslow’s theory, this theory by Aldefer focuses on three needs:

1. **Existence needs**
   - Physical and material wants

2. **Relatedness needs**
   - Desire for meaningful interpersonal relationships

3. **Growth needs**
   - Desire to be creative and productive, esteem and self-actualization

Individual’s can move from one need to another. Movement upward is

**Two-Factor Theory**

Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory states that motivation comes from the job itself and not external awards. This theory which is also known as Motivation-Hygiene Theory highlights two factors:

1. **Hygiene factors**
Based on the need to avoid unpleasantness at work where lower-level needs are met to prevent workers from becoming dissatisfied. They do not influence work motivation

e.g., relations with coworkers, physical working conditions, company policies and their administration, quality of supervision,

2) Motivator factors
These factors are based on personal growth where it creates job satisfaction. Only conditions that allow people to fill upper-level needs for esteem and self-actualization will increase work motivation.

e.g., level of challenge and discretion, intrinsic interest, opportunities to be creative, achievement, recognition.

McClelland’s Achievement Motivation Theory
McClelland theory studied the behavioral effects on three needs which are:
1) Need for Achievement
2) Need for Power
3) Need for Affiliation

Although McClelland’s Achievement Motivation Theory investigated all three needs, it put emphasis the need for achievement.

Need for Achievement

People with a strong desire to achieve show these characteristics:
• Take responsibility for results of behavior
• Willing to take calculated risks
• Set moderate achievement goals
• Prefer to set performance standards for themselves
• Prefer non-routine tasks to routine assignments
• Welcome feedback about how well they are doing

Need for achievement is suitable for an entrepreneur characteristic. Managers and executives usually have a stronger need for achievement than people in other occupations.

Need for Power
Strong need for power people show characteristics such as this:
- Focuses on "controlling the means of influencing the behavior of another person"
- Having strong effects on other people
- Means of influence: anything available to the person to control the behavior of another
- Actively searches for means of influence

There are two ways of expressing the need for power:
1) Dominance, physical aggression, exploitation
   - View situations from a win-lose perspective
   - Must win and the other party must lose
   - Did not feel such power behavior resulted in the type of leadership required by organizations

2) Persuasion and interpersonal influence
   - Tries to arouse confidence in those he or she wants to influence
   - Clarifies group’s goals and persuades members to achieve those goals
   - Emphasizes group members’ ability to reach goals
   - Tries to develop a competence belief in group members
   - McClelland felt this type of power behavior characterized effective leaders in organizations

Need for Affiliation

People with a strong need for affiliation:
- Focuses on "establishing, maintaining, and restoring positive affective relations with others"
- Want close, warm interpersonal relationships
- Seek the approval of others, especially those about whom they care
- Like other people, want other people to like them, and want to be in the company of others
UNIT 8
MORALITY AND WORK

8.0 Introduction
This unit will help students to understand the concept of morality and its relation to work environment.

Objective of the unit
8.1 Definition of morality
8.2 Introduction to Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

8.1 Definition of Morality
Morality can be define as the concept of human ethics which is strongly related to matters of good and evil or right and wrong.

There are three contexts where in morality can be used:
1) individual conscience
2) systems of principle
3) judgments

Morality which is also called moral values are shared within a certain culture, religious, secular or philosophical community where codes of behavior or conduct are derived from these systems.

8.2 Kohlberg’s Stages of Moral Development
Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development were created in order to explain the development of moral reasoning. This theory that has six developmental stages holds the moral reasoning, which is the basis for ethical behavior. Lawrence Kohlberg determined that the process of moral development continues throughout the lifespan.
Kohlberg’s six stages were grouped into three levels:

1) Pre-conventional

2) Conventional

3) Post-conventional

Being a stage model, it is not possible to regress backwards in stages or jump stages. Each stage provides a new nonetheless necessary perspective and is more comprehensive, differentiated, and integrated than its predecessors.

### Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level One: Pre-conventional Morality</th>
<th>Stage 1: Punishment-Obedience Orientation</th>
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<td>Stage 2: Instrumental Relativist Orientation</td>
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<td>Level Two: Conventional Morality</td>
<td>Stage 3: Good Boy-Nice Girl Orientation</td>
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<td>Level Three: Post-Conventional Morality</td>
<td>Stage 5: Social Contract Orientation</td>
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<td>Stage 6: Universal Ethical Principle Orientation</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Level 1: Pre-conventional

- This level is very common in children and sometime in adults.
- The pre-conventional level consists of the first and second stages of moral development, and are purely concerned with the self (egocentric).
- The **first stage**:
  - Focuses on direct consequences of an individual’s action on themselves.
    - For example, an action is perceived morally wrong if the individual gets punish.
  - No recognition that others’ points of view are any different from one’s own view. This stage may also be viewed as authoritarianism.
♦ The second stage:
  ○ Behavior is focused on one's own personal gain.
  ○ Individuals show limited interest in other people's need but only if it 
    might further one's own interest.
  ○ Concern for others is not based by loyalty or intrinsic respect.

Level 2: Conventional

♦ The conventional level is typically known among adolescents and 
  adults.
♦ Individual's who reason conventionally judge the morality of actions by 
  comparing these actions to societal views and expectation.
♦ This level consists of the third and fourth stages of moral development.
♦ In the third stage:
  ○ Individual enters society by filling social roles and are open to 
    approval or disapproval from other people based on what 
    society perceived of the role.
  ○ Individuals try to be a good person and live to society 
    expectations.
  ○ Morality of an action may be judge by evaluating its 
    consequences in terms of a person's relationship, which now 
    begin to include things like respect and gratitude.

♦ The fourth stage:
  ○ Highlights the importance in obeying laws, dictums and social 
    conventions in order to maintain a functional society.
  ○ Moral reasoning is beyond the need for individual approval 
    exhibited in stage three. Society must learn to transcend 
    individual needs.

Level 3: Post-Conventional

♦ Level three of the Kohlberg consists of stages five and six of moral 
  development
♦ Realization that individuals are separate entities from society now 
  becomes prominent
In this level, an individual’s own perspective should be viewed before the society's is considered. This nature of putting self before others is sometime mistaken for pre-conventional behaviors.

**In stage five:**
- Individuals are holding different point of views and values and it is important that they be respected and honored.
- For example, laws are regarded as social contracts rather than dictums. Laws that do not promote general welfare should be changed when necessary to fulfill the greatest good for majority of people. This is achieved through majority decision and compromise. It is assumed that the democratic government are based on stage five reasoning.

**In stage six:**
- Moral reasoning are based using universal ethical principles.
- According to Kohlberg, decisions are met categorically rather than hypothetically in a conditional way thus resulting in the action taken.
- Action is never a means and always viewed an end itself. An individual acts because it is the right thing to do, and not because it is instrumental or previously agreed upon.
- Although Kohiberg insisted the existence of stage six, he faced difficulty findings participants who consistently used it. It seems that people rarely reach stage six of Kohlberg’s model.

**Exercise: The Heinz Dilemma**

The Heinz dilemma, which was the druggist's dilemma: *Heinz Steals the Drug In Europe*, was used in Kohlberg's original research. Read the passage below and discuss whether Heinz should break into the laboratory to steal the drug for his wife or not. Give reason.

A woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost him to produce. He paid $200 for the radium and charged $2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about $ 1,000 which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said: "No, I discovered the
drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and broke into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife.

(Kohlberg, 1963, p. 19)

Summary

- The concept of human ethic, which is strongly related to good or bad or right or wrong, is known as morality.
- There are three contexts where morality can be used, which are individual conscience, systems of principle, judgments.
- Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development was designed to explain the development of moral reasoning. This theory had six stages which were grouped into three levels which were pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional.
UNIT 9
ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE AND DESIGN

9.0 Introduction

The aim of this unit is to help students understand organization structure and design. Organizations have become the primary form of social institution in contemporary society. The way in which an organization is structured creates/restrains opportunities for interactions with other organizational members, influencing the attitudes and social relations that emerge over time and the ways in which work related tasks are completed.

Hence, by the end of this unit students are hope to understand why organizations are structured the way they are.

Objective of the unit

9.1 Organizational Structure
9.2 Definition of Differentiation
9.3 Definition of Integration
9.4 Mechanism Used In Organization
9.5 Design dimension
9.6 Determinants of Organizational Structure
9.7 Organizational Design

9.1 Organizational Structure

Organization structure is the ways in which an organization divides it tasks and then coordinates them. One of the key concepts underlying organizational structure is division of labor.

9.2 Definition of Differentiation

Differentiation is the amount of work that is divided into different components in an organization. Organizations may differentiate into the following ways:
- Horizontal
- Vertical
• Personal
• Spatial

9.3 Definition of Integration

Integration can be defined as the quality of relationships and teamwork that exist among departments that are required to achieve unity by the demands of the organization.

9.4 Mechanism Used in Organization

There are three types of mechanisms that can be used in an organization to manage their work. They are:

1) Mutual adjustments between organizational members
2) Direct supervision
3) Standardization of work process, work outputs, and/or worker skills and knowledge.

9.5 Design Dimension

The general structural dimensions that exist in an organization are as follows:

1) Centralization
   ♦ Refers to the locus of power and location of decision-making authority in an organization.

2) Formalization
   ♦ Can be simply defined as written rules
   ♦ It is an extent to which expectations concerning job activities are standardized and explicit.

3) Complexity
   ♦ The different number of components or extent of differentiation in an organization.
   ♦ Managers are required to spend more time and attention in dealing with communication, coordination, and control needs if the organization structure becomes more complex.

9.6 Determinants of Organizational Structure

There are four determinants to organizational structure:

1) Environment
2) Size of Organization
3) Technology
4) Organization’s Strategy & Goals

Environment

There are two environments that can influence organizational structure:

1) General Environment
   - Indirect effect on organization
   - Demographics, culture, economic trend

2) Task Environment
   - Direct and unique effect
   - Sources of inputs, receivers of outputs, competitors & regulatory group.

Environmental Uncertainty
   - Organization structure must adapt to uncertainties
   - Uncertainty determined by
     1) Complexity
     2) Rate of change
     3) Resource dependence

Size of an Organization

When an organization increases in size, it also increases in complexity.

♦ Control becomes an issue
♦ Formalization, specialization and standardization increases
♦ Large organization often become bureaucratic

Technology

♦ Technology can be defined as transformation of input into output.
♦ Technology drives the structure of an organization.

Strategy and Goals

Strategy will help in making decisions regarding environment, size, technology and structure.

90 Organizational Design

Organizational design can be defined as a continuous process of adapting goals, strategies and changes in technology with the organizational structure by using suitable and effective mechanisms.
There are two types of structure in an organization design. One type of structure is appropriate when the environment is stable and simple, while another type appears to be more appropriate when the environment is rapidly changing and complex.

**Simple Structure**

The organization is composed of a top manager and a small number of organizational members.

**Functional Organization**

Functional organization are composed of members that are based on the focus of their work activity.

Summary

**Exercise: Discuss the Determinants of an Organizational Structure**

**Summary**