RIVERS STATE UNIVERSITY,
PORT HARCOURT

PEOPLE MANAGEMENT TRIPOD AND WORKER PRODUCTIVITY: THE SOLUTE, SOLVENT AND SOLUTION

AN
INAUGURAL LECTURE

By

PROFESSOR ISAAC ZEB-OBIPI
B.Ed., MBA, PhD, FIHNR, FIMC, MTAMN, MCIPM
PROFESSOR OF MANAGEMENT
(Organizational Behaviour & Human Resource Management)
Department of Management, Faculty of Management Sciences

SERIES NO. 79

Wednesday, 27th July, 2022

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DEDICATION

This is dedicated to the memory of my Lead Mentor, International Scholar, African Management Philosopher and Emeritus Professor **Augustine I. Ahiauzu**, KSC, JP, FAMN (1943-2021)

INSPIRATION

"I would not have had the same University experience without such a true friend and outstanding mentor…. It is one thing to be taught. It is quite something else to be encouraged to think, question and challenge" (Robert Gordon University, www.rguunion.co.uk, May 27, 2013)

DECLARATION

"Finally, the time is here to proclaim what our mentors have made of us and what we must have made of our mentees; counting God's blessings in our academic journey! The Inaugural Lecture on my mind" (Isaac Zeb-Obipi, www.facebook.com/isaac.zebobipi, July 7, 2022).

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PROTOCOL

Vice Chancellor

Members of Governing Council

Deputy Vice Chancellor (Administration)

Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic)

Registrar, Liberian and Acting Bursar

Former Vice Chancellors and Emeritus Professors

Provost, Deans and Directors

Heads of Departments and Other Units

Professors and Associate Professors

Former Registrars and Liberian

Other Academic and Non-academic Staff

Your Royal Majesties, Highnesses and Chiefs

Affiliate Politicians at various levels

Bishops, Reverends, Pastors and Church Members

Leaders of ASUU, SSANU, NAAT, NASU and Senior Staff Club

Visiting Academics and Captains of Industries

Staff of Management Department and Faculty of Management Sciences

Staff of Directorate of Student Affairs, ICTC and Cinfores

My Community, War Canoe House, and Family Members from Ogoloma

Members of Our Host Community, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo

Members of Port Harcourt Club, Africa United Club and Golddash Club

The 12th Friend Cycle of Ogoloma

My Colleagues, Friends and Former Students from Opobo

Alumni Members, the Great Whales!

Former and Present Student Leaders (NURSS, NANS, PGSA, SUG, WASU, ACF etc.)

My Former and Present Students and Mentees

The Student Community and University Mass Choir

Gentlemen of the Media

Ladies and Gentlemen.

You are all welcome to this inaugural lecture.

1. PREAMBLE

It is with a heart of gratitude to God and a sense of humility occasioned by your presence that I present this 79th Inaugural Lecture of this great University. It is the 7th from the Faculty of Management Sciences, 5th from the Department of Management and 1st by a Professor of Management with research interest in Organizational Behaviour, Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations. Given the recent efforts aimed at creating a Department of Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations, and in light of the assertion that an inaugural lecture is offered to inaugurate a Department (Ogunye: Omubo-Pepple, 2017), this is to herald the Department intended to be dedicated solely to the management of people at work in the face of the persistent problems associated with worker productivity; and this suggests the lecture topic.

In addition to forerunning the inauguration of the Department of Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations, I give this lecture in the understanding that an inaugural lecture is:

(a) a debt owed a university by a Professor for the career and elevation it has offered him/her;

(b) a ritual or baptism for the Professor to formerly launch into the Professorial rank;

(c) an opportunity for the presentation of the Professor's academic journey and research experiences with a focus on the Professor's works within the framework of his/her discipline;

(d) a platform to convince the diverse inaugural lecture audience that the promotion to the rank of a Professor is well deserved as manifest in the Professor's contributions to knowledge; and

(e) a means to correct errors in earlier works, connect ideas in previous works for a thought-thread or networked ideas, and assert contributions and research direction so as to bring to the fore something fresh and stimulating (Jaja, 2015; Wachukwu, 2016; Sigalo, 2017; Omubo-Pepple, 2017; Ogburia, 2017).

My career started when it was observed by my parents and guardians that I would prefer to have papers used in wrapping items bought for meals to read to having the meal on return from an errand to make the purchase of the items for who had sent me. Given the circumstances of my birth as *metaphorized* by my name **Isaac** with its biblical etiology, there were challenges that got me moved from one guardian to the other at different locations, back and forth. One of such locations is Kala-Degama, Usokun, in the present Degema Local Government Area, where I had most of my primary education and rose from being a class monitor at different levels to become Assistant Senior Boy despite being a stranger there in 1979.

Similar circumstances saw me attend Government Secondary School, Abissa, where I had double promotion from Class 1 to Class 3 and became the Senior Prefect of the School in Class 5 in 1984. From there I proceeded to the then Rivers State College of Education (Edport), Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt, for a B.Sc. combined honors Degree in Economics and Education offered by the University of Ibadan, Ibadan. Subsequently, I obtained, from the then Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt, the Master of Business Administration in Management (MBA Management) and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Management in the area of Organizational Behaviour (PhD Organizational Behaviour) in 2007.

In the course of this journey, it was noticed that I have **the ability to question what I got taught, help my classmates or course mates to better understand what we were being taught and clearly convey my thoughts.** These qualities, suggestive of a teacher's orientation, were particularly attested to at interviews I attended (Pan African Bank and MBA admission interviews, for example). They endeared me to my lecturers, including one who initially had to come to the class with his doctoral academic gown, mortar and scroll to prove that his PhD was not a fluke in a next class only because I asked a question he found offensive in a previous class. Interestingly, in the course of the two semesters he taught me, we became friends, knowing that I was right and he was wrong without admitting it. Another of such lecturers is Prof. P. B. Johnnie who also noticed these qualities in me and would always tell me that I was good to “be used” and indeed he put to work this perception of me.

After my MBA, I wanted to leave my teaching job first at Comprehensive Secondary School, Opobo town, in 1990 and next at Enitonna High School, Port Harcourt, for an industry job. Though he offered to help, he preferred that I took up a lecturing job with this great University having worked closely with me as my MBA thesis supervisor and as a resource person in his consultancy firm. So when he became the Acting Head, Department of Management, he facilitated my employment as an Assistant Lecturer in 1997 under Late Dr. Daerego Maclayton as Dean of the Faculty and Emeritus Prof. Steve Odi-Owei as the Vice Chancellor. Through the mentorship of Late Emeritus Prof. Augustine I. Ahiauzu, Prof. Bedford Fubara and Prof. Seth Accra-Jaja I rose to the rank of a Professor in 2018 with Prof. Blessing C. Didia providing the icing on the cake. It is this elevation that has occasioned this inaugural lecture, **People Management Tripod and Worker Productivity: The Solute, Solvent and Solution**; a title partly inspired by my friend, Prof. N. Boisa who would often call me, at the Club, **Professor of People Management**.

2. INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about the role of workers in contributing to organizational performance (George and Jones, 1996; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2001; Geus, 2002). According to George and Jones (1996:17), organizations depend entirely on "their employees performing behaviors that result in high-quality service at reasonable cost". The growth, success and survival of any corporate organization is determined by its performance, and this performance greatly depends on the level of productivity of the labor force, the workers (Akinyele, 2009). They are an integral part of the daily operations of businesses because they contribute to overall success by adding value to their different job-roles in diverse organizations of a nation. Their productivity is fundamental to the accomplishment of organizations as evident in the assertion by the American inventor and businessman, Thomas Alva Edison (1847-1931), that "the object of work is production" (Open Source Workplace, 2022). Workers' productivity, therefore, serves as the bedrock of organizational performance; and this is in addition to the importance of work so much so that denying a person work is to deny such a person the right to be any part of our society, to be cast out by the society with severe consequences (Ron Hubbard, 1988).

Organizations do not, however, always or often achieve the desired high-quality performing behavior from their employees. So they, organizations, do express concern with their performance; and often with respect to workers' contributions to their poor or low performance or productivity. The poor or inadequate performance of workers, therefore, becomes more worrisome because it correlates with poor organizational performance. They hardly seem to get it right, and as such workers' productivity has been a major concern for organizations (Zeb-Obipi, 2007a; Yesuf, 2000). Even for businesses that are seemingly doing well, the threat of poor performance and possible decline or failure is ever present. Most of the fourteen "Early-Warning Signs of Decline" of businesses identified by Kreitner and Kinicki (2001: 636) are associated with workers' performance. In associating business failure with workers' performance, Geus (2002: 917) has observed that short-term focus on profits, rather than monitoring people, is a key factor in failure for: "There is more to a company and to its longevity than more money making. The skills, capabilities, and knowledge of people are paramount; capital is no longer king (*and so is the customer*)".

The correlation between worker and organizational performance becomes most worrisome when considered in relation to the larger society. While organizations "exist to provide goods and services that people (society) want, the amount and quality of these goods and services are products of the behavior and performance of an organization's workers" (George and Jones, 1996: 4). Thus, if organizations depend on the performance of their workers, and society depends on the performance of business organizations for a better living standard, then it is logical to argue that the poor performance of workers affects the society at large. Indeed, the wealth of a nation increases only by productivity and a productive workforce is the engine behind every successful business, nay, a society or nation. At the center of the systems for creating unique organizational capability all through the four practical revolutions in Management is the performance of the workers (Shiba & Walden, 2021) .Consequently, the concern with poor worker performance is not a problem limited to businesses alone. It is significant for every society; particularly a developing economy such as ours, Nigeria. This, perhaps, partly explains the "concern of developing economies … to increase productivity… in order to aid economic development" (Fubara, 2004: 1).

Productivity is crucial as it is a tool that ensures greater social and economic development and a means to improving the quality and living standard of citizens. Therefore, it is a major driving force behind economic development, with great reliance on knowledge, innovation, wealth creation and creativity of workers (Ekpo-Ufot, 1986). Increasing productivity is a way of boosting the prosperity of the overall Nigerian economy. Unfortunately, the productivity level of workers in Nigeria has been identified to be constantly low (Akinyele, 2009). For instance, a study by the Nigerian National Manpower Board on Productivity found that Nigerian workers are not as productive as their counterparts in Europe (Dokpesi, 2022). Thus, the concern to improve workers' productivity in Nigeria has continued to increase, and has subsequently given rise to series of research efforts (Attah, 2017; Ajala, 2012; Akinyele, 2009; Zeb-Obipi, 2007a; Yesuf, 2000). These are attempts made and studies undertaken to explain the performance of workers and its correlation with organizational performance. Most of such explanations have focused on several factors about and around the individual worker. An example of such explanations with African bias concludes that: "The work environment in Africa lacks the essential socio-psychological requirements that motivate workers and promote productivity. The leadership is weak; the organizational culture is inhibitive; and, the organizational climate is non-conducive for effective human relations practice, high productivity and organizational development" (Eze, 2004: 284).

Some other studies have identified several challenges and proffered a number of solutions to boosting productivity within the Nigerian work setting. For instance, Adebisi and Oladipo (2015) established that productivity can be improved with a good reward system while Ajala (2012) is of the opinion that a conducive workplace environment is a significant productivity booster for the Nigerian workers. Being that productivity is a key component for a flourishing organization, the quest for how it can be improved continues to rise. A clear and undisputable fact that have emerged from this quest or some of these studies is that **the problem of worker productivity can best be resolved through better people management offered by the disciplines of Organizational Behaviour, Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations**; and people management is the focal research interest of the Inaugural Lecturer; hence, the theme of this inaugural lecture.

Using the metaphors of a tripod, solute, solvent and solution, the lecture conceives the challenges of worker productivity as constituting a **solute**, the disciplines of people management as three-legged solvent like a **tripod** and as such asserts that people management is the **solution** to the problem of worker productivity. Our purpose is to show that the problem of workers' productivity could be solved by harnessing the contributions of the three foremost disciplines that deal with people in organizations into people management. Deriving from this aim, are the following objectives:

(a) To layout the inaugural lecturer's main areas of teaching, publication and community service- **areas of scholarship oriented towards managing people.**

(b) To highlight the inaugural lecturer's contributions to knowledge- **filled knowledge gaps that enhance better management of people.**

(c) To indicate the inaugural lecturer's current research direction- **the metaphors capable of improving people management.**

To achieve these objectives, the flow of thought is along the lines of indicating the contributions of the Inaugural Lecturer in his areas of teaching, publication and community service, all driven by research and a managerial orientation towards better people management for enhanced worker productivity. The presentation is aided by the use of some metaphors related to a tripod and people management. Consequently, this lecture has the subsequent subheadings, following this introduction: **Problem Definition, People Management Disciplines, Elements of Tripod and Solution, People Management Metaphors, Community Service Contributions, Conclusions and Recommendations.**

3. PROBLEM DEFINITION

The phenomenon of worker productivity has received substantial attention in literature considering its numerous benefits to countries, organizations, and even the employees. Above all its benefits, workers' productivity is considered as a major driver to organizational success (Hanaysha, 2016). In line with this argument, Asio (2021) stated that an employee's productivity is an asset for any organization, and is equivalent to its success and progress. Asides this core importance of productivity, it is also seen to be instrumental to improving organizational competitive advantage, economic growth, profitability, social progression, and the provision of quality products & services (Giuliano, Mahy, Rycx & Vermeylen, 2017; Hill, Jones & Schilling, 2014; Zeb-Obipi & Ekweozor, 2020). Despite the seeming congruence of views on its importance, same cannot be said of its exact meaning, measures and challenges. This section devotes attention to clarifying these.

3.1 Definition of worker productivity

Hirt (2011) described productivity as the result of the effort exerted by an individual worker. Similarly, Hanaysha (2016) opined that employee productivity is an evaluation of how efficient a worker or group of workers are. For Agoro (1991) it means the output per unit of production factor input over a given period of time. Whether productivity is viewed from an individual or group of worker's point of view, one constant in the meanings deduced from the definitions offered by these scholars is that, it is measured via two major variables: output (result) and input (efforts, resources). Also, one important contextual element required in measuring worker's productivity is time frame. Hence, productivity is seen to be low if the input exceeds output over a given period of time. Invariably, productivity is said to be favorable when the output surpasses the input at a given time.

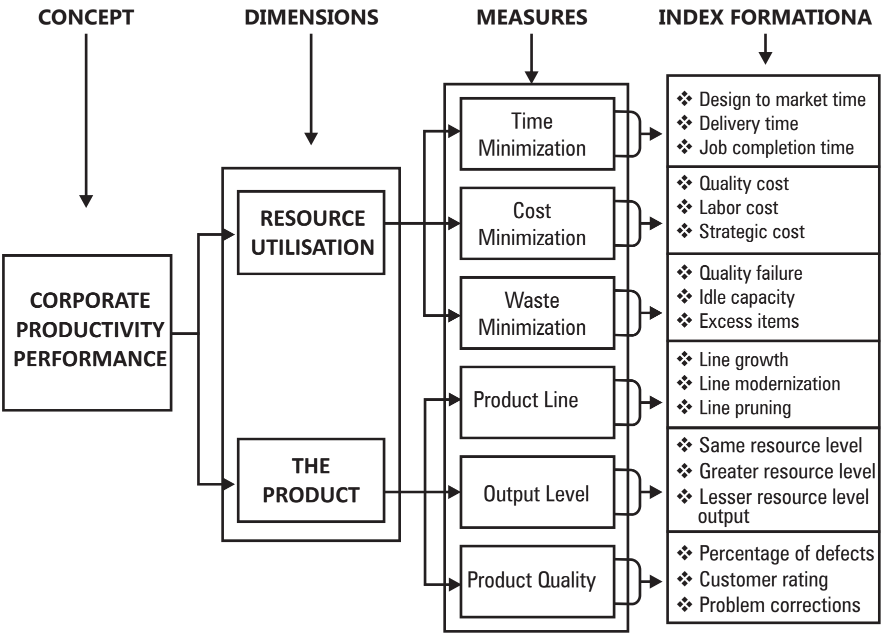

Fig. 1: Measuring Corporate Productivity Performance
Source: Zeb-Obipi (2007a: 102)

Yesuf (1962) asserts that productivity is the ratio between output and all the resources (capital, labour, raw materials) used in production; but that worker productivity is the proficient use of manpower time (hours) to carry out significant and relevant tasks that drive revenue and contribute to achieving the goals of a given organization. It is the quantity and quality of output produced by an organizational worker in a specific period or within an appropriate time scale. Worker productivity is the amount of labor input needed to produce a unit of output. Krugman (1994) affirmed that productivity is measured by the "Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per hour worked". Robbins as cited in Zeb-Obipi (2015a; 2007a) mentioned that productivity encompasses both effectiveness and efficiency of a firm's human resources; and this is in tandem with the position of Bhatti and Qureshi (2007) that productivity is a performance measure that includes effectiveness and efficiency.

Our major contribution here was to offer measures of productivity that can be associated easily with the efforts of people at work and relevant to Organizational Behavior (Zeb-Obipi, 2015a; 2007a). Two concepts of productivity were first examined: **Financial Performance** involving the measurement of objectives through financial indicators (profitability, output volume, and growth) mainly for reporting purposes by "financialists" and **Strategic Performance** involving the measurement of strategies using strategic indicators (competitiveness, reputation and long-term business position) mainly for driving performance by "strategists" (Frost, 2004; Thompson & Strickland, 2001; Daft, 2001). These were found inadequate by some scholars; more so both can be complementary. This is the position of those we referred to as the "Harmonists" (Zeb-Obipi, 2015a).

For these scholars, objectives and strategies should be measured, financial and strategic performance measures should be employed, and performance measurement should both report and drive performance. They account for the emergence of the performance concept of **Balanced Scorecard** and the discipline of Business

Performance Measurement-BPM (Kellen, 2003; Armstrong, 2001). Criticisms also followed the balanced scorecard performance concept; and at this stage of the debate, we turned to two other concepts of performance: **Effective Performance** (achieving set targets) and **Efficient Performance** (achieving set targets with minimum resources). It was with these two our concept of Corporate Productivity Performance that is now in wide use, and in some cases misuse, was designed as shown in Figure 1. While the **Product dimension** defines effective performance that includes efforts' failure percentage in relation to defects, the **Resource Utilization** dimension indicates efficient performance.

3.2 Problems of worker productivity

The problem of worker productivity is that it (productivity) has not been as high as it is desired or possible in Nigeria as evident in the low national productivity growth rate declared by Eyo Nsa Ekpo, the Chairman of the Governing Council, the National Productivity Centre (Olayinka, 2021). The concern is further deepened by the assertion of Dokpesi (2022) that labor productivity is low in Nigeria as compared to other countries such as America, Russia, Brazil and Turkey. For instance, according to Adeola (2005), between 1961 and 2000, labor productivity in Nigeria declined as a percentage of that of America from 6% to 2%. Furthermore, between 1962 and 2000, Nigeria recorded a 44% decline in total productivity growth. A number of factors account for the level of worker productivity in Nigeria. There are negative and positive factors that affect worker productivity in Nigeria. Our interest is on those that cause low productivity. This is in tandem with the focus on the challenges or impediments to worker productivity that are dissolvable for a solution. Again, in line with the thought of "two-sides of the same coin", flipping the negative causes suggests the positive factors that influence worker productivity. In reference, therefore, are elements that deter a worker from expending the time and efforts needed to be effective and efficient, nay to be productive (Zeb-Obipi, 2007a).

There are a number of studies that have brought to the fore factors that negatively affect productivity in the Nigerian workplace such as poor workplace environment, lack of human capital development, poor management style, poor employee welfare, poor reward system, lack of knowledge transferability, poor communication, etc. (Attah, 2017; Asio, 2021; Gikonyo, 2017; Olayinka, 2021). For instance, it is known that most public servants engage in other side businesses, with complaints of insufficient salary, non-reward for performance, low incentives, lack of promotion, and increased work pressure. They complain about work overload, and in some cases work underload, alongside a monthly salary that is insufficient to carter for their needs; therefore, they resort to other means of surviving and living up to expectations and family demands. These result in unsatisfactory work-ethics and negative attitude at the workplace such as: nonchalant attitude to work, skipping important meetings, lateness to work, rudeness to co-workers or senior management staff and unwillingness to take initiative or responsibility. Indeed, the literature on the challenges of workers is very diverse. To impose some order in examining them, a framework of three categories of factors is discussed here, namely: *Unaligned ability-job fit, negative work attitude and toxic work environment*.

Unaligned Ability-Job Fit: Every job or task requires skills in varying degrees and combinations. At the point of Human Resource Procurement, an alignment of the competence of a prospective employee and that required by the job is anticipated. Where there is a disconnect between the skill and the task or job to be done, a skill mismatch occurs (Proctor & Dutta, 1995). Pitan and Adedeji (2012) argued that skill mismatch is the difference between an employee's competence and the required or expected job competence. Similarly, Akkaya (2021) postulated that skill mismatch is the discrepancy that occurs between the skills of a job applicant or individual worker (supply of skills) and the job requirements (demand for skills). It defines the relationship between the ability of a worker and the ability requirements of a job. This relationship could be a Fit Deficit, Fit Surplus, Fit sync or Fit zero (inclusive skill mismatch). Except in the case of a Fit Sync, a skill mismatch or unaligned ability-job fit results from the other three.

This is Akkaya's (2021) point when he argued that skill mismatch can either be in the form of over skill or under skill. This scholar further emphasizes that when there is an imbalance or discrepancy between a worker's skill and the job-required skill, there is an occurrence of either over skilling or under skilling. While over skilling on one hand occurs when a worker has more skills than the job requires, under skilling on the other hand, occurs when a worker's current skills fall short of the job-required skills. An extreme case of the latter that has been a major trigger of low productivity in developing countries like Nigeria is **inclusive skill mismatch** that occurs when an individual worker does not possess the job-required skills at all. Herein lies the challenge of poor or unaligned ability-job fit which relates to the problems of competence, training and development or human capital development.

It has been established that poor ability-job fit or skill mismatch is capable of distorting worker's expectations and productivity. A number of studies have demonstrated how skill mismatch has affected three employee related bottom lines (earnings, satisfaction and productivity). For the correlation between skill mismatch and worker's earnings, Allen et al. (2013), using numeracy and literacy skills, established that skill level positively correlates with a worker's wages or earning. Relating skill mismatch with worker's satisfaction, Sloane (2014) identified that there is a negative correlation between under skilling (Fit Deficit) and job satisfaction just as over-skilling (Fit Surplus) leads to lower job satisfaction. For the correlation between skill mismatch and productivity, most studies found an indirect relationship between skill mismatch and productivity emanating from job satisfaction (Deepa, Palaniswamy & Kuppusamy, 2014; De Castro, Cheng, Montenegro & Pelmonte 2015). These studies specifically recorded low productivity levels resulting from low job satisfaction attributable to skill mismatch. Similarly, Pitan and Adedeji (2012) established that skill mismatch negatively affects organizational productivity depending on the degree to which the lacking skills are important in the production process. Sulieman (2013) also opined that there is a negative relationship between skill gap and job satisfaction, capable of affecting performance.

With the results of these and similar studies, it suffices to assert that poor ability-job fit or skill mismatch is a major challenge to worker productivity in Nigeria. This is particularly so because of the result of the prevalent workers' skill mismatch issue found in the country. Unfortunately, it has been given impetus by cultural, religious and tribal nepotism that characterize employment in Nigeria; ultimately leading to low productivity, and a more serious issue- brain drain. In addition to this, another driver of skill mismatch in Nigeria is the issue of lack of training and development. According to Pigors and Pigors (1987), skills are developed through training and practice, therefore lack of these will definitely result to a skill gap equivalent to any of the skill mismatches discussed here. For Nassazi (2013), training and development is a function of human resource management that is used to fill the gap between current and expected performance. It is an organized activity, planned and systematic, aimed at imparting information and instructions to enhance the level of workers' competence in terms of their knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Training and development, alternatively referred to as Human Resource or Capital Development, entails the practices in the areas of employee education, manpower training and management development that make employees competent enough to perform their set tasks to the best of their ability and within standards set by the organization. This it does by preparing workers for their job function in ways that increase their commitment level in addition to their competence and reciprocity levels (Zeb-Obipi & Kpurunee, 2021; Iroanwusi & Zeb-Obipi, 2019). The more prepared workers are, the more productive they are likely to be. Untrained workers lack the prerequisite competences in handling expected duties. An employee has to thoroughly understand his job roles and everything the job entails; therefore, he needs 'role specific instructions'and 'advanced domain-level training'. Malaolu and Ogbuabor's (2013) study findings show that training and manpower development significantly enhance worker proficiency and job productivity in the bank. Anggiani's (2017) study revealed that skillful and knowledgeable workers are necessary for productivity. The more trained or developed workers are, the more effective and efficient they will be. Hence, Zeb-Obipi (2007a) posited that competences and how they are managed affect worker productivity. Next is the second categories of factors that account for low worker productivity.

Negative Work Attitude: Zeb-Obipi (2012) has observed that work attitude is one of four concepts of work experiences workers go through; the other three being work values, work moods and work competence. Though it shares some similarity elements with these (as is the case where it defines the affective domain of worker competence or the new conception of the "A" in SKA), he defined it as the range of beliefs, feelings and thoughts/intentions a worker has about his job and organization. Thus, it has three components: cognitive, affective and intent components. According to him, there are four popular and major kinds of work attitudes that are closely related at the work place, namely: (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) Job Involvement, (c) Organizational Commitment, and (d) Organizational Citizenship. Any other conception of work attitude is either an indicator, a variety or an opposite of one or more of these. He argued that work attitudes are acquired both through nature and nurture and could be described within a positive-negative or high-low continuum. So using the four basic types of work attitudes, Zeb-Obipi (2012) asserted the relationship between work attitude and productivity thus:

(a) When workers are satisfied, they tend to be prompt in their services, avoid idle time, and produce more with the same level of resources.

(b) When involved, they tend to reduce their job completion time, reduce cost in their operations, and increase the extent/depth of services rendered.

(c) When committed, they tend to attract better customer ratings for the organization, help streamline services, and ensure that their organization attains competitive advantage.

(d) When they become organizational citizens, they target zero defects- correcting problems, avoid quality failures, improve processes and check weigh-downs on the organization.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1974), attitude is either a positive or negative feeling towards an object or situation, picked from experience that causes a specific behavior. Generally, work attitude is the most evident behavior indicator perceived in an organization but stimulated by certain factors, which could be satisfying or dissatisfying, each leading to either positive or negative behavioral outcomes (Othman & Sulieman, 2013). In a nutshell, Ogilo, Elenwo, Awajiteleyem and Ojofeitimi (2020) explained that, attitude demonstrates the manner an employee feels in a given situation, which to an extent reflects how the worker feels towards the employer, colleagues and his position in the organization. Consequently, understanding the behaviors and attitudes workers exhibit in the workplace becomes a critical management objective. As opined by Ogilo *et al.* (2020), every worker has attitudes towards his or her job role, task, co-workers, management (organization), working environment, expected goals, and work processes. Where a worker's attitude negates any of these, the attitude is described as a negative or poor work attitude (Zeb-Obipi, 2012); and such manifests as lateness, sluggishness, laziness, absenteeism, rudeness, wastages, errors, **out of duty post, idleness, work evasion, insubordination,**

hostility, harassment, poor performance and many other despondent behaviors or activities that are detrimental to both employee and organizational outcomes. Another applicable concept for these is deviant behavior (Obibhunun, 2018).

Consequently, studies have established that poor and negative work attitudes or deviant behavior trigger inefficiency or low productivity (Ogilo *et* al., 2020; Othman & Suleiman, 2013). Similarly, these studies have found that employees usually put up positive attitudes when they are happy and satisfied. This means that productivity is a function of the attitude an employee exhibits towards his job, co-workers and organization. More specifically, a positive attitude will imply satisfaction, readiness and excitement to work while negative attitude on the other hand indicates dissatisfaction which leads to insubordination, laziness, lateness, absenteeism, errors, low performance, etc. Typical to the Nigerian worker, particularly those of the public sector, these poor and negative work attitudes have become the norm and order of the day. For instance, Former President Shehu Shagari in an address given at the convocation of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka in 1984, described Nigerian workers as ones with the worst work attitudes in the world (Arrey, 2013). Arrey (2013) generally identified the Nigerian worker to have nonchalant attitude to work and this attitude, which has continued to worsen (Sueliman, 2013), negatively affects the productivity of the workers.

A variety of factors that account for negative work attitude have been put forward and subsequent measures for promoting positive work attitude. In Das and Baruah's (2013) framework, the antecedents of negative work attitudes are in three dimensions: physical, social and mental dimensions. According to these scholars, the physical dimension includes compensation, work condition, job security, training & development and career advancement opportunities. The mental dimension refers to the job content, work load & hour, and competence. The social dimension includes the work relationship, supervisory support and work life balance. Each of these dimensions may, however, have varying degrees of influence on attitudinal outcomes. Elements across these three dimensions relate to what could be seen as a fourth dimension: the personality of the worker. Perhaps, personality trait should be included as a fourth category of dimensions of antecedents of work attitude because it could give superior explanations and credence to the reason employees who find themselves in similar job content exhibit different attitudes towards the job, co-workers and organizations. With this dimension, it is posited that there are four sets of determinants of work attitude: Physical, Social, Mental and Personality factors and their interplay is evident in the work environment. Now to the third category of determinants of the unsatisfactory levels of worker productivity.

Toxic Work Environment: The environment of a business is one minus the business and consists of factors outside the business which imping on the functioning of the business. This definition suggests the inadequacy inherent in concepts like "internal environment" and "external environment" of a business. For every business, an environment is already external. Where the intended distinction is between internal and external factors that affect a business, it seems more appropriate to use the terms business climate and business environment respectively. In the case of the latter, there are three possible concepts: (i) General or P-PEST concept where a business environment is defined in terms of its components such as physical, politico-legal, economic, socio-cultural and technological environment; (ii) Publics or task concept wherein a business environment is defined in terms of its publics such as customers, competitors, suppliers, government and host communities; and (iii) SWOT concepts wherein a business environment is defined in terms of its dimensions of strength, weakness, opportunity and threat giving rise to either a simple or complex environment (number of factors), stable or dynamic environment (frequency of changes) and placid or turbulent environment (number of factors and frequency of changes).

In accordance with the foregoing line of thought, one can talk of the environment of a worker when the worker, rather than the business, is the focus. In this instance, the business climate becomes an employee's work environment- factors external to him at the work place that he must relate with in carrying out his work. Kohun (1992) has defined work environment as the entirety of forces, actions and influential factors that employees potentially contend with to carry out their task activities. A work environment includes structural elements such as ventilation, furniture, lighting and office equipment (physical environment). It also includes the organization's work climate comprising work design, work process, work conditions and work tools. Working condition represents workers' state of well-being and satisfaction in relation to their physical, mental, social and cultural circumstances; encompassing their health, safety and security (physical and job security) concerns. Opperman (2002) asserted that a typical work environment is a composition of three major environments which are: the technical environment (infra-structure, tools, equipment, technology, and other tangible or technical elements), the organizational environment (procedures, practices, values, philosophies, policies/ compensation, culture), and the human environment (co-workers, subordinates, superiors, team and work groups, communication approach, leadership or management). Literature also suggests a social environment with three dimensions: social programmes, social infrastructure and social support (Zeb-Obipi and Agade, 2018; Agada and Zeb-Obipi, 2018; Agada, 2019). Our final thought on the attempts to adequately conceptualize the work environment with the worker as the object of focus is that there are three types of work environments: *Physical environment* (infrastructure, equipment and technology), *Leadership environment* (culture, policies and styles) and *Social environment* (work relations, support and security).

The work environment is considered a key influencing factor of worker productivity (Ajala, 2012). According to Akinyele (2009), about 80% of issues related to productivity in the Nigerian workplace emanate from the work environment. This scholar further asserted that many organizations in Nigeria have failed in their efforts in addressing productivity problems because they focused on skill acquisition (competence) instead of improving their work environments. Each of the aforementioned aspects of work environment has its degree of influence on worker's performance and productivity. For instance, Opperman (2012) explained that a work environment that allows informal interaction creates opportunity for effective exchange of ideas and a basis for maximizing productivity while a work environment that encourages reward for efforts and output will increase workers' effort to increase output. Also, a work environment that employs the use of modern technology in production will record higher output from the workers, and a work environment that is physically conducive will encourage employees to work harder. To show the effect of work environment on productivity, Kyko (2005) provided another important way of categorizing work environment based on worker-acceptancy level thus: the conducive and toxic work environments. According to him, while the former elicits pleasurable experiences to employees and provokes behavioral tendencies for goal actualization in them, the later on the other hand, elicits dissatisfying experiences that bring about low self-actualizing behaviors that ultimately lead to low productivity in workers; and the latter is what has been described as a toxic or negative work environment.

According to Kyko (2005), a toxic work environment has opaque management, biased boss, poor company policies, poor work conditions, unclear interpersonal relationship, and unfair pay. Studies carried out within the Nigerian context have established that these variables are attributed to the Nigerian work places; accounting for a dominant negative work environment. A negative working environment is characterized by unprofessional act or behavior, ineffective communication, punitive practices or policies and strained relationships between workers and leaders of an organization. For instance, when a superior staff of an organization micromanages or undermines a junior worker, takes credit for his work performance and speaks negatively about him, it leads to decline in employee mental agility, work quality and productivity. According to Amble (2005), negative work environment can result to lower business performance and higher level of stress experienced by workers. At different levels in an organization, workers are faced with a number of operational and organizational challenges where they are expected to invest time and energy; however, in a negative working environment they basically refuse to invest and this ultimately creates challenges for the organization and slows down their productivity. In contrast, when a conducive work environment is provided for workers, it boosts their willingness to contribute to the overall growth of the organization. Comfort in the workplace is necessary to retain quality workers, increase productivity and maintain a competitive edge (Saha, 2016). It is crucial to increase the comfort level of workers to increase profit for organizations and society at large. A conducive workplace can increase worker satisfaction, motivation and retention. It can also influence the level of knowledge and skills of workers, and how they respond (with innovation and creativity) to business. According to Gutnick (2007), the design of the workplace is a significant driver in reducing employee stress; and a healthy work environment involves transparency, co-operation, teamwork and accomplishment. Consequently, for any business to thrive, these must be put in place.

Given the link between productivity on one hand and on the other hand, commitment, work tools (technology- artificial intelligence, virtualization, social media etc.), leadership and compensation, studies (Ibiyeomie & Zeb-Obipi, 2021; Zeb-Obipi and Agada, 2018; Zeb-Obipi and Ekweozor, 2020; Zeb-Obipi & Irabor-Ighedosa, 2020a) have shown that work environment affects productivity or performance. However, leadership is the most influential element of the work environment given its potential to not only effect other aspects of the work environment but also the competence and attitude problems at the workplace earlier mentioned. Leadership, according to Zeb-Obipi (2011), is crucial or critical to every organization and society as it is responsible not only for the wellbeing of the organization and society and the achievement of their objectives, but also for some problems and even how problems get solved. It has attracted several research attentions due to its role in organizational performance and success (Ibiyeomie & Zeb-Obipi, 2021). Subsequently, it has been known to be a critical variable in the productivity objective of every organization.

Leadership as defined by Andersen (2016) is a process of influencing people so as to achieve certain desired result or outcomes. Ibiyeomie and Zeb-Obipi (2021) defined leadership as a process through which an individual stimulates the way others think, feel and behave by taking responsibility to offer direction to them. For Zeb-Obipi (2011), leadership is the process in which a person or group of persons influences others to achieve goals over time; and it has the following definitional elements:

(a) The followed (leader or leaders): A person who has the responsibility to influence others towards the achievement of a common goal through a range of functions such as planning, organizing, directing and controlling.

(b) The followers (others or subordinates): Persons who are influenced by some other person(s) in the pursuit of a common goal through a range of attributes such as loyalty, obedience and service.

(c) Influence (power and authority): An action that compels a change in some other person's behavior, even when such person would not want or make the change, due to the leader's ability to exact influence (power) that could be legitimate, reward, coercive, information, expert, reference and charismatic power.

(d) Values (goals or worthwhileness for the individual and group): The provision of value by a leader to the followers which is the essence of followership, and

(e) Succession (time or posterity element): The possibility of one leader giving way to another over time, task and situations through election, appointment or inheritance.

These definition elements indicate that leaders play major roles in workers' ability to perform. Literature has, however, established that not all leaders are able to play the expected important roles effectively as there exist different types of leadership anchored on different leadership theories (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016; Yahya & Ebrahim, 2016). For instance, Zeb-Obipi (2010a) has discussed four leadership theories that provide diverse ingredients for leadership and account for different leadership styles. These theories include: trait, behavioral, contingency and emerging leadership theories. According to him, the trait and behavioral theories propose that the ingredients of effective leadership are in the traits and behaviors of the leader; and that the best way to lead lies in some traits and behaviors of the leader. The contingency theories, however, propose that there is no one best way to lead as effective leadership depends on the interaction between the leader and situational characteristics which are susceptible to variations. The emerging transformational and transactional theories propose that the best way to lead is that which inspires and motivates followers to perform at a high level.

Specifically, some of the studies established that there is a relationship between transformational leadership and behavioral outcome. For they found that both transformational and transactional leaders influence employee attitude and organizational productivity positively while a laissez-faire leadership style which is seen as the least effective, has a negative influence on performance outcomes and productivity (Yahya & Ebrahim, 2016). Similarly, Ajibade, Ajayi & Shobowale (2017) concluded that the success or failure of an organization is dependent on the style of leadership adopted by their leaders. In addition, Kozak and Uca (2008) opined that management style helps in improving work relationships, organizational climate and workers' productivity; and there are interesting statistics on these and other factors as they affect worker productivity.

3.3 Statistics on Worker Productivity

Being productive is a concern for individuals, organizations and nations. It is the concern to produce the desired quantity and quality of goods and services, to satisfy stakeholders, and meet corporate social responsibilities, in some cases, with their respective implications. Consequent upon these concerns, there are frequent and regular studies undertaken to determine the levels and determinants of worker productivity which has been also variously referred to as employee or labor productivity. Indeed, workplace productivity is affected by a variety of factors: everyday tools used, people around and even office temperature (Mcquire, 2019). The range of determinants seems inexhaustible by any one study. There are studies or reports of studies that reference twelve determinants (Buuri, 2015), nineteen factors (Asio, 2021), twenty-one statistics (Dimovski, 2021) and fifty statistics (SoftActivity Team, 2022). In Asio's (2021) frame of reference, they include: Team Management, Productivity Measurement, Performance Management, Demographic Profile (Gender, Age, Marital/Civil Status, Educational Attainment, Length of Service, Work Unit), Environment, Retirement Plan, Disabilities, Form of Business Ownership (Foreign ownership), Work Attire, Sense of Self-efficacy, Employee Participation and Management Styles. To report the statistics on some of these and others, a four by four categorization will be employed with content sourced from the works of Soft Activity Team (2022), Dimoski (2021) and Mcquire (2019).

Productivity Level, Meetings, Interruptions and Multitasking Statistics: The productivity of an average worker is 2 hours and 53 minutes per day; approximately 3 hours per day. 79% of employees have admitted not being truly productive for an entire 8-hour workday as they work less than 3 hours per day (Soft Activity Team, 2022). Part of the reasons for this poor statistics on productivity is the increase in meetings, interruptions and multitasking. The 2022 statistics show that meetings have increased by 69.7% since February, 2020 and one-on-one meetings have increased by over 500% since before the pandemic. Employees are interrupted every 3 minutes and 5 seconds and it takes them about 23 minutes to refocus after interruptions. For 2021, employees got interrupted about 7 times within one work hour; with each interruption taking up about 5 minutes and occurs once in every 8 minutes. These have led to a decrease in average work productivity as it means that in an 8-hour working day, a worker loses up to 4 hours to distractions. Hence, a time tracking software has been suggested (Dimovski, 2021). Multitasking has not helped too as it hurts productivity. The statistics show that workers spend 40.1% of their day multitasking. This is inefficient as it reduces productivity by 40%. To address the multitasking problem, Dimovski (2021) suggested the application of the 1-3-5 rule in work routine wherein the most challenging tasks are performed first, then medium level tasks and ending the day with the easiest and smallest tasks.

Employee Engagement, Feedback, Communication and Technology Statistics: Here is another set of variables on which the authors in reference above compiled statistics to explain productivity. While it has been reported that employee engagement results in 21% rise in profit, 81% of workers are not engaged or actively disengaged. Employees with daily feedback are 3 times more likely to be productive compared to employees with once a year feedback. Most employees spend about 5 hours a week waiting for people to get back to them with important information. 80% of employees feel stressed due to ineffective communication. These facts have made organizations seek means of improving engagement, communication and feedback, including the use of gamification, information, communication and work tool technology. 67% of respondents in a survey believed that it would be easier to focus on work if important information from their apps appeared in a single window. Unified communication phone systems provide an average 52% boost in productivity and 25% increase in profit; and 94% of persons surveyed asserted that video conferencing's top benefit is increased productivity. Organizations are increasingly using more modern technological productivity tools, including the Internet of Things capable of bringing about 46% improvement in productivity and Employee Monitoring Software. In 2021, the percentage of such organizations was put at 75%. In fact, 92% of employees claimed that having technology that helps them do their job efficiently affects their work satisfaction. With satisfaction comes happiness which correlates with productivity. Happy and engaged employees are productive employees, and productive employees equal a massive boost in profitability (Dimovski, 2021). 53% of respondents stated that mobile apps as work tools improve business processes and productivity as 42% of respondents also said that the ability to access information quickly and easily had the greatest impact on how productive they were. 89% said gamification intended to engage and motivate employees through the introduction of game elements into work could increase productivity at work.

Work Environment, Office, Work Arrangement and Remote Working Statistics: Another set of productivity explanatory variables with statistics compiled by our reference sources mentioned earlier encompasses these. 53% of workers might be less productive if the work environment (temperature) is too cold for comfort. Open office layout might result in 32% drop in overall wellbeing of workers and 15% reduction in productivity. 81% of HR decision makers believed that allowing pets in the workplace increases productivity; though ridiculous in African setting, it is not so in western countries. 71% of employees said listening to music made them more productive. In terms of work arrangement, although 81% of workers regularly work in teams, 46% of them found working in a team tricky due to different working styles. No wonder that 86% of them preferred to work alone. Another work arrangement that has attracted lots of statistics is remote working. 71% of workers want it as 83% of employees do not believe that they have to work in an office to be productive. 77% of employees report greater productivity while working off-site (outside of the office).

As high as 90% of workers said they were more productive working remotely compared to working at the office and this perhaps accounts for remote companies' ability to hire 33% faster than other companies. More than 2/3 of employers have seen increased productivity among their remote workers and this must have informed the position of 64% of global business leaders that flexible work has a positive impact on productivity. Relatedly, 86% of workers said they were most productive working from home and so did 75% of people who worked from home due to the COVID-19. This is possible given the fact that 52% of workers working from home are less likely to take time off work although only 15% of them are less likely to feel sleepy. This last statistic suggests concerns with remote working. 82% of managers of remote employees are worried about reduced productivity more than the employees' loneness and career prospects (Dimovski, 2021) and so they seek to monitor the employees. However, one out of every three remote employees would be unhappy if monitored. For a balance, employees are 24% happier if they are allowed to work from home even if just once in a month.

Stress, Exercise, Nutrition and Work-Life Balance Statistics: Over 70% of employees worry about stressors during work; and the two major stressors are their job and finance. Employees stressed about their finances are twice likely to spend three hours or more dealing with financial matters rather than their work. 41% of stressed workers think their productivity is negatively affected. This is true because

50% of employees lose one to five hours of work due to stress, 12% of workers have called in sick because of stress and stress related illnesses cost businesses $200 to $300 billion productivity loss. More than $190 billion is estimated to be spent every year to address the physical and psychological effects of burnout consequent upon stress. Fatigue, related to stress, is said to account for productivity losses of about $1,967 per employee each year. Another stress related factor is bullying. From 427 studies, it has been observed that bullying bosses increase counter productive work behavior in workers manifest in their coming in late, taking longer-than-allowed breaks, doing tasks incorrectly, withholding efforts or other forms of deviate behavior. Some ways of addressing stress that have attracted statistical scores are exercise, nutrition, holiday and work-life balance. Replacing 2.5 hours of work with exercise can increase productivity and time management skills by 72%. Proper nutrition can increase job performance by 25% as those who take five fruits and vegetable portions at least four days a week appeared to be more productive than persons who do not. 65% of workers are more productive during holidays (rest period). According to 79% of workers, work flexibility brings about work-life balance. However, 66% of them did not feel they enjoy work-life balance and only 23% of employers thought they encouraged work-life balance.

Our studies in some of the aforementioned areas have shown that: (i) Workplace social environment measured in terms of workplace programmes, infrastructure and support affects employee commitment (Agada, 2019; Zeb-Obipi & Agada, 2018; Agada & Zeb-Obipi, 2018); (ii) Worker competence management involving competence planning, competence development and competence monitoring affects an organization's product lines, output, quality, cost minimization, time minimization and waste minimization (Zeb-Obipi, 2007a; 2016; 2015); (iii) Competence is a route to the attainment of sustainable development (Zeb-Obipi, 2010b); (iv) Negative environmental factors account for business failures (Oparanma, Zeb-Obipi & Hamilton, 2009); (v) The manufacturing sector in Nigeria has been greatly affected by globalization (Oparanma, Hamilton & Zeb-Obipi, 2009); (vi) A PCP (philosophy, content and procedure) model would assist the management of community relations (an environmental element) by companies operating in the Niger Delta (Zeb-Obipi, 2000); other related findings revealed that (i) Using Internet of Things, Neural Networks and Machine Learning as dimensions of Artificial Intelligence, organizations can achieve agility (Zeb-Obipi & Irabor-Ighedosa, 2020a; Zeb-Obipi & Irabor-Ighedosa, 2020b); (ii) Employee productivity is affected by strategic change (Orufa & Zeb-Obipi, 2018); (iii) Peer support influences worker effectiveness (Monday & Zeb-Obipi, 2018); (iv) Organizational family culture (team-based, firm-based and consultative family culture) affects employee involvement (Obiekwe, Zeb-Obipi & Ejo-Orusa, 2019; Obekwe & Zeb-Obipi, 2018; Obiekwe, Zeb-Obipi & Oparanma, 2018); (v) Virtualization (a work organization system) has the capacity to resolve problems of the healthcare system in Rivers State (Zeb-Obipi & Zeb-Obipi, 2021); (vi) Employee commitment is affected by distributional justice (Opiah & Zeb-Obipi, 2021); and (vii) Innovation culture affects corporate performance resulting from workers' contributions (Zeb-Obipi & Maduabuchi, 2021).

4. PEOPLE MANAGEMENT DISCIPLINES

People Management refers to the process of harnessing the contributions of behavioral sciences for planning, organizing, directing and controlling human resource functions to enhance workplace relations for improved work performance. It entails managing people or workers as **human beings**, **social beings** and **"asset beings"** using techniques provided by the behavioral sciences; hence these are its three key dimensions. The lead behavioral science in focus is Organizational Behavior and the fields of its application are Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations. Each of these three disciplines, we have elected to refer to as People Management disciplines, constitutes a leg of our tripod and each is conceived as a solvent within which any worker productivity problem is a solute and thus offering a solution. A precedence to this line of thought is found in the work of the Inaugural Lecturer's lead mentor, renowned intellectual scholar and an African Management Philosopher, Emeritus Professor Augustine Ikechukwu Ahiauzu (1943-2021). In his book, *The African Industrial Man*, autographed for this Lecturer with "Compliments and God's blessings…(on) 31/7/2000", Ahiauzu (1999) explored the influences on the work behavior of the African worker. These influences are employment types, thought systems, work organizational systems, human resource development and industrial relations. Since thought and work organization systems fall within Organizational Behavior, employment type can be taken along with human resource development as being within Human Resource Management and these two taken alongside Industrial Relations as people management disciplines, the concept of people management is found in our *Ahiauzuran* scholarly taproot; hence, the dedication of this work to an academic idol and masquerade. Emeritus Prof. Ahiauzu.

In another perspective, each of these disciplines is a tributary running into the river of people management. Each of them, in their flow, provides solution to people related problems at work or in organizations. It is conceivable to ponder at what each brings to the table to address people work issues by simply finding how each would view the issues in the mode of a binocular and the implication of each binocular view for the solution of the problem. The binocular element is to emphasis the "magnified stereoscopic (and) upright view (of) varying characteristics … for depth perception" (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2022) each provides for the understanding and solution of a people problem in organizations. The relationships suggested as existing amongst these three people management disciplines either from the binocular, tributary or tripod perspective are further indicated in Figure 2.

It has been observed that the problems of modern organizations stem from the way their employees are managed. This, indeed, has been a source of concern to today's society. Luthans (1985) reports several studies that examined public concerns that had shaken managers' confidence. The concerns relate to declining productivity and work values, globalization and competition, workers' perception of work, commitment and performance, etc. While most of the studies set out to find explanations for these concerns, focusing on the employee, Luthans (1985: 60) concludes that “the problem may not be with today's employees, but rather with the way today's employees are managed.” That employees are mismanaged has been a known fact for a long time now and several explanations have been offered. Since the emergence of formal management up till recently, attention of management has been focused more on the technical side to the neglect of the conceptual and human dimensions of management. Attention paid to the human aspect of management has been usually based on simplistic assumptions. The frame of reference for thesearguments encompasses the classical and neo-classical theories of management (Jaja & Zeb-Obipi, 2005).

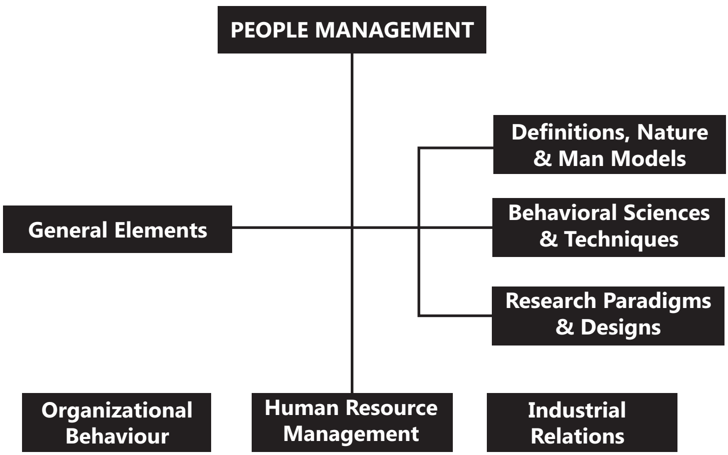

Fig. 2: Component Disciplines of People Management in Organizations
Source: Author (2022)

Another set of explanations for the mismanagement of employees is what has been described as "the prevalent number-crunching, short-terming, return-on-investment perspective of managers" (Luthans, 1985: 61). Managers often lay emphasis on profit maximization rather than the good of the employees, community and economy. They go for short-term gains and prefer actions that yield quick and visible results that could be measured in cash; but business and management are not all just about cash. This managerial fixation on return-on-investment that turns them away from humanistic management is not helped by their "self-serving attitude" (Luthans 1985:61). Managers tend to manage for their own goal and glory. They put their advancement ahead of their organizations. They even seek to create a world of their own against the worlds of employees and their organizations. These make managerial behavior the single most important determinant of what happens to employees and organizations. It is, therefore, not surprising that it has been declared that: "No job is more vital to our society than that of the manager. It is the manager who determines whether our social institutions serve us well or whether they squander our talents and resources" (Mintzberg: Kreitner & Kinicki 2001:6)

Interestingly, the problems of employee mismanagement, neglect of the human side of management, simplistic assumptions of human management, managerial fixation and managerial self-service have become issues of interest to a field of study referred to as behavioral sciences, specifically Organizational Behaviour. The focus of this discipline is human behavior in organizations; its method is scientific; and it offers knowledge-based techniques for managing behavior at work (Northcraft and Neale, 1990: 26). According to Miles (1975), the behavioral sciences (Organizational Behaviour) have provided a large number of managerial techniques. These serve as a set of tools that enables: "People to understand, analyze and describe behavior in organizations (and) managers to improve, enhance, or change work behaviors so that individuals, groups, and the whole organization can achieve their goals" (George and Jones, 1996).

Obviously these techniques are expected to be applied for the management of organizations for better performance. This is because they are products of the search, by the behavioral scientist, for solutions and explanations of the human problems of organizations. They represent, or are, the concepts and theories or principles developed for organizations to utilize as techniques or operations in their respective areas. However, it seems that most of these techniques are not applied by organizations. The problems and practices of organizations are numerous and diverse; so are the solutions and explanations offered by the behavioral sciences. As organizations confront one problem or the other, the behavioral sciences offer one solution or another. In fact, it is possible to find multiple and/or alternative solutions to any given organizational problem. This is the basis of the several, sometimes competing, conflicting or complementary, behavioral science techniques available to managers. Take for instance, in the area of leadership. The literature is so dense that one can argue that there are as many leadership techniques as there are leaders or managers, leadership scholars and problems; there are a variety of these techniques, including those that are people-oriented (Ali et al., 2002; Heller & Hindler, 1998; Maxwell, 2005). The problem, however, is: how much of the techniques offered by the behavioral sciences do managers and organizations apply? How are they applied? What is the process of their application? What are the difficulties associated with their application? And what subsequent improvements are made to their applications? The concern as to whether or not organizations or their managers apply the behavioral science techniques, how they apply them and the associated problems is not a strange one. Indeed, it is worrisome that despite the plethora of techniques from the behavioral sciences applicable to the various areas of business today, there is virtually no one area that is free of re-current problems in today's organization. Could it be that the techniques are not being applied, or are they inappropriate to the problems of organizations or are they being applied inappropriately?

These questions indicate that there is a lack of commensurate application of behavioral techniques. The results of the activities of organizations and the persistence of most of their problems despite the volume of available concepts and theories attest to this fact. It is an undesirable situation which researchers have sought to address to engender a change. It has puzzled many a scholar who have attempted to offer explanations and prescriptions. One of such scholars is Miles (1975). Miles (1975) blames managers, behavioral scientists and change for the non-application or inadequate application of the behavioral sciences techniques. So what are these behavioural sciences?

4.1 The Behavioral Sciences

Behavioral Sciences is a term used to describe a wide range of disciplines or fields of study. According to Wikipedia (2005: 1), it "encompasses all the disciplines that explore the behavior and strategies within and between organisms in the natural world (and) involves the systematic analysis and investigation of humans and animal behavior through controlled and naturalistic experimental observations and rigorous formulations". Five definitional elements can be identified from the foregoing description of the Behavioral Sciences. One, it is a collection of disciplines. Two, the disciplines deal with behavior. Three, the behavior of interest is that of both man and animal – organisms in the natural world. Four, its disciplines entail systematic investigation and analysis. Five, its disciplines employ rigorous scientific methods. These definitional elements give the Behavioral Sciences a wide coverage that makes it difficult to have universally acceptable delineation of its categories of disciplines or the specific disciplines it entails. An evidence of the lack of unanimity over the disciplines that constitute the Behavioral Sciences is found on the pages of Wikipedia (2005) site. It argued that there are two broad categories of Behavioral Sciences; namely, Neural-Decision Sciences and Social Communication Sciences.

Decision sciences are disciplines primarily dealing with the decision processes and individual functioning used in the survival of organisms in a social environment; and they include Psychology, Cognitive Organization Theory, Psychobiology, Management Science and Operations Research and Social Neuroscience. Communication Sciences, on the other hand, are those fields that study the communication strategies used by organisms and the dynamic behavior between organisms in an environment. Examples of such fields are Anthropology, Organizational Behavior, Organization Sciences and Social Networks. The term has also been applied to a collation of education, psychology, social work, and cognitive science. The difficulty of having a widely acceptable delineation of the Behavioral Science disciplines is accentuated by its association with the Social Sciences. Though the two terms are interrelated and study systematic processes of behavior, they differ on the level of scientific analysis of various dimensions of behavior. While Behavioral Sciences essentially investigate the decision processes and communication strategies within and between organisms in a social system and involves fields like Psychology and Social Neuroscience among others, the social sciences study the structural level processes of a social system and its impact on social processes and social organization and involves fields like Sociology, Economics and Political science (Wikipedia, 2005). Some scholars will not accept sociology's exclusion from the Behavioral Science disciplines on one hand, and on the hand the exclusion of Psychology from the Social Sciences (Goleman, 2002; Anderson *et al.*, 2001; Luthans, 1985).

If the association of the Behavioral Sciences with the Social Sciences accentuates the problem of delineating the disciplinary scope of the former, its association with the Sciences has not made the delineation less problematic. Perhaps, it is the recognition of these facts that accounts for why some works do not bother to distinguish the Behavioral Sciences from the Social Sciences and Sciences. They shift the emphasis from making distinctions between the Behavioral Sciences on one hand and the Social Sciences and Natural Sciences on the other hand to analyzing the relationships between them. Thus, Kan (Wikipedia, 2005:1) presented Behavioral and Social Sciences as one category of disciplines which include: "sociology, anthropology, demography, economics, educational theory, pedagogies, planning theory, politics, psychology, social geography, criminology and social history". The Anderson *et al* (2001:192) goes beyond its being a Social Science to locate it within the Sciences. According to it, Sciences have four major branches: Mathematics and Logic, Physical Sciences, Life Sciences and Social Sciences. It posits that: "Within these main categories are many smaller groupings of closely related specialties. For example, anthropology, psychology, and sociology are behavioral sciences included in the category of social sciences".

What this means is that the Behavioral Sciences constitute a family of disciplines within the large family of Social Sciences which in turn belong to still a larger family, the Sciences. Unfortunately, even with this conclusion, the matter cannot be laid to rest as a satisfactory delimitation of Behavioral Science and its constituents is still elusive. This is more so because of the way the Sciences have been defined or delineated by some writers on Behavioral Sciences. The inclusion of the Behavioral Sciences into the science category and the inclusion of the humanities in the sciences bring to the fore the association of the behavioral sciences with the humanities – a further source of complicating the problem of delineating the field of the behavioral sciences.

Table 1: Categories of the Sciences

NATURAL SCIENCES			
Physical Sciences	Chemical Sciences	Biological Sciences	Cognitive Sciences
BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES			
Neural- Decision Sciences		Social -Communication Sciences	
Psychology including Social Psychology	Cognitive Organization Theory	Anthropology	Organizational Behavior
Psychobiology	Management Science and Operations Research	Organization Science & Psycho-Economics	Social Networks
Social Neuroscience	Ethology	Memetics	Organizational Ecology
SOCIAL SCIENCES			
Sociology	Economics	Political Science	Economic sociology

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Behavioral_sciences (2005:2)

Kristiansen (Wikipedia: 2005) referred to two approaches to classifying the Sciences: subject-matter, and research objective and method approaches. In terms of the disciplines' subject-matter, there are two major groups of Sciences: Natural Sciences and Humanities. In terms of the disciplines' research objective and method, Science can be either nomothetic or ideographic. While the nomothetic sciences “aim at describing universal regularity by abstracting characteristics features of individual phenomena”, the ideographic sciences aim at retaining the specific features of individual phenomena even in their aggregation rather than abstracting from them to focus on universality. Kristiansen (2005) stated that a typical representative of the nomothetic sciences is the Natural Science. According to this scholar, the reference to Behavioral Sciences as a term "increasingly used for the disciplines cited as 'social sciences' (and) which generally include economics, political sciences, sociology, and social psychology" suggest that behavioral science is an example of the ideographic sciences. But to properly locate the Behavioral Sciences, Kristiansen (Wikipedia, 2005:4) argued thus:

> The behavioral sciences are based on studies and knowledge of actual behavior where empirical and interpretative research methods are applied. If the traditional division of the natural sciences and the humanities is used, the behavioral sciences may be positioned between the two groups. Based on their research objects, they can be seen as belonging to the humanities, where as their methods may be more typical for the natural sciences. Thus, they will have features that are characteristics of both ideographic and nomothetic sciences.

The Wikipedia (2005:1) page on the Behavioral Sciences also made a similar argument, relating the Behavioral Sciences to other disciplines. Having categorized the Behavioral Sciences into Neural-Decision and Social Communication Sciences, the page presented them as "integrative sciences" thus:

> Neural-Decision Sciences form the bridge between the behavioral sciences and cognitive and natural sciences including through the interaction of bio-physical systems and cognitive processes in decision making of the organism. (The) Social-Communication Sciences form the link between behavioral sciences and social sciences through the interaction of individual cognitive and communication strategies and social-structure process. Thus behavioral sciences lie at the cross-road between the natural sciences and social sciences, linking broad areas of scientific exploration.

To illustrate what we wish to describe as the "Cross-road" location (mid-point location) of the Behavioral Sciences, Wikipedia (2005: 2) presents a table, we have chosen to label as the categories of the sciences as in Table 1. However, a more appropriate illustrative presentation of the relationship between the Behavioral Sciences on one hand and the natural and social sciences on the other hand as identified in the above table is as displayed in Figure 3 using the concept of nexus.

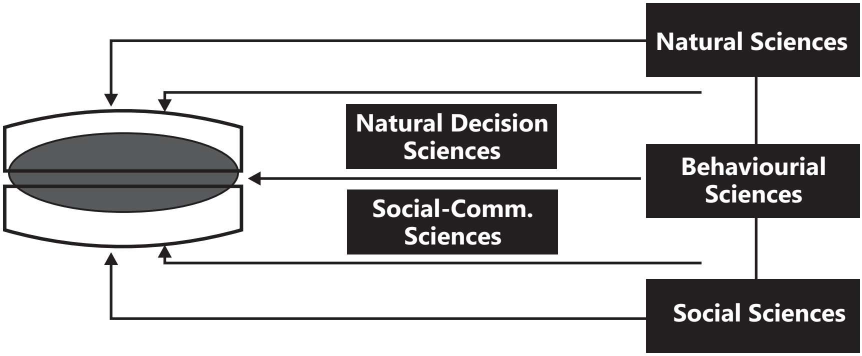

Fig.3: Behavioural Sciences as the Nexus of the Natural and Social Sciences

Source: Zeb-Obipi (2005:28)

We have so far developed and followed three viewpoints or lines of argument namely that: *(i) Behavioural Sciences is a term used to describe a wide range of disciplines; (ii) its coverage is so wide that it makes it difficult to have a universally acceptable delineation of its constituents; and (iii) this delineation difficulty is accentuated by its association or relationship with the Natural Sciences, Social Sciences and Humanities*. To find our way through this difficulty, it is necessary to examine two more related points of view. In fact, they are consequent upon the first three stated earlier. Its wide coverage, difficulty of specifying exactly the disciplines within it and association with the Natural Sciences, Social Sciences and Humanities make a precise definition of it not easy to obtain.

According to Goleman (2002: 1195), Behavioural Sciences refer to "academic disciplines such as sociology and psychology that relate to the study of the way in which humans conduct themselves". Hersey and Blanchard (1996:16) offered three descriptions of them as fields of study. To them, a behavioural science is a field of study that:

(a) attempts to bring together from a variety of disciplines, those concepts, theories and research that may be useful to people in making decisions about the behaviour of individuals and groups;

(b) integrates concepts and theories and the results of empirical studies from the areas of cultural anthropology, economics, political science, psychology, sociology and social psychology … (and) borrows from other areas such as engineering, physics, quantitative analysis and statistics; and

(c) attempts to integrate all of those areas or disciplines that can be useful to practitioners in better understanding, predicting and having an impact on the behaviour of individuals and groups.

What an unwieldy definition or description of a discipline or field of disciplines? Perhaps, the unwieldy coverage, hardly definable disciplinary boundary, multiple relationships with other disciplines and lack of a precise definition account for the controversy over its status as an academic discipline. The controversy runs thus: Is Behavioural Science a discipline or a family of disciplines? What is its position in the classification of disciplines or in the universe of knowledge? These questions were part of an on-going debate on the web. One of the contributors to this debate was Kristiansen (Wikipedia, 2005). Kristiansen assessed its disciplinary autonomy through a 'terminological conceptual analysis" to ascertain whether Behavioural Science constitutes a discipline and whether it can be considered autonomous. Kristiansen developed a terminological conceptual framework and a set of sociological and epistemological criteria. While the sociological criteria include the existence of a core group of researchers, common communication channels, separate conferences and meetings, association or institutions and training curricular and courses, the epistemological criteria include a separate research object, separate research methods, an independent theory development and a common conceptual apparatus. Using terminological analysis on the epistemological set of criteria upon the behavioural science discipline of Organizational Behaviour (OB) as an example, Kristiansen provided us with several conclusions on the disciplinary status of the Behavioural Sciences.

Let us briefly state our inferences from the contributions of Kristiansen to the debate (Wikipedia, 2005). First, the Behavioural Sciences are a family of science-based disciplines. As a family of disciplines, it encompasses Psychology, Anthropology, Sociology, Organizational Behaviour etc. Its constituents consist of different concepts, theories and sub-areas; nevertheless, they share a common core, behaviour. It has emerging disciplines that have come to swell the family; and though an emerging discipline aims at distinguishing itself from its mother discipline(s), it will be more or less closely related to the mother discipline(s). Similarly, many behavioural science disciplines are young, and so have a relatively high number of scientific approaches depending on the level of the disciplines' crystallization. Second, as a field of academic enquiry, it has its disciplines (e.g. psychology and anthropology), sub-areas or subjects (e.g. physical and cultural anthropology in anthropology), a research object (human beings) and scientific approaches giving rise to different schools of thought, scientific concepts and terms. In all these areas, the "behavioural sciences are highly interrelated… with overlapping sub areas (so much so that it is) difficult to define clearly the boarders between two behavioural science disciplines, which indicates the existence of family resemblance or prototype structures" (Kristiansen: Wikipedia, 2005:7). Third, the Behavioural Sciences "comprise research activities that are related by a definite research area, accepted methods, and well-defined criteria for theory construction." (Kristiansen: Wikipedia, 2005). All the disciplines of the Behavioural Sciences have developed well-defined research programmes, including disciplines such as Organizational Behaviour. Despite their internally and externally overlapping sub-areas, each has unique areas of research interest. Since this is a requirement to being a discipline, a Behavioural Science is a discipline.

At this point of the controversy over the discipline status of the Behavioural Sciences, there seems to be a general acceptance of the Behavioural Sciences as a unique or "SPECIAL" discipline. What is in contention is whether it is a "top-level category" discipline. This was an issue that also engaged the attention of editors of the "Talk: List of academic disciplines" page on the web (Wikipedia, 2005). One editor, Robin Klein, lists the Behavioural Sciences on the same analytical plane with the Humanities, Social Sciences and Natural Sciences. The editor's arguments in support of this position could be stated thus: (a) large amount of publications and contributions to peer reviewed journals under the "FUNDAMENTAL STATUS of behavioural sciences"; (b) existence of institutions named after, and dedicated to, the Behavioural Sciences: (c) wide usage of the term by encyclopedia and journals which together with relevant associations define disciplines; (d) treatment of Behavioural Sciences as special enough to warrant a separate level of classification by recent researchers; and (e) wide acceptance of the Behavioural Sciences as a category of science determined by in-depth research over a long time undertaken by scientists and published by journals that consider the Behavioural Sciences as a distinct category of Science. Another editor criticized Klein's list of disciplines, questioning making the Behavioural Sciences a fundamental category of disciplines (parallel to the) Natural Sciences, Humanities and Social Sciences. In fact, this editor considered doing so as "a 'promotion of behavioural sciences' (that amounts to) academic boosterism", using arguments that could be described as follows: (a) it is not a common practice in major institutions to grant the Behavioural Sciences such a status;

(b) most of the Behavioural Science disciplines are administered in a school or division of the Social Sciences, Humanities or Natural Sciences; (c) it is just another discipline like Earth Science and Literature for which arguments similar to the 'pro-fundamental category arguments' could be made; (d) it is only a subclass of Sciences, though widely accepted, is not a subclass of academic inquiry of the nature of the three broad categories known “since the rise of the university in the Middle Ages”; and (e) it is a rough synonym of the Social Sciences.

Now, the problems of **unwieldy coverage, hardly distinguishable disciplines' boundaries, multiple interface with other disciplines, lack of a precise definition and controversy over its discipline status could be solved through a contextual approach**. This approach entails defining the Behavioural Sciences within a given context, delineating and narrowing its fields in relation to that context, and using these to assert its status as a discipline and its relationship with other specific and broad disciplines. This seems to be the approach in the works of some Behavioural Scientists or authors in management or organizational theories. For instance, Mullins (1996: 4) declares that:

> The word 'behavioural science' has no strict scientific definition. It may be used as a collective term for the grouping of all the social sciences concerned with the study of people behaviour. However, it is now more frequently used to refer to attempts to apply a selective, interdisciplinary approach to the study of human behaviour. In particular, the term is often taken as applying more narrowly and specifically to problems of organization and management in the work environment.

Within the context of organizational studies and management, the term Behavioural Sciences refer to a multidisciplinary field that studies behaviour using rigorous empirical methods. Because there are several of such fields, the term "behavioural sciences" is reserved for the collection of these fields while the term "behavioural science" describe one of such fields and serves as an adjective. Given this definition and restrictive use of the term, the behavioural science fields of study include Psychology, Anthropology, Sociology, Organizational Behaviour, Organizational Theory and Organizational Development. While the first three could be described as "Pure Behavioural Sciences", the last three are "Applied Behavioural Sciences" and could be described as "Organizational Studies" (Wikipedia, 2005). They (the last three) differ because of their specific focus on behaviour in organizations (Northcraft & Neale, 1990). Maintaining the permeable boundary amongst our behavioural sciences in management and relating them to the general body of knowledge, we could build our "House of Behavioural Science Knowledge" as in Figure 4. Though the Behavioural Sciences have their immediate roots in the Social Sciences, their taproots could be traced to the components of basic knowledge, nay, ancient knowledge or philosophy. Narrating the history and rise of the Social Sciences of which the Behavioural Sciences constitute a subclass (Anderson *et al,* 2001), Wikipedia (2005) took us to "ancient philosophy" where there were no separate disciplines but a comprehensive perspective of every phenomenon as manifest like in the Unity of Science thesis. The split into science and humanity disciplines started with the development of mathematical proof as the English Physicist and Mathematician, Isaac Newton (1643-1727), did and the progression of ideas through the theological, philosophical and (positive) scientific stages as proposed in the framework of ideas development by the French Philosopher, Isidore Marie Francois Xavier Auguste Comte (1798-1857).

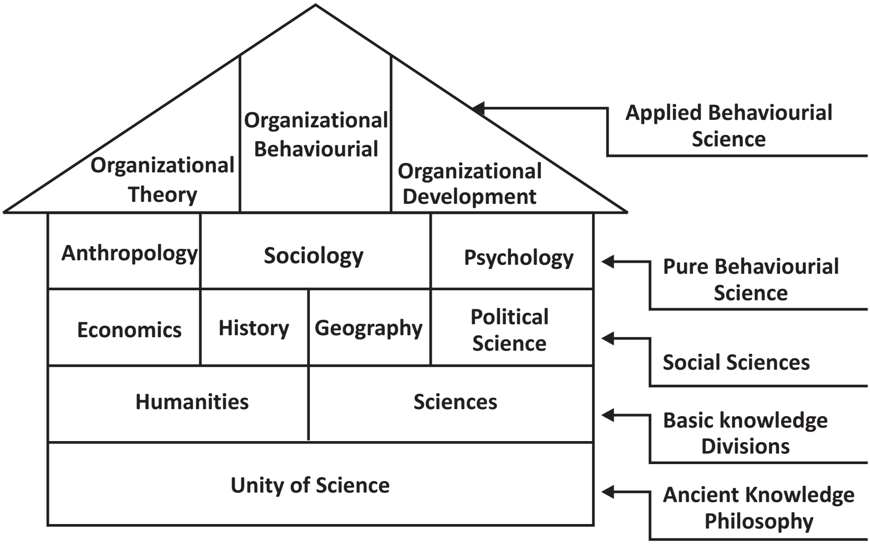

Fig. 4: House of Behavioural Science Knowledge
Source: Zeb-Obipi (2005: 35)

The split into more disciplines continued with the application of mathematical equations to statements about human behaviour (as in the laws of Philology and Theory of Natural Selection) and the emergence of statistics and quantitative measurement (as in Quantum Dynamics, Evolutionary Theory, Experimental Psychology and the Philosophy of Pragmatism). It is at this point that the humanities became "precursors" to the Social Sciences which include the Behavioural Sciences with an emphasis on the response of organisms. The trend of thought up to this point indicated that the Behavioural Sciences are a sub-classification of the social sciences which in turn constitute a subpart of the arts and sciences (Luthans, 1985). Pragmatic needs and theoretical purity further separated the disciplines through the rise of industrialism, the World Wars, and the emergence of large and diverse organizations that were accompanied with series of problems requiring both quantitative and qualitative analysis of human interaction to produce models for decision-making and management. Herein lies the basis of the rigorous research methodology to accumulate knowledge, characteristic or definitive of the Behavioural Sciences. It was at this point that the Behavioural Sciences became distinguished into Pure and Applied Behavioural Sciences. Examples of the Applied Behavioural Sciences, as earlier mentioned, are Organizational Behaviour, Organizational Theory and Organizational Development.

These three Behavioural Science disciplines are sometimes treated as one field of study because of their relationships. An example of this could be found in most texts on organization. When some of these texts bear titles that suggest a limitation to one of these three, a survey of their content often reveals some common themes, especially those titled "Organizational Behaviour" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Moorhead & Griffin, 1995; Robbins, 1996; Northcraft & Neale, 1990; Luthans, 1985; George & Jones, 1996). To certain extent, other titles (specific and general) do indicate same (Child, 1984; Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Mullins, 1996). What all these mean is that having examined the Behavioural Sciences from their wide coverage to the specific disciplines of Organizational Studies, delineating their specific content will be unnecessary. In fact, it will not be out of place to consider the disciplinary fences that divide them as collapsible so that, for the purposes of this lecture, all three are treated as one – sharing the nomenclature of Organizational Behaviour. We find a similar approach in the work of Poole and Wamer (2000) which we perceive treats Organizational Behaviour (OB) and Organizational Theory (OT) as two sides of the same coin (micro and macro-sides) and Organizational Development, the complete coin. We can, therefore, now turn our attention to Organizational Behaviour and the behavioural science techniques it offers to People Management.

4.2 Organizational Behaviour Techniques

Definitions, Definitional Elements and Importance: There are many definitions of Organizational Behaviour. Robbins (1996:10) defined it as a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structures have within an organization for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving an organization. For us, Organizational Behaviour is an applied behavioural science that deals with behaviour and its determinants in organizations and how to use the gained knowledge to improve performance (Zeb-Obipi & Onoh, 2003). The meaning givers or definitional elements from the above definitions include: (i) Field of Study, (ii) Behavioural Science, (iii) Applied Behavioural Science, (iv) Behaviour in Organisation and (v) Performance improvement. It provides a micro perspective of an organization by focusing on people and their behaviour within an organization; hence it is part of Organizational Studies. It also offers a systematic approach to describing, understanding, explaining, evaluating and predicting behaviour in organization for the better management of people. Silbiger (2005:120) described it as the "touchy-feely" subject that teaches business graduates how to deal with "human challenges" and instill "human sensitivity … [for] without people skills, MBAs are equipped with the power tools but are without the electric cord to use them".

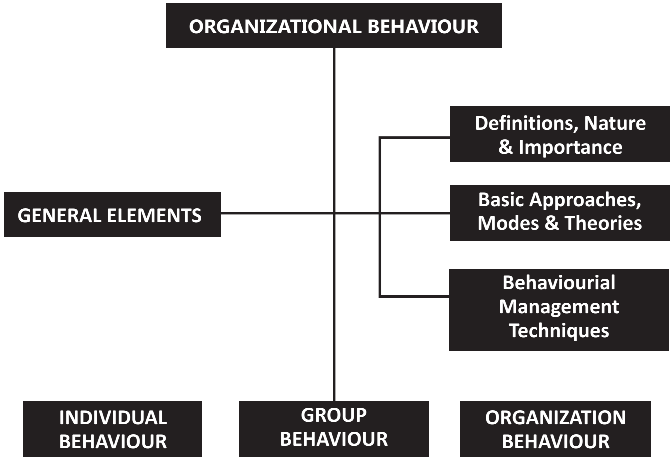

Fig. 5: Domains of Organizational Behaviour
Source: Author (2022)

Organizational Behaviour has diverse contents on behaviour and its determinants along the lines indicated in Figure 5. For analytical purpose, its contents have been divided into three, according to the basic units of analysis it deals with (individual, group and organization) and as to whether they predispose the actor to a given behaviour (foundations of behaviour) or they are capable of bringing about changes in an actor's behaviour (dynamics of behaviour); hence, the following divisions of its contents:

(a) ***Individual Behaviour:*** Foundations and dynamics of individual behaviour dealing with biological characteristics, abilities, perceptions, values and attitude, personality, learning, motivation, individual decision-making etc. (Micro-level content).

(b) ***Group Behaviour:*** Foundations and dynamics of group behaviour dealing with group nature, formation/ development and teams, group process, control, communication, leadership, group decision-making etc. (Meso-level content).

(c) ***Organization Behaviour:*** Foundations and dynamics of organization behaviour dealing with organizational structure and design, policies and programmes, systems and strategies, climate and environment, technology and culture, conflict and negotiation, power and politics, organizational learning, change and develop-ment, etc. (Macro-level content).

It is pertinent to state that these involve diverse principles of, and themes in, Organizational Behaviour (OB) and Industrial, Work and Organizational (IWO) Psychology, Applied Behaviour Analysis (ABA) and Organizational Behaviour Management (OBM); all anchored on the philosophy of Behaviourism (Kopp, 2022; Malott & Kohler, 2021; Johnson, 2021; Aurora University, 2017; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2002). Noteworthy are the accounts of the origin of Organizational Behaviour given by Johnson (2021) and Kopp (2002). Johnson traced its origin to the work of the American Psychologist, Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1904-1990) involving his conditioning experiment with rats and the progression to programmed instruction for learning and applied in training, performance management, employee relations, diagnostics of employee and organizational performance, provision of feedbacks and incentives, and monitoring, measurement and discipline systems in organizations today. The earlier works of a Russian Psychologist, Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849-1936) and another American Psychologist, Edward Thorndike (1874-1949) were originating contributions that must not be ignored. For Kopp (2002),

> The study of organizational behaviour has its (immediate) roots in the late 1920s, when the Western Electric Company launched a now-famous series of studies of the behaviour of workers at its Hawthorne Works plant in Cicero, III…. Organizational behaviour was not fully recognized by the American Psychological Association as a field of academic study until the 1970s. However, the Hawthorne research is credited for

> validating organizational behaviour as a legitimate field of study, and **it's the foundation of the human resources (HR) profession as we now know it.** (Emphasis mine).

Organizational Behaviour is central, important and crucial to the manager's job; viewed either in the role, skill, activity or function perspective. In a role perspective, OB helps the manager undertake inter-personal, information, and decision roles as identified by Mintzberg (1973). It enables the manager acquire demonstrable technical, human and conceptual skills in addition to political skills in a skill perspective. From activity perspective, Luthans (1988) asserted that a manager engages in traditional management (production, finance, marketing, etc.), communication, human resource management, and networking; and OB helps the manager in these activities. Jaja and Zeb-Obipi (2005) viewed manager's job from the perspective of function or process (planning, organizing, directing and controlling) and OB facilitates the performance of these functions. The point being made is that in whatever perspective one views what a manager does (Zeb-Obipi, 2021a) and in all aspects (teleological, social or quintessential: (Zeb-Obipi & Kpakol, 2018), the most important of their responsibilities is to manage people; and OB enables the manager to do this for a more effective and efficient performance.

Organizational Behaviour is very important due to the opportunities it provides and challenges it addresses such as improving quality and productivity, improving people skills, managing work place diversity, responding to globalization, empowering people, stimulating innovation and change, handing declining employee loyalty, coping with temporariness, improving ethical behaviour and resolving crises. Organizational Behaviour as a field of study draws from several other disciplines such as Mathematics, Engineering, Environmental Sciences, Physical Sciences, Law, History and especially, other Social Science and Organizational Science disciplines.

These later disciplines include Psychology (Industrial Psychology), Sociology (Industrial Sociology), Economics (Industrial Economics), Political Science and Anthropology. These various disciplines have contributed to the content and methodology of Organizational Behaviour. Furthermore, while problems in OB trigger research interest in these disciplines, new developments in them find application in OB; hence making OB a living discipline.

Basic Organizational Behaviour Approaches, Models and Theories: Organizational Behaviour employs a system's and systematic approach to its study of behaviour and this entails conceiving the organization as a united and purposeful system comprising interrelated parts, existing in a system-subsystem relationship, being interactive with its environment, having the activity of any of its segment effecting, in varying degrees, the activities of every other segment, and better studied through a process that is logical, thorough, rigorous and scientific. In line with its systematic approach and to guide the field in describing, explaining, understanding, evaluating and predicting work behaviour, OB has a number of basic models. A model is an abstraction from reality, showing elements or features of what it represents in reality but written down or presented as a "photo" of that reality. Four of these are worthy of note as being basic: Content, Problem-solving, APCFB Psychology, and Stimulus-Response models. The Content model is a simplified representation of the field of Organizational Behaviour showing the key assumptions, units of analysis, variables and their relationships in Organizational Behaviour. It suggests the main topics covered in Organizational Behaviour and defines its focus and scope. It gives indications of key theories within the Organizational Behaviour discipline and relates Organizational Behaviour content to human inputs and outputs in organizations.

The Problem-solving Model defines OB's orientation to problem-solving. It suggests three stages in problem-solving: (a) Problem definition where a problem gets known so as to be able to address the causes rather than the symptoms; (b) Analysis where the cause(s) of the problem is (are) clearly understood; and (c) Action Planning where a plan for resolving the problem is formulated (Silbiger, 2005). With the APCFB Psychology model, Silbiger (2005) asserted that the cognitive process beneath behaviour is explained through a chain of assumptions(A)-perceptions(P)-Conclusions(C)-Feelings(F)-Behaviour(B) through the filtering of events and defense mechanisms. For the S-R model, behaviour is an outcome of the relationship between a stimulus and response in a Stimulus-Organism-Behaviour-Consequence (SOBC) chain. Closely related to the approaches and models are Organizational Behaviour theories. Drawing from diverse literature, including the work of Pfeffer (1982), Zeb-Obipi and Onoh (2003) showed that these theories offer three perspectives of behaviour in organizations, are shaped by a social context and exist in three broad categories. The perspectives are: Rational, Situational/Constrained and Emergent Behaviour perspectives. While their shaping social context consists of Organizational Behaviour’s youthfulness, rapid spread, interdisciplinary nature, environment and demography of the organization it studies. They are in six categories, and three that are of immediate relevance to people management are the Micro-level Rational Behaviour, Micro-level Constrained Behaviour and Micro-level Process Emergent Behaviour theories.

We had earlier argued that the Behavioural Sciences have provided a large number of managerial techniques. These techniques relate to the human organization and are expected to be applied for the management of people in organizations for better performance. This is because they are products of the search by behavioural scientists for explanations and solutions of the problems of organizations. They represent or are the theories and principles that underlie or should underlie people management practices. As techniques, each constitutes a means of accomplishing some objectives, requires special or practical knowledge, and involves the application of certain laws or rules. They are very many but we have chosen just a few to make our points here: a sample of Behavioural Science techniques for people management to which the Inaugural Lecturer has also made some contributions and capable of solving the problems of worker productivity. These are organizational learning, competence management, organizational citizenship behaviour, impression management and emotional management.

Organizational Learning: This is the "process of effectively molding, internalizing and utilizing information for the operational efficiency and effectiveness of an organization" (Ahiauzu, 2002). It is a process of detecting and correcting errors and being innovative (Argyris, 1998). To Cavaleri and Fearon (1996), there are five different conceptions of organizational learning of varying complexity namely learning as: (i) an increase in knowledge, (ii) memorizing, (iii) an acquisition of knowledge, (iv) an abstraction of meaning, and (v) an interpretive process. What these suggest is that there is no one sentence definition of organizational learning that is universally adequate. Despite the controversy over the exact meaning of organizational learning, there is no doubt that organizational learning must take place within some defined context, entail a process and result in certain outputs. Table 2 lays out the details of these.

Table 2: Application of Organisational Learning

DIMENSIONS	PROCEDURES/ STAGES	SKILLS/TACTICS INDICANTS/ OUTPUTS
Learning Process	Adaptive, Single Loop, or First-order	❖ Error detection/correction & evolutionary changes.. ❖ Organizational maintenance practices ❖ Creation of match between intent & action & elimination of mismatch.
	Generative, Double loop of Second-order	❖ Examination of sources of action alteration of action sources. ❖ Innovation and development of new principles process, actions and competences. ❖ Creation of new opportunities and alternatives.
	Deutro, Reflective or Third-Order	❖ Scrutiny of the learning process & systematic problem solving. ❖ Experimentation with new approaches, experiential & historical learning ❖ Learning from others & best practices. ❖ Quick & efficient transfer of knowledge. ❖ Making everyone a knowledge worker.
Learning Context	Culture	❖ Clear articulation of vision & disposition to further the vision ❖ Leader-designer-teacher-steward orientation. ❖ Emphasis on continuous improvement ❖ High value for knowledge & encouragement of good communication. ❖ Socialization & development of community consciousness.
	Structure	❖ Reward for inventiveness & encouragement of initiative. ❖ Facilitation of knowledge organization ❖ Empowerment of individuals. ❖ Design & operation of flatter networks.
	Infrastructures	❖ Provision or acquisition of personal computers ❖ Creation of computer networks & Connection to the internet ❖ Availability of intranets & extranets.

Source: Developed from Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004)

Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004) concluded that the relevance of the extensive literature on Organizational Learning is that it enables the manager to identify elements that illustrate the application of organizational learning. The application of organizational learning by managers involves techniques aimed at the creation of a learning context and learning process in their organizations for desired learning skills, indicants and outputs as could be seen in Table 2. It is instructive to note that Intellectual Capital Management, Human Capital Management and Knowledge Management are offshoots, varieties, aspects or branches of Organizational Learning and areas the Inaugural Lecturer has made specific theoretical and empirical contributions (Zeb-Obipi & Gbarale, 2019; Njiowhor & Zeb-Obipi, 2019; Onah & Zeb-Obipi, 2021; Kpakol & Zeb-Obipi, 2019).

Competence Management: The second technique selected as illustrative of OB techniques of People Management is competence management. The literature on competence is rather unclear in terms of definition (Zeb-Obipi & Jaja, 2004). The first definitional problem exists in the form of a controversy over the distinction between competence and competency: Job performance capacity versus an underlying capacity for job performance. The second definitional problem results from the existence of different approaches, and models of competence: Output (Britain) versus Input (American) approaches. The distinction of competence into Output and Input competences tallies with two parallel streams of thought and practice or competence models: Overt and Covert models. The problem of defining competences could also be attributed to the availability of diverse competence frameworks, each with its own definition of competence. In fact, all the approaches and models of competence have their roots in one framework or the other.

There are a large number of competence frameworks in the literature on competence; frameworks for: (i) executive or top, middle level, supervisory and first line, level management (Lane & Robinson, 1995); (ii) competence base job evaluation and enhancing competence base job evaluation (Kikeoma, 2000), (iii) communication (Kameda, 2000), (iv) internal audit and auditors' development, (v) developing pay or compensation scheme (Armstrong & Brown, 1998; Pierce, Hannon and Wilson, 1995), (vi) researchers and hospitality industry (Birdor & Pearson, 2000; Li & Kivela, 2001); (vii) facilitation of organizational learning, review of strategic direction and planning processes, and guide future business and human resource planning of organizations (Tjok-a-Tam & Worthy, 1995); (viii) staffing (recruitment and selection), training and development (curriculum design, coaching, counseling and mentoring), performance management, career development and succession planning, employee assessment and compensation (Birdor & Pearson, 2000); and (ix) design of formal professional development programmes for business executives.

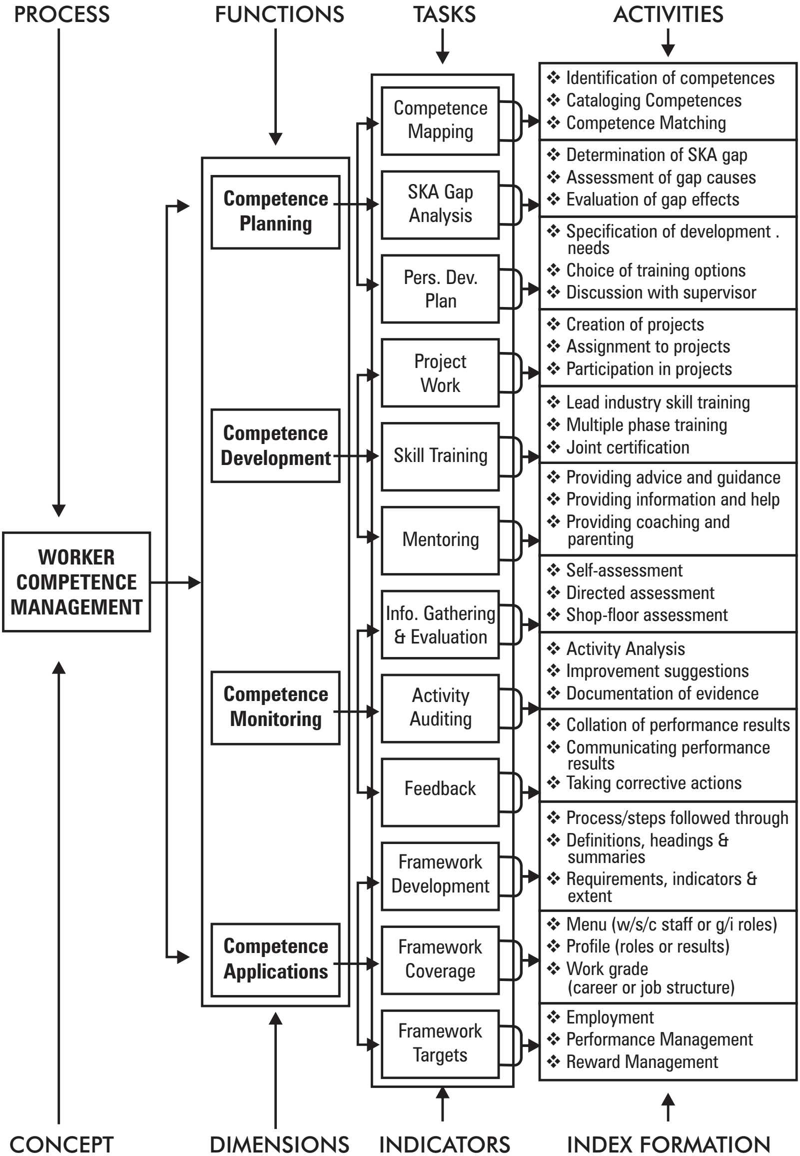

Fig. 6: Application of Competence Concept in Human Resource Management
Source: Zeb-Obipi (2018a)

Again, Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004) asserted that the purpose of the review of the literature on competence management is to derive elements of its application. The application of competence would mean the development and operation of a competence framework. In a more measurable term, it entails having a competence framework that indicates narrative summaries of important aspects of a job, list of key result areas of the job and specification of critical dimensions of the result areas of the job. The application of competence to People and Process Management led to the Worker Competence Management Approach to Human Resource Management as can be seen in Figure 6, Organizational Ambidexterity and Organizational Parenting; areas the Inaugural Lecturer has made diverse theoretical and empirical contributions (Zeb-Obipi, 2018a; Zeb-Obipi, 2018b; Zeb-Obipi, 2017a; Zeb-Obipi, 2016a; Zeb-Obipi, 2017; Zeb-Obipi, 2015; Zeb-Obipi, 2010b; Zeb-Obipi, 2008; Zeb-Obipi & Jaja, 2007; Iroanwusi & Zeb-Obipi, 2019a; Iroanwusi & Zeb-Obipi, 2019b; Omah, 2019).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB): This refers to a discretionary and non-formally rewarded behaviour of organizational members that affect the functioning of their organization. This definition suggests five elements: (a) extra-role behaviour, (b) not explicitly rewarded behaviour that requires no training, (d) behaviour that enhances the actor's image, (e) and behaviour that promotes organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) stems from a desire to help others or the organization have a good image, or both. Thus, it has two main motives: traditional and impression motives. While conscientiousness and organizational justice are examples of the traditional motives of OCB, Bolino (1999) sourced the impression management motives of OCB through three categories: goal relevance of impressions, value of image enhancement, and current and desired image discrepancy. These are sources of motives for organizational members to engage in impression-management driven citizenship behaviour. What is being suggested is that Organizational Citizenship Behaviour is a function of both traditional and impression management motives, this could be stated thus:

$$OCB = f(Tm, Im)$$

Where:

OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Tm = Traditional OCB Motives

Im = Impression Management Motives

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour has different dimensions consisting of some specific acts that could be described as Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). There are several frameworks within which these have been presented. In Organ's (1988) framework, they include altruism, generalized compliance, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue behaviours. In Van Dan, Graham & Dienesch (1994) framework, they include loyalty, obedience, advocacy participation functional participation, and social participation. In Moorman and Blakelys' (1995) framework, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) include interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry and loyal boosterism. It is important to note, just like Bolino (1999), that the OCBs overlap as classified in the models. They do, however, provide us with a wider scope within which we could identify and analysis specific citizenship behaviours. Table 3 provides such an analysis.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has effects on an organization. There are two categories of consequences. First, are consequences relating to the facilitation of organizational and work group effectiveness. Second, are consequences relating to the enhancement of organizational members' image. In addition, OCB has some other characteristics. These characteristics relate to its frequency, types, timing, target, audience and magnitude in an organization. In all these dimensions, it overlaps with impression management (Bolino, 1999). This is one reason why impression management is also included in our sample of the Behavioural Science techniques for People Management. Here too the Inaugural Lecturer has made a number of contributions (Zeb-Obipi, 2005; Duke & Zeb-Obipi, 2017; Gabriel, Zeb-Obipi & Jaja, 2011).

Table 3: Organizational citizenship behaviour strategies

S/N	STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLES
1.	Altruism or Altruistic Behaviour	- Helping others selflessly - Interpersonal helping	- Helping a co-worker, supervisor at work - Assisting a customer who
2.	Generalized Compliance or Obedience or Loyal Boosterism	- Compliance not occasioned just by threat of enforcement - Adherence to rules & policies. - Boosting compliance and loyalty	- Observing work standards even when not told so. - Complying with standards beyond words to their essence. - Enthusiastic compliance - Obedience & loyalty.
3.	Sportsmanship or Advocacy Participation or Courtesy	- Being innovative and cooperative. - Being controversial but tolerant - Being courteous to others	- Engaging in team work - Enduring impositions & inconveniences without complaints. - Providing individual initiatives - Minding others.
4.	Civic Virtue or Social Participation	- Participation and involvement in the organization's affairs	- Attending meetings and group activities. - Volunteering services. - Performing not work related assignments.
5.	Personal Industry or Functional Participation	- Being conscientious. - Self-development & fulfilment. - Applying oneself fully to work.	- Increase learning, knowledge & competence - Paying details and extra attention to work. - Meeting datelines & schedules.

Source: Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004)

Impression Management: This is the process by which organizational members influence their images in the eyes of others. It is a common phenomenon at work, and occurs in interviews, performance appraisals, leadership, career advancement, and information and feedback seeking acts of organizational members. It involves the application of certain strategies or tactics to elicit a positive image of self from others. Jones and Pitman (1990) identified such strategies to include ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, self-promotion and supplication. We wish to add targeting. The impression manager undertakes different tactics in each of these strategies.

Table 4: Impression Management Strategies

S/N	STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLES
1.	Ingratiator	I'm likeable - Mr. Likeable	- Makes others feel positive & renders favors - Conforms with expectations & agrees with others - Demonstrates selflessness
2.	Exemplifier	I'm Dedicated – Mr. Dedicated	- Gets to work early & works late - Does all expected & goes beyond duty calls - Volunteers for tough jobs
3.	Intimidator	I'm Dangerous- Mr. Dangerous	- Takes no nonsense & makes no compromise - Sounds & acts tough & threatens others - Demands being noticed
4.	Self-promoter	I'm Competent - Mr. Competent	- Acts Mr. Perfect or Right - Dictates the pace & asserts indispensability - Acts well-schooled & thorough - Flaunts skills and mastery
5.	Supplicator	I'm in need – Mr. Needy	- Advertised being cheated & asks for assistance - Locates fault outside self & acts overloaded/worked - Demands better tools and opportunities
6.	Targetor	I'm the target - Mr. Target	- Does behaviour matching, conforms to situational norms & seeks consistency - Appreciates or flatters others & demands attention

Source: Adapted from Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004)

For example, in ingratiation, he takes action that will make him likeable. He makes others feel positive about them, renders favors to them, conforms with their expectations of him, agrees with them always, listens to their problems and always wants to demonstrate selflessness. In exemplification, he takes actions that portray him as dedicated. He comes to work early, leaves late, does all what he is expected to do while at work, offers himself for tough assignments, and endures pains and makes sacrifices to help others get their work done, thus "going beyond the call of duty" and offering himself as an example that should be emulated. With the intimidation strategy, he presents himself as dangerous. He takes no nonsense, makes no compromises, sounds tough, threatens others, and demands being noticed. With the self-promotion strategy, he presents himself as competent. He is well schooled and thorough, skilled and a master of his work, dictates the pace, asserts indispensability and is Mr. Perfect or Right.

Emotional Management: This is another Behavioural Science technique for People Management. Emotions constitute an organizational resource that requires to be appropriately managed. This idea was first formulated by Mills, according to Styhire, Ingelgard, Beausang, Castenfors, Mulec & Roth (2002), who located this resource in labor that is non-physical but consists of feelings expressed professionally, carrying the personality of their owners. Thus, the resource of emotions is intricately linked to people as it is people that constantly experience emotions. That emotions constitute a resource is made more explicit by Hochschild's (1983) concepts of emotional resource: emotional work and emotional labor. While emotional work refers to organizational members' efforts to align their feelings and expressions with organizationally accepted norms such as conformity and harmony, emotional labor refers to the commercial exploitation of such efforts. Considering this distinction unnecessary, Mumby and Putnam (1992) defined emotional labor as "the way individuals change or manage emotions to make them appropriate or consistent with a situation, role, or expected organization behaviour". A third concept of emotion is bounded emotion which is the feelings of personal authenticity expressed for the well-being of organizational members and their families (Martin, Knopoft & Beckman, 1998). To be more specific, we consider emotional labor as the component of work that allows the expression of a particular emotion to maximize organizational productivity. It consists of emotions displayed for instrumental purposes. Examples of such emotions include enthusiasm and loyalty.

Despite the fact that emotions constitute a resource which individuals can use to facilitate task accomplishment, underlie work behaviour and are intricately linked to people who constitute the most important resource of organizations, they are mainly ignored, marginalized, de-emphasized or in appropriately managed in organizations. The reasons for this include the dominance of rationality in organization-theory, impersonality of the dominant form of organization (bureaucracy) and preference for specific sets of emotions. The situation has now changed with the increase in the conceptions of emotions as a resource and techniques for their management for the interest of both the organization and its members. Thus, the three concepts of emotions as a resource (emotional work, emotional labor and bounded emotion) can be seen as having attracted three management techniques: *bureaucratic emotional management* (anger and competiveness favored but sadness, fear, some form of sexual attraction and vulnerability unflavored); *normative emotional management* (gossip, deference, smile and being nasty are encouraged for expression within certain context); and *feminist emotional management* (unencumbered expression of emotions - unbounded feminist emotionality, expressions that function for individual effectiveness, improved mutual understanding, co-existence, individual preferences and dictates, personal authenticity experience and facilitation of a strong sense of community feeling among organizational members- bounded emotionality) approaches (Zeb-Obipi & Jaja, 2004; Styhire et al., 2002; Martin et al., 2002;

Martin et al, 1998; Putnam and Mumby, 1993). These are summarized in Table 5; and additional works here are: Waua & Zeb-Obipi (2019), Hart & Zeb-Obipi (2019) and Zeb-Obipi (2019). The last two works deal with and extended the concern with emotions accounting for ethical, unethical or deviant behaviours in organizations as revealed by Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004).

Table 5: Application of Emotional Management

Strategy	Concept Of Emotion	Strategy Indicants
Bureaucratic Emotional Management	<u>**Emotional Work**</u> ***Positive Emotions:*** Anger & Competition ***Negative Emotions:*** sadness, fear, some form of sexual attraction & Vulnerability.	❖ Restraining of negative emotions. ❖ Condoning and encouraging of positive emotions. ❖ Cultivating emotions germane to conformity and harmony.
Normative Emotional Management	<u>**Emotional Labor**</u> Gossip, deference, smile and being nasty in certain situations	❖ Exploitation of emotions that are beneficial. ❖ Careful monitoring of emotions for context & time relevance. ❖ Cultivation of emotions germane to enthusiasm & loyalty. ❖ Internalization of approved emotions by organizational members.
Feminist Emotional Management	**(a) Unbounded Emotion:** Diverse sexual attraction, affection, vulnerability, fear, job	❖ Cultivation of emotions genuine to personal authenticity & well-being. ❖ Elimination of the gap between felt & expressed emotion. ❖ Emotional expression unencumbered by concerns of values, instrumentation or commercialization.
	(b) Bounded Emotion: Self-restraint, tolerance, independence, expression of dissatisfaction	❖ Restraining emotional expression to those that allow for effective individual functioning. ❖ Building interpersonal relationships through improved understanding of work related feelings. ❖ Permission of contradictory emotion to co-exist. ❖ Non-discriminatory treatment of emotions except as dictated by an individual's preference & context ❖ Treatment of the individual as a single self. ❖ Facilitation of strong feelings of community amongst organizational members.

Source: Adapted from Zeb-Obipi and Jaja (2004)

Further contributions of the Inaugural Lecturer include: (i) A competence-competency model that reconciled the competing schools of thought on the subject for organizational action (Zeb-Obipi & Jaja, 2007); (ii) A taxonomy of Worker Competence Management that bought together almost all its conceivable elements to offer an agenda for research and action (Zeb-Obipi, 2008); (iii) Performance audit report as to the extent organizations in Nigeria engage in competence planning (Zeb-Obipi, 2016b); (iv) Gender diversity correlation with corporate sustainability (Zeb-Obipi & Ossai, 2021); (v) The effects of change management on the development of industrial organizations (Oparanma & Zeb-Obipi, 2012); (vi) The effect of emotional reflexivity in terms of emotional identification, display and experience on leader effectiveness evident in motivation, relationships and resilience (Gbaraka & Zeb-Obipi, 2017); (vii) Employee commitment is a function of emotional cynicism involving feelings of disrespect or frustration towards another person or an organization manifest in aggravation, tension, anxiety and discomfort (Amadi, Zeb-Obipi & Konya, 2020); (viii) Psychological empowerment, an intrinsic motivation that affords an individual a sense of meaningfulness, competence and self-determination, enables an organization to be competitive (Ude, Zeb-Obipi & Oparanma, 2022).

4.3 Human Resource Management Techniques

Definition, Nature and Importance of HRM: Human Resource Management is a process of planning, organizing, directing and controlling the human resource functions of an organization to achieve desired goals. This definition of Human Resource Management has been inspired by Flippo's (1960) definition of its forerunner, Personnel Management. It is a subject, a career and a management function. As a process, it consists of a set of activities that are inter-related or inter-woven, undertaken sequentially or simultaneously, in continuous or cyclical order and is goal directed.

Its managerial aspect denotes activities undertaken by management such as planning, organizing, directing and controlling; while its technical or operative dimension consists of the human resource functions, namely: Human Resource Planning, Human Resource Procurement, Human Resource Development, Human Resource Compensation, Human Resource Integration, Human Resource Maintenance and Human Resource Separation. Its core is human resources or people at the work measured in terms of quantity and quality of manpower, man hour spent on work, competence (skills, knowledge and attitudes - SKA), human capital, talent, assets or labour (human efforts exacted in exchange for a value). Its goals' direction is defined in terms of individual objectives such as pay, working condition and job security; organisational objectives, such as profitability, survival and growth; and societal objectives such as the organisation providing quality products in the desired quality and price, paying taxes and treating workers according to applicable laws. The field of Human Resource Management is depicted in the Figure 7.

Human Resource Management has relationships with other disciplines. This entails an interface or interaction between Human Resource Management and other disciplines such as Economics, Law, History and Sociology, Organisational Studies Psychology, Engineering, Political Science. The interaction is a two-way interface wherein the content of one is found in the other- shared content, the methodology of one is found in the other- shared methodology, changes and interests in one bring about changes in the other and problems in Human Resource Management trigger interest in these other disciplines.

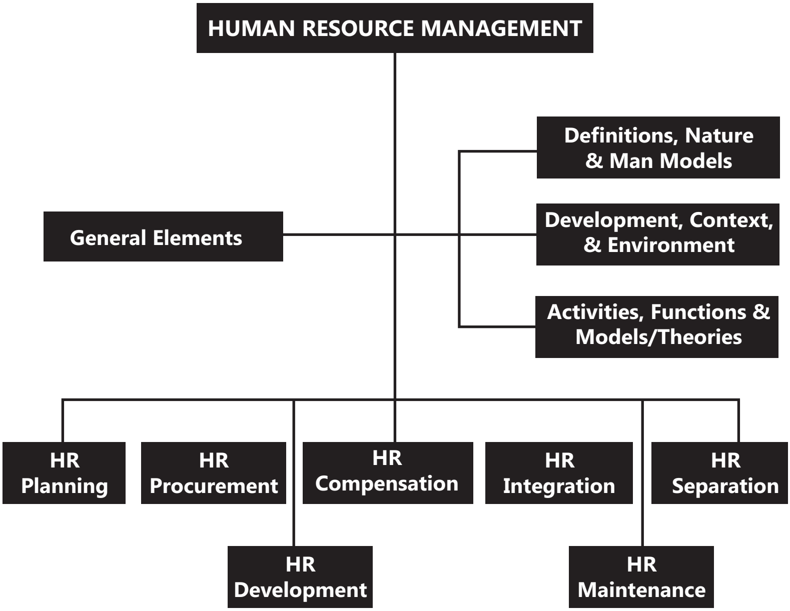

Fig. 7: Domains of Human Resource Management
Source: Author (2022)

As a field of study, it seeks to enable learners take initiatives on human resource management matters, provide solution to human resource management problems, effectively deal with human resource management issues, create an environment for the optimum utilization of organisation resources, facilitate the contributions of human resource management to the achievements of set goals. These it enables learner do as it introduces them to the concept of Human Resource Management, exposes them to its aims, challenges and processes, enables them acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes necessary for the effective and efficient management of human resources, makes them demonstrate an understanding of the activities and tasks involved in human resource management and stimulates them to contribute to the theory and practice of human resource management. As a field of practice, it contributes to added value and competitive advantage, offers a profession, a career and source of livelihood, enables an organisation to keep pace with changes in the environment (society), facilitates the integration of the individual into the organisation, deals with the most important resource of the organisation and prevents the commission of people mistakes.

Development, Context and Environment: There are three perspectives of the history and development of Human Resource Management, namely: epoch or hallmark, evolutionary stages and evolution determinants' perspectives. In terms of epochs or hallmarks, Human Resource Management started as a welfare function then became a business or management function of organisations and today it is a theory and body of knowledge. Hence, its hallmarks are: Welfare Function, Organizational Function and Body of Knowledge. It has evolved through 5 stages: Welfare Stage (before 1930), Personal Administration Stage (1930-1940), Personal Management Stage (1940-1980), Human Resource Management Stage (1980-2000) and Human Resource Capital, Analytics and Green Stage (2000-Date). This is a compression and improvement upon the eleven stages identified and discussed by Ghosh (2000). Each of these stages has its peculiar activities or features and each subsequent stage encompasses activities or features of the preceding stages. This evolution has been determined by a number of factors: management practitioners, scholars, government, labour leaders and social changes. In describing the direction of the evolution, Ghosh (2000: ii) declared, and with an evolution graph: “ALL ROADS LEAD TO MAN”

Human Resource Management takes place within an organisation. An organisation refers to any outfit that engages in one form of business or the other and in doing so engages people. The way the people that are engaged are managed is affected by elements of the organisation's context and environment such as the:

i. ***Organisation's Business:*** The type, goals, nature and ownership of business have implications for the management of an organization's human resources.

ii. ***Organizational Structure:*** The design (functional, geographical, product/customer, time or matrix structure), size, roles, relationships and dimensions (extent of centralization, standardization, formaliztion, differentiation and integration) of an organization's structure affect how people work together to achieve set goals.

iii. ***Organizational Culture:*** An organization's set of languages, norms, folklores, ceremonies and practices that distinguishes it from other organizations affects its management of its human resources. So do its ideologies, values and beliefs; and its shared basic assumptions that have worked well enough to be considered as valuable and therefore to be taught new members as the correct ways to perceive (think, feel and act). There are different types of organizational culture following diverse frameworks of classification. One framework suggests the following: achievement culture, self-actualising culture, humanistic culture, affiliation culture and approval culture.

iv. ***Managerial Systems:*** The systems managers put in place to help achieve their goals impact on Human Resource Management. The systems in reference here are control, information and people systems. People system is one dealing with the managerial disposition towards people and it involves a range of skills (technical, human, conceptual and political skills), orientations (task and people orientations), and frames of reference (unitary and plural frames of reference).

v. ***Management Theories:*** The management theories managers adhere to in pursuit of organizational goals have implications for Human Resource Management. These theories are traditionally classified thus: (a) Classical theories (Scientific, Administrative and Bureaucratic theories), (b) Neo-classical theories (Human Relations, Behavioural and Integrative theories) and (c) Contemporary (Contingency and Emerging theories).

vi. ***Contractual Obligation:*** This refers to a set of mutual expectations between an employer and employee and the agreement to fulfil such expectations. It has a number of dimensions: employment (task structure) contract, knowledge contract, psychological contract, efficiency contract and ethical (social value) contract. The nature and content of each of these influence how human resources are managed in an organization.

vii. ***Environment of Business:*** The environment of a business refers to one minus the business and it involves all the factors external to the business that effect its functioning. There are three concepts of business environment namely: General Environment or P-PEST concept, Task environment or Public concept and SWOT Environment or Dimension concept. The SWOT or Dimension concept defines business environment as consisting of the opportunities and threats of a business in relation to its strength and weaknesses in three dimensions (Simple – Complex Environment, Stable – Dynamic Environment and Placid – Turbulent Environment). Whatever concept that is used, it is easy to see the effect of the influence of business environment on Human Resource Manage-ment. These factors explain practices such as contract or casual staff, outsourcing (Biriowu, 2018), paternity leave etc.

Activities, Functions and Models: The techniques HRM offers people management are found in its functions and models. Human Resource Management involves some traditional and operative functions. These are outside the managerial functions of planning organising, directing and controlling. These distinguish Human Resource Management from other functions of business such as marketing, production, finance, etc. Organizations and scholars differ in the categorization of these activities, their contents, details and organization; hence, the existence of different models or perspectives of Human Resource Management (Pigors & Myers, 1981). There are at least three perspectives of Human Resource Management activities namely:

i. ***Role perspective:*** This defines human resource management activities in terms of roles performed by Human Resource Managers and Officers such as partnership, guardianship, counselling, professional or consultancy and residual roles.

ii. ***Function perspective:*** This defines Human Resource Management activities as functions carried out by Human Resource Managers and Officers in three categories- Inflow functions that deal with the activities involved in bringing people into an organization (Human Resource Planning and Procurement); Through-flow functions that deal with having and keeping the human resources from the point of procurement to the point of exit (Human Resource Development, Compensation, Integration and Maintenance); and Outflow functions that deal with the exit of given human resources from the organization through retirement, retrenchment, redundancy, dismissal or death (Human Resource Separation).

iii. ***Responsibility perspective:*** This defines Human Resource Management activities in terms of responsibilities carried out either by line managers, staff managers or both generally; thus, there are three categories of responsibilities: General responsibilities involved in Human Resource Management as the job of every person in charge of others in an organisation; Line Responsibilities involved in Human Resource Management as the responsibilities of persons in charge of the core functional areas of business such as marketing, production, finance and administration; and Staff Responsibilities involved in Human Resource Management as the job of persons with expert knowledge, functioning as human resource management professionals.

There are different ways Human Resource Management activities have been conceived over time and labelled either as being traditional, contemporary or cutting across both. These have been summarily presented thus:

(a) ***Traditional Models of Human Resource Management:*** These are models dealing with HRM activities considered as conventional or usual and include: (i) Philosophical Model which suggests that Human Resource Management can have any one of two orientations (Hard orientation or Soft Orientation); (ii) Marching or Michigan model which focuses on the influence of organizational structure and environment on Human Resource Management and the effects on organisational performance; (iii) Harvard Model which focuses on the influence of employees, stakeholders and institutional factors on Human Resource Manage-ment outcomes and the long term consequences; (iv) Comparative Model which focuses on integrated Human Resource Management practices and how these affect individual and organisational performance; and (v) Choice Model which focuses on the influence of Human Resource Management policies sourced from the organisation, personnel and environment and how these impact on performance through functional and line levels of management, directly or indirectly.

(b) ***Contemporary Models of Human Resource Manage-ment:*** These are models that have emerged from ongoing research especially in Organisational Behaviour and include (i) Competence and Talent Management Models; (ii) Human Capital and Intellectual Management Models; (iii) Emotional and Impression Management Models; (iv) Learning and Knowledge Management Models; and (v) Spirituality Management and Empowerment Models.

(c) ***Other Models of Human Resource Management:*** These are Human Resource Management models that cannot just be put into the traditional or contemporary catego-ries as a result of their distinctive nature: (i) Major Process model which identifies the major processes involved in Human Resource Management either from the perspective of an organisation or a scholar and include Organisational improvement, Job design and Job analysis models; (ii) Gap Model which posits that Human Resource Management is different in rhetoric from what it is in reality, intention or deed; it is manipulative rather than empowering; it is soft in rhetoric but hard in reality; hence, its contradiction and rhetoric-reality gap; and (iii) Human Resource Analytics, Disruptive and Green Models (Okwakpam & Zeb-Obipi, 2021; Amah & Mekuri-Ndimele, 2019; Ahmed, 2015) which emphasize the place of data, technology and environmental sustainability in Human Resource Management.

A number of the aforementioned areas of Human Resource Management have witnessed contributions from the Inaugural Lecturer either as a teacher, single author, co-author or thesis supervisor. For instance, we have showed that: **(i)** Recruitment management and employee information systems affect employee procurement (Zeb-Obipi & Kalio, 2018; Kalio & Zeb-Obipi, 2018); **(ii)** Retrenchment is one of a number of defensive strategies firms can employ to avoid demise (Chikwe & Zeb-Obipi, 2017); **(iii)** Humanization of the military in Nigeria as an employer of labor is necessary for the empowerment of its employees (Tamunomiebi & Zeb-Obipi, 2004); **(iv)** The competence concept provides a contemporary approach to Human Resource Management (Zeb-Obipi, 2017); **(v)** Industry 4.0 has implications for Human Resource Management (Zeb-Obipi, 2018c); **(vi)** Employee performance is affected by working conditions (Yorkana & Zeb-Obipi, 2018); **(vii)** Talent attraction results in organizational growth (Peter & Zeb-Obipi, 2018); **(viii)** Role overload (a job design element) affects employee performance (George & Zeb-Obipi, 2017); **(ix)** Workplace management strategies affect employee commitment (Zeb-Obipi & Ikoromasoma, 2021; David-Alonge, 2021); **(x)** Work attitude is influenced by pay schemes (Zeb-Obipi & Momodu, 2021); **(xi)** Human Resource Information System is a function of Software as a Service- Software Services (Gabriel, Zeb-Obipi & Biriowu, 2020); and **(xii)** Job redesign is a solution to employee job burnout (Georgewill & Zeb-Obipi, 2019).

4.4 Industrial Relations Techniques

Definitions, Scope and Nomenclature: Industrial Relations is one of the sub-functions of business management. It is a very broad and complex function. In addition to being a business and managerial sub-function, it is a subject, discipline and profession on its own right. As a subject, it has been growing and has achieved popularity. It has a popular appeal, is linked with politics and affects the work life of people and society at large. It has grown to be a subject of its own within the management disciplines. Thus, it is studied for various qualifications, has come to have separate sections or departments in organizations. It offers and requires specialist skills and staff, and has its own vocabulary. It is a broad-based and multi-disciplinary study and practice that covers diverse forms and levels of relationships and is increasingly getting complex. Even attempts at defining its content by focusing on certain institutions, characters, procedures and topics (Green, 1994) have not solved its problems of definition and analysis. The Figure 8 lays out the field of Industrial Relations.

Industrial Relations is a set of interactions at the workplace predicated upon employment contract and involving work parties or their representatives for job regulation. The phrase “set of interactions" suggests that there are other forms of relationships at the workplace that do not constitute Industrial Relations. For instance, ethnic, friendship, courtship, religious and even marriage relationships are possible at the workplace; but they do not constitute Industrial Relations. Those that constitute Industrial Relations must involve employees, employers, government and their representatives and arise from a contract of employment. Thus, two definitional elements emerge here namely: work parties and employment contract. These must have informed Yesufu's (1984) definition of Industrial Relations as the whole web of human interactions at work which is predicated upon, and arises out of, employment contract. Green (1994) described it as the relationships encountered by workpeople in their working lives (as opposed to their private lives). It could, therefore, be deduced that Industrial Relations is human relations that consist of labor and personnel relations. The concepts of human relations, labor relations and personnel relations provide us a framework within which to further search for the meaning and nature of Industrial Relations.

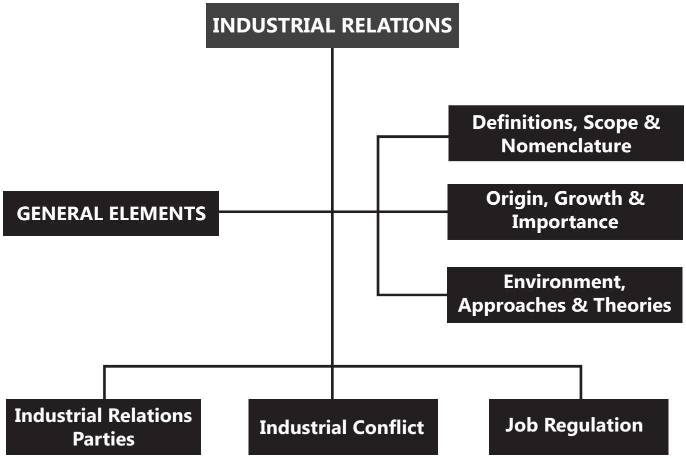

Fig. 8: Domains of Industrial Relations
Author (2022)

A distinction amongst these concepts and how they relate to Industrial Relations could make the meaning of Industrial Relations clearer. Human Relations (HR) at work refers to ail interactions involving workpeople as human beings irrespective of employment contract. It includes relations with the public, shareholders, customers, colleagues, bosses, subordinates, friends, relations etc. All Industrial Relations are human relations, but not all human relations at work constitute Industrial Relations (IR). Those that are Industrial Relations must involve contract and union relationships. The contract and union relationships define Personnel and Labor Relations respectively. While Labor Relations (LR) refer to management-union relationships based on the collectivity essence of workers, Personnel Relations (PR) deal with management-worker relationship based on the employment contract. Hence, Yesufu (1984) concluded that Industrial Relations is equivalent to labor relations plus personnel relations. The definitional elements of Industrial Relations, therefore, could be summarized thus: human, work, contract and union relationships among work parties that distinctly define Human Relations, Work Relations, Personnel Relations and Labor Relations respectively while collectively defining IR.

Another way to make the meaning and nature of IR clearer is to specify the various relationships it entails, the problems within its focus and organizations involved. It entails interactions between: (i) employers and employees, (ii) management and workers, (iii) one trade union and another, (iv) trade unions and management or employers, (v) union and employers' association, (vi) union and government, (vii) union and worker, and (vii) union, government and workers. These relationships constitute Industrial Relations and could be sources of certain problems described as Industrial Relations problems. Industrial Relations problems include:

(i) employment or job security, (ii) conditions of work, (iii) remuneration, (iv) discipline, grievances and disputes, (v) production level and efficiency, (vi) safety, health and welfare of workers, (vii) social dialogue and physical security, and (viii) employee development. These are some of the issues of interest and focus in IR. Some organizations generate and address these issues in Industrial Relations. They include the: (i) trade unions, (ii) employers' association or management, (iii) government agencies, and (iv) labor courts and tribunals. These organizations use certain processes or methods for the regulation of job at the workplace. They include: (i) Unilateral, or Managerial Regulation, (ii) Union Regulation, (iii) Joint Regulation, (iv) Statutory Regulation, and (v) Customs and Practices or Social Regulation. These organizations, institutions and processes referred to above are so defining of IR that IR could be described as the relationships amongst unions, management and employers' associations and the processes and institutions that structure them.

Yet another way to clearly define Industrial Relations is to reconcile its ongoing nomenclature controversy. This relates to whether what this field of study and practice has become is Industrial Relations, Labor Relations, Employee Relations, Personnel Relations, Employment Relations or Labor-Management Relations. Though there has been indiscriminate use of these terms interchangeably as meaning the same thing, they do differ in their specifics as indicated herein:

(a) ***Employee Relations:*** Focused more on employee rights and information; emphasis on human rights and nature of workers more than rules and institutions of regulations; comes after Industrial Relations with a historical base of less unionized white collar workers; necessitated by declining unions; involves non-unionized workers and service organizations; Individualized, non-unionized and non-collectivized; more of bipartite relationships; approximates Employment Relations.

(b) ***Employment Relations:*** Focused more on the employee as an individual; concerned more with employee's aspirations; takes an employer-employee and union-nonunion perspectives.

(c) ***Labor Relations:*** Involves unionized workers; takes a union perspective; representative, unionized and collectivized; approximates Labor-Management Relations.

(d) ***Labor-Management Relations:*** Focused more on the relationship between an employer as an institution (management) and workers as a collectivity; emphasis on grievance, discipline, labor laws; job regulation perspective; more of tripartite relationships.

(e) ***Industrial Relations:*** Perceived to involve only workers in manufacturing organizations with a historical base of unionized manual workers; has both employer and union perspectives; concerned more with issues of unions, conflicts and regulations.

(f) ***Personnel Relations:*** Involving an individual worker; takes more of an employer perspective; emphasis is on individual contract of employment;

The nomenclature controversy arises from its problems of conceptualization, approaches, evolution, contributory disciplines and preferences by scholars and practitioners (Zeb-Obipi, 2018d; Okeah, 2022; Ichenwo, 2022; Badey, 2022). Its evolution in terms of history, has gone through five eras, according to Singh (2013); namely: **primitive** era (simple-family relations), **agrarian** era (master-slave relations), **selfdom** era (sharecropping relations), **handcraft** era (master-apprentice relations) and **industrial** era (employer-employee; but more appropriately, tripartite relations given ultimate government involvement). In terms of content, it has metamorphosed from **union** to **job regulation** and then to **conflict** as observed by Zeb-Obipi (2018d). Its development has also witnessed contributions from different **persons** (Sydney and Beatrice Webb, John R. Commons, Robert F. Hoxie, John D. Rockefeller Jr., Montague Burton etc.), **institutions** (unions, wage board, Oxford School, System School, Behavioural School, Marxist School, employment laws etc.) and **disciplines** or related fields of study (Industrial Psychology, Industrial Sociology, Labor Economics, Labor Law, Organizational Behaviour etc.) (Ackers & Wilkinson, 2005). Each of these has affected the study and practice of Industrial Relations in ways that have resulted in different preferred nomenclatures. Thus:

(a) Industrial Relations frameworks as determinants of a preferred nomenclature brings to the fore Labor Relations in the Union Framework, Labor-Management Relations in the Rules/Regulation Framework, and Employee Relations in the Conflict Framework.

(b) Industrial Relations parties as determinants of a preferred nomenclature brings into focus Personnel Relations with employer and employee relationships, Labor Relations with management/employer association and union relationships, and Labor-Management Relations with union, management and government relationships.

(c) Industrial Relations theories as determinants of a preferred nomenclature indicate Personnel Relations from a Unitary Theory perspective, Labor or Employee Relations from a Pluralist Theory perspective, and Labor-Management Relations from a Marxist/Radical Theory perspective.

(d) Industrial Relations trend or contemporary concerns as determinants of a preferred nomenclature suggest Employee Relations consequent upon the decline of traditional industries following massive organizational restructuring and technological disruptions, rise in and preponderance of service industries and non-unionized firms, decrease in unions, union membership and power, emergence of non-unionized workplaces, emphasis on personal and socio-economic contracts and the increasingly embracive nature of Human Resource Management.

As part of the controversy, it has even been argued that Human Resource Management is an alternative nomenclature as it encompasses all the above, all the facets of Industrial Relations; as in when it deals with labor relations issues that are frequently a subarea of human resource management (John, 2010) or as in when it deals with "non-industrial" employment issues within it employment relations nomenclature and so come to bear resemblance to a trend in the distinct but interrelated field of human resource management (Banfield & Kay, 2008). This perhaps explains its treatment as part of the Human Resource Integration function of Human Resource Management by Tamunomiebi and Zeb-Obipi (2009). This is more so because it has been noted that the import of Industrial Relations and changes within it is associated with Human Resource Management that now provides a strategic, integrated and distinctive approach to managing people (Ghosh, 2010; Colling & Terry, 2010); and herein lies our point of reconciliation of the nomenclature controversy – accounting for the controversy to make the meaning of Industrial Relations clearer.

Origin, Growth/Development and Importance: Industrial Relations started with the Factory System of employment that accompanied the Industrial Revolution in the 18th century. This system of employment was characterized by: (a) the breakdown of the manorial and serfdom system of production, (b) formalization of work relationships through employment contract, (c) unequal relationship between the parties (employer and worker) in the employment contract, (d) exploitation of the worker, and (e) organization of workers into trade unions. With these factors emerged a discernable pattern of relationships between employers and employees. The pattern of relationships that emerged could be summarized thus: The Factory System of employment created two groups or classes of people at the workplace: initially owner-managers (employers) and labor-recruits (employees).

These two groups developed different and conflicting interests. This they sought to reconcile through various institutions, processes and rules. Sometimes, government intervenes to compel them to negotiate, and creates machineries and procedures to help them prevent and/or resolve their differences or conflicts. The sum of these in their various facets is what has come to constitute Industrial Relations today. In the words of Yesufu (1984), 'the term industrial relations' evolved to connote the many facets of the employer-worker relationship in conditions precipitated by the new industrialism. Onasanya (1999) must have had this pattern of relationships in mind when he asserted that Industrial Relations is concerned with relationships between trade unions and employers and the intervention of government in the relationships.

These relationships have undergone great metamorphosis between the 18th century and now. Such metamorphoses include its: (a) growth into a subject, (b) evolution into a separate and specialists function, (c) development of its own language and (d) increase in amount and diversity of contents, and (e) increase in the significance and impact on the lives of workers and society. Through all these changes, it has come to acquire a popular appeal, be linked with politics and affect the lives of all work people. Some factors are however, responsible for the growth and present status of IR. These factors include: (a) changes in firms' sizes and structures, (b) socio-cultural and political changes in industrial society, and (c) technological and market changes, (c) changes in the nature and size of workforce. Today, IR has become an organized business management function. It may not be an organized function in organizations where the relations are considered merely as human and personnel relations; and consequently may be organized under persons with humanities and related disciplines background. It may be part or unit of Personnel/Human Resource Management with an IR specialist or be separate from the Personnel/Human Resource Management Department. In this case, it could be run as a separate unit, department and even a division with possibly a Director on the Board of the organization.

Industrial Relations, which encompasses relationships from the office or shop floor to national and international levels or relationships at national, economic and industry levels, is important and serve several purposes. The purposes of IR could be stated to include the following: engendering industrial peace for maximum output, ensuring equitable distribution of industry's output, providing for power sharing at the work place, facilitating employees' identification with enterprise objectives, and enhancing the achievement of self-fulfillment by the workers. The importance of IR can equally be seen through the following: enterprise success, benefits for the economy, better management through specialist knowledge and skills, transition of small family concerns to multi-national and large concerns, substitution for the master-servant relationship of pre-industrialized societies, keeping industry at pace with society's democratization and respond to the increasing amount of laws governing employer-employee relationship.

Environment, Approaches and Theories of Industrial Relations: The environment of Industrial Relations refers to all factors outside (external to) an organization that affect its industrial relations. While factors that can affect an organization's industrial relations could be found within (internal) and outside (external) the organization, it is more apt to name the internal factors as constituting its industrial relations climate and the external factors as its industrial relations environment from the perspective of a focal organization. This comes to correct part of our work on this subject (Zeb-Obipi, Obiekwe & Ateke, 2019) wherein this distinction was wrongly asserted; a common mistake in the literature on business environment. It is therefore a misnomer to talk of an "internal environment" and tautological to talk of "external environment" as earlier indicated. Substituting the unarguable definition of business environment for environment in the terms in the quotation marks above shows the folly using those concepts just as someone talking of "Conceptual Operational Framework" in research rather than a "Conceptual Framework" or an "Operational Framework".

Fashoyin (1980) defined the environment of Industrial Rela-tions as consisting of political, economic and employment factors. However, in his discussion of the political environment we found what could pass for socio-cultural environment where he argued that "tribal and ethnic biases have penetrated labor-management relationships, particularly in the context of discrimination in employment and in the handling of labor-management disputes". Secondly, his employment factors can be encapsulated within the economic environment; and this brings to three, the dimensions of Industrial Relations environment (political, economic and socio-cultural environment) deduced from Fashoyin (1980). Others include the technological, international and media environment (Zeb-Obipi, Obiekwe & Ateke, 2019). Using the concept of "context", Salamon (1992), had asserted that there are three segments in the context of industrial relations: system segment (organizational, industry and national levels), society segment (political- government, legal and parties; economic- employment, market and technology; social- education, class and wealth), and time segment (past, future and media). All authors agreed that these are interwoven, influence industrial relations and are influenced by industrial relations.

References have earlier been made to the approaches and theories of Industrial Relations. Here is to assert that just as it is with its definitions, there are as many approaches, models and theories as one can imagine. Consequently, there are several analytical categorizations of these (Zeb-Obipi, 2018d; Salamon, 1992). In Salamon's perspective, the theories include Unitary (authoritarian and paternalism), Pluralistic (cooperation and conflict), and Marxist (evolution and revolution) theories which he considered as approaches to organizations and which in turn account for two broad categories of approaches to industrial relations: (a) input-output and system approaches and (b) human resource management and labor control approaches. For Zeb-Obipi (2018d), all the issues involved here are addressed by his proposed frameworks of industrial relations analysis consisting of the following: (a) Union, (b) Rule, and (c) Conflict Frameworks. These determine how Industrial Relations is perceived and approached, issues and situations are analyzed, parties behave and their behaviour influenced etc.

Industrial Relations Parties: Industrial relations suggest the existence of some relations considered to be industrial. Relations do not occur in a vacuum; they imply that persons or institutions are involved; and they are in some form of interactions which the concept of "relations' defines. These persons or institutions constitute the parties in the "relations". Obviously, if the relations are of the workplace or relate to industry, they do not only become industrial relations, but they also suggest the parties involved. At the factory or company level, the parties in industrial relations are the employer who owns the business, and employee who contributes labor. In their relationship, the employee is usually represented by a union. Unions exist in two categories: (a) Labor unions and (b) Staff Associations. While the labor unions are often restricted to junior staff, associations are for senior and management staff.

On the other hand, the employer is usually represented by management. Just as the employees come together to form a union, employers sometimes do same; hence employers' association. So employers are also represented by employers' associations. Both the trade unions and employers' associations constitute industrial unions. At this level, the relationship is bipartite. But in view of the unequal power relations between the two main parties in industry and in pursuance of some other (public) goals, a third party always get involved in industrial relations. This party is the government often represented by its various arms in general and the ministry of labor or employment and related agencies in particular. The involvement of government, which represents the State, changes Industrial Relations from a bipartite, to a tripartite, relationship.

The first party of interest at work is the employees, often represented by **Trade Unions (TU)**. There are different definitions of trade unions (Yesufu, 1984; Green, 1994). Common to the various definitions are two elements: association of workers and pursuit of work-related interests. The focus on these definitional elements avoids the debate over whether unions are temporary or permanent, continuous or discontinuous. Unions have been known to come into existence, undergo changes and even get extinct. It avoids the controversy over including employers' associations as trade unions. Again such a focus eliminates, in the definitions, the arguments whether the workers are wage earners or salary-earners, whether unions interest are limited to conditions and terms of employments or they include everything about their living standards, and whether unions regulate or negotiate conditions. It suffices, therefore, to define a trade union as a collection of workers for the pursuance of their work-related interests.

To further enhance our understanding of what trade unions are, let us also look at some related concepts. These include Industrial Union, Labor Union, Staff and Employers' Associations. If we are not to confuse these terms as they are frequently used, it is necessary we distinguish them while defining trade unions. An Industrial union is any group of people organized in industry for the pursuance of their particular interests in relation to others. It could be a trade union or trade association. While a trade association refers to employers' group, trade unions refer to both labor unions and staff associations. While the latter defines associations of management and other senior employees, labor unions are workers' or junior staff unions. These defining relationships could be depicted thus:

(a)	Industrial Unions	=	Trade Union and Trade Association
(b)	Trade Association	=	Employers' Association
(c)	Trade Unions	=	Labor Union and Staff Association
(d)	Staff Association	=	Management/Senior Employees' Association
(e)	Labor Union	=	Junior Employees' Union

One more way to make the meaning of Trade Unions clearer would be to examine their types. There are Craft, Industry, General, Guild and House Unions. Crafts are unions of people of the same vocational interest who associate regardless of their industries. Industry Unions are made up of persons of common employment or industry and assembled regardless of their profession, occupation or vocation. General Unions are peopled by any and every worker regardless of occupation and industry. Guilds are unions of craftsmen or tradesmen and women, working independently and associate only for the pursuance of interests that are more economic than being of industrial relations. Finally, house unions are industry unions built around a single employer or company and could have branches according to the company's territorial areas of operations. The literature on trade unions is quite immerse, is increasingly getting complex and is imbued with various ideological persuasions. To create and impose an order onto the existing materials, the literature could be divided into two groups of competing views namely: Leftists and Rightists views. While the leftists belong to the Marxist tradition, the rightists are of the Liberal Democratic tradition (Zeb-Obipi, 2004). Their various views highlight different dimensions and thrust of unions. Though some seem to contradict others and/or seem to be unreal, they do provide some information about unions; if not their essence, their nature, aspirations, modus operandi etc. They all enrich our knowledge of what Unions are, what they do and their limitations. So long as they are able to offer some explanations, we consider them useful as theories of trade unions.

Different trade unions could have different aims and objectives and adopt somehow different methods or perform different functions. However, some common elements have been found. For example, all unions would have the aim of articulating, protecting and advancing their members' interests. In pursuing this aim and related objectives, unions perform certain functions. Yesufu (1984) classified these into economic, political, and social and educational functions. Green (1994) was more specific, when he identified these functions as collective bargaining, safe guarding jobs, co-operation with employers, political activities, provision of social services and provision of friendly services. It is important to add other functions such as workforce organization and lobbies not only within a country but also involving international organizations. In brief, the functions, activities or methods of trade unions could be summed as follows: (i) Workforce organization and education, (ii) Collective bargaining and Joint Consultation, (iii) Provision of social and friendly services, (iv) Lobbying organizations, groups and individuals and (v) Political participation. The administration or organization of unions is expected to be democratic. But often it tends towards oligarchy in which the elected dominate the electors, the mandataries, the mandators and the delegates, the delegators. In cases where unions tend towards democracy for an exercise in workers' self-government, the extent of such democracy is usually measured by membership participation with a number of pointers (Zeb-Obipi, 2004)). Apart from union democracy, other issues about the administration and organization of unions include the structure of unions and central labor movement.

The second party in Industrial Relations is the employer. Just as employees have representatives through unionization, employers too do have parallel organizations referred to as **Employers' Association (EA)** or Trade Associations. Certain factors are responsible for the emergence of employers' associations. They have their peculiar characteristics, functions, objectives, structure and organizations. Therefore, to examine employers' association entails an analysis of these dimensions. With the industrial revolution, came a new class of entrepreneurs, the employer of labor. The employer of labor transited from an owner-manager business, an owner-family managed business, then to an employee-managed business. This transition involved changes in the forms of business organization and management structure from small sole proprietorships to the present day multinational organization and from owner manager structure to a multi-level structure of shareholders, board of directors and professional management. Herein lie the first reason for the emergence of EAs. They emerged as a result of the employer-employee divide that accompanied the industrial revolution. The second reason is the employers' loss of control of enterprise to an employee-management. The different forms and sizes of business and management structure where characterized by the company, corporate or legal status of business and separation of ownership from control; management replaced the employer. In the planning, organizing, directing and controlling of business, it is management that visibly exercises authority, responsibility and accountability.

The single employer becomes less powerful and weakened as the employer transits from being personal to being impersonal (as in a company or corporation) and got only personified in a management that consists mainly of employees. The position of the employer was not helped by the spread of unionism; and so the employer could have thought of a response to the threat to his position in industry through an association of employers. Such an association was thought to be able to check the spread and power of unions and create an avenue for cooperation with unions where and whenever necessary. When workers formed unions and unions spread widely through a combination of factors, the need for a parallel body for employers became inevitable. The need to regulate trade practices also accounts for the formation of employers' association. Different employers of the same trade will benefit more when they stand and act collectively. To exploit the collective benefits, they realized the need to form an association; hence the formation of employers' association. So the employer and employee divide that accompanied the industrial revolution, the employers' loss of control over their enterprise and the spread of unions coupled with the desire of employers to control their trade practices for their mutual benefits led to the formation of employers' association.

Employers' associations have various and diverse aims, purposes and objectives. Onansanya (1999) listed several of these. Some may be peculiar to a given organization, while others could be found with several associations. Generally speaking, the objectives of employers' associations revolve around protecting members' interests, providing mutual support, cooperation, training and machinery for negotiations and dispute settlement, securing equitable observance of agreements, encouraging the development of good industrial relations, and dealing with all matters of interest to the association including to consult, cooperate and affiliate with bodies with similar interests for mutual benefits. To achieve these objectives, EAs undertake a number of activities summarized into five thus:

(a) engaging in negotiations, consultations, and dispute settlement, (b) recognition and acceptance of unions, (c) giving advice and assistance to members, (d) providing representation to employers, and (e) defining and responding to industrial relations issues.

It is possible to conceive of different types of employers' associations, structured and organized differently. In all these, some common elements do exist. For types, there are bargaining (industrial) associations, non-bargaining (trade) associations and both bargaining and trade associations. In terms of organization, at least three patterns of organization exist. In the first pattern, individual employers, combine to form a national association. In the second pattern, associations of employers federate to form a national federation. In the third pattern, a national association operates through branches. The organization and structure of employers' association also indicate the existence of secretariats, committees and central organization. The secretariats are usually manned by salaried staff with an executive or administrative secretary. The committees could be standing, ad-hoc and functional commit-tees. A central organization could be in the form of a branched national association that engages in bargaining and protection of trade practices such as the Nigeria Employers' Consultative Association (NECA).

The third party in Industrial Relations is the **State** or Government. The State as the regulator and manager of every society (nation) participants in Industrial Relations and its participation makes Industrial Relations a tripartite one. In discussing the logic of Government intervention in Industrial Relations, Yesufu (1984: 32) provided us with a definition of the role of the State. According to him:

> So far as Industrial Relations is concerned, State intervention entails all the actions, direct or indirect, by means of which a government promotes, sustains or participates to influence or determine, the conditions of

> employment, and the relations between those directly involved in the employment contract- employers/ managers on the one hand and employees/trade unions on the other.

The involvement of the State in Industrial Relations is a matter of necessity. Most Industrial Relations matters have political, economic and legal elements. These in turn have implications for the State or/and are influenced by the State. So the State's actions in such matters take it into Industrial Relations. A second set of reasons that makes state participation necessary is the failure of laissez-faire industrial relations. At the time of the industrial revolution, Industrial Relations was practiced on the philosophy of laissez-fair. This philosophy was characterized by individual liberty, Bentham utilitarian principle (happiness or pleasure promoting acts are morally right, Jeremy Bentham: 1748-1832), free enterprise and contract, lack of state intervention and the interaction of demand and supply as the determinants of Industrial Relations issues. The laissez-fair Industrial Relations practice failed. With the failure came industrial misery for the worker, degradation of labor, exploitation of workers, warfare between unions and employers and retarded economic growth. To reverse this situation, it became necessary that laissez-fair Industrial Relations be replaced with one having government participation.

A third set of reasons that necessitated State intervention in Industrial Relations consists of what could be described as the imperatives of Industrial Relations. They are distinguished for their propelling effects on government to get involved in Industrial Relations. These imperatives include the: (i) experience of the world wars, (ii) economic depressions of the interwar periods, (iii) demands and pressures by electorates and organized labor, (iv) World ideological conflict, and (v) need to improve living standards. Yesufu (1984) discussed the foregoing as the logic for State intervention in industrial relations. He, however, used the framework of four categories namely: economic, historical and interventional, dominant employer obligation, and political and social reasons. These were discussed as justification of State intervention in industrial relations in Nigeria.

The State participates in Industrial Relations through the structure of government. It consists of the arms or organs of government. They are the Legislative, Executive and Judiciary. The legislature is the arm of government concerned with law making and functions in Industrial Relations at least in three ways: makes laws that affect Industrial Relations, intervenes for the smooth practice of Industrial Relations, and provides the legal framework for Industrial Relations. The Executive arm is responsible for the implementation and execution of laws and policies (it formulates) and functions in industrial relations in at least three ways: implementing laws relating to industrial relations, intervening for healthy industrial relations through relevant policies and actions and providing the administrative framework for industrial relations. The Judicial arm functions to interpret laws relating to industrial relations, moderate the roles of the other arms in industrial relations, and issue orders such as interlocutory injunctions relating to industrial relations where it finds necessary. It is pertinent to state that the most dominant arm in this structure is the Executive. It is more involved as it has ministries, agencies, and machineries that are regularly involved in day-to-day industrial relations, making policies that affect every day Industrial Relations. Even laws made by the Legislature and interpreted by the Judiciary are often introduced and their interpretations administered or enforced by the Executive in various areas.

The State intervenes in Industrial Relations in various areas (Green, 1994). Some of these areas are wage determination, income and productivity policies, employment, union and dispute laws on a variety of workplace issues and dispute settlements. In another perspective for the identification of the areas government intervenes in industrial relations and its roles, the State is considered being outside an employer, as a protector, rule maker, income regulator, manpower manager, statutory wage fixer and rationalizer of unions and associations in Industrial Relations. However, there are limitations to State participation in Industrial Relations. Some difficulties do arise that restrain the State in its extent of intervention. Such difficulties include the difficulty of: (a) anticipating and solving all problems arising from employment contract, (b) always getting the designed cooperation of the individuals and groups involved in industrial relations, (c) adequately dealing with the details and technicalities of work situation, (d) successfully decreeing a perfect relationship or cooperation between management and employees, and (e) knowing when to permit or ban strikes or lockout. To avoid these limitations or check their frustrating effects on its participation in Industrial Relations, the State could do the following: (i) intervene only by the dictates of realism, (ii) unequivocally declare and implement a labor policy, (iii) set only minimum and maximum standards, (iv) guarantee freedom of association and protection of unions and associations, (v) promote dialogue between management and employees, and (vi) ensure the existence of the necessary institutions and machineries, including those for the detection, prevention, minimization and resolution of conflict.

Industrial Conflict: Industrial conflict is one of the major issues in Industrial Relations. In fact, it is a family or cluster of issues ranging from industrial discontent to industrial action. The other related issues are grievance and trade or industrial disputes. That these various concepts are related explains why when even scholars differ as to the nomenclature under which the phenomenon of interest here is analyzed, the subject matter of their analysis is essentially the same – industrial conflict. From amongst the concepts of industrial discontent, grievance, conflict, dispute and action, we have chosen industrial conflict. This is because we consider conflict as being at the center of all these issues. For instance, it will not be out of place to argue that discontent or grievance reflects or signals a conflict just as any dispute or action is an expression of the existence of a conflict.

Industrial conflict refers to difference (s) between employee(s) and an employer or group of employers. Such differences are indicative of the existence of some form of industrial discontent experienced at the workplace. It is possible that this discontent may not be complained about; but when complained about and steps taken to remove the discontent, the conflict gets beyond being a discontent and becomes a grievance. According to Yesufu (1984), industrial discontent could be latent, passive or active; when active, it becomes a grievance. A grievance refers to any expressed dissatisfaction of a worker or group of workers arising from events at the workplace considered to be unfair, unjust or inequitable. Only a dissatisfaction or discontentment considered serious to warrant a complaint with a view to seeking a redress without resorting to sanctions is defined as a grievance. There are individual and collective grievances (Onasanya, 1999; Fashoyin, 1980). Individual grievances are complaints from an individual worker that he is dissatisfied with a matter or treatment. Such grievances are associated with the violation of personal rights, personal discrimination and other unjust treatments. Collective grievances, on the other hand, are complaints involving a group of workers over matters or treatments they share common dissatisfaction. Grievances over wrong interpretation, application or violation of legislations affecting the workers, breakdown in collection bargaining; and collectivization of individual grievances are examples of collective grievances.

When a grievance is collective, promoted by a union, and unsatisfactorily addressed, it could result into an industrial or trade dispute. Here industrial conflict takes the form of a disagreement over the failure of either labor or management to meet the demands of the other. To be very distinct, at the point where a demand or complaint is made that a discontent be addressed, we have grievance only. But at the point where such a demand is turned down and no longer seems to have any prospect of being met, a dispute is declared. An industrial dispute graduates into an industrial action when a sanction is applied by any party in the dispute to compel its opponent to meet its demand. So an industrial action is essentially an industrial conflict in which the parties in the conflict resort to the use of punitive measures. For an individual worker, such measures would manifest in labor turnover, absenteeism, unwillingness to work, inefficiency and ineffectiveness. For the union and management, the action could be any of the following: go-slow, work-to-rule, overtime ban, sit-in, work-in strike, picketing, lockout etc. (Green, 1994, Yesufu, 1984).

The causes and effects of industrial conflict are numerous. No one single list by any scholar can be said to be comprehensive and exhaustive. A sample of such lists in three clusters include: (a) Complaints over wages and incentives, supervision and discipline, seniority and promotion, transfer and assignments, working conditions, agreement violation, management dissatisfaction with workers, conflict of interests between union and management etc.; (b) Isolation, organizational style, method and technology, temperature of workgroup, on-work social lives of workers; and (f) Counter complaints against parties' techniques such as unfair, unjust and unequal treatment of workers by their superiors, acts of incitements by unions, terms of employment, physical conditions of work, conflict of interests, technological advancement and spheres of decision (Zeb-Obipi, 2004; Onasanya, 1999; Yesuf, 1984).

The impact or effects of industrial conflict could be measured in at least four ways. These are through the various dimensions of the conflict, levels, points of impact, and favorability. In terms of dimensions, the effects of conflict could be ascertained using the number of industrial actions, frequency of industrial actions, working days lost due to the conflict, and number of workers involved. Statistics on these will show fluctuations overtime and trade cycle; and differences in severity and occurrence in relation to industry, type and size of organizations and society.

In terms of levels, the effects of conflict could be assessed as they relate to the levels of conflict discussed earlier. The effects of a discontent will be different from those of grievances; and those of a dispute will be different from those of an industrial action. In fact, it is possible to have a higher-level conflict as one of the effects of a lower level conflict. For instance, at discontent, an employee's moral and output could drop and complaint made (grievance). Grievance could result into absenteeism, labor turnover and dispute declared. Dispute could result into a general or widespread low morale, inefficiency and an industrial action such as strike or lockout being embarked upon. The effects of the industrial action could include loss of productivity, customers, revenue, pay and employment, and bad image. In terms of the point of impact, the effect of industrial conflict could be viewed in four perspectives namely: the worker, union, company and society. The point here is that industrial conflict affects the worker, union, company and society. Some of these effects have been mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs. The worker could lose employment and pay. The union could loss membership and strength. The company could lose profit and suffer damage to its properties. The society could suffer an industrial unrest and a stifled development. In terms of favorability, the effects of industrial conflict are assessed as either being positive or negative. Industrial conflicts have both positive and negative effects. Positively they highlight problems and correct mistakes. The existence of a conflict indicates the presence of problems and mistakes. Negatively, the effects of conflict range from lost morale, loss of productivity to some grievous social problems.

In any discussion of industrial conflict, strike is given a dominant place. The reasons for this derive from the fact that it is the strongest manifestation of industrial conflict. So while all industrial conflicts are not strikes, strike is the most obvious and has the greatest impact among conflicts. This perhaps explains the attempts to build a theory of strike. We shall discuss two of such attempts to build a theory of strike (Green, 1994; Bastone, Boraston and Frenkel, 1980).

Green (1994) considered strike as one of the major Industrial Relations issues. For him, it is an expression of a fundamental right of workers to withdraw labor in the event of a disagreement or dispute with management. Such a dispute could be over right, interest, grievance, discipline and policy. According to him, strikes could be official or unofficial depending on whether or not the stipulated procedures were followed before calling the strike and authorized person(s) or body called the strike.

In Green's (1994) view, strike is the ultimate sanction of unions and largely determines their bargaining power. It creates a balance of power between employees and employers, demonstrates some dissatisfaction with a current state of affairs and provides a measure of the state of Industrial Relations. He said strike could be caused by: divergence of interest, breakdown of consensus, procedural inefficiency, negotiating tactics and political tendencies. From Green's (1994) work we deduced some postulations about strike that are very interesting. These are: (a) Strike as a right is restricted by legal requirements and agreed procedure. (b) The number of strikes and days lost fluctuate as when the number of strikes is increasing days lost are decreasing. (c) The number of strikes tends to increase with economic, development while the severity of strike increases in periods of economic decline. (d) Just as the severity of strike differs amongst organizations, the type and size of an organization, government policy and legislation also affect the level of strike. (e) Strikes are undertaken by workers as a fundamental expression of their rights, means of expression of failure to reach agreement, means to compel management to negotiate, means to force management to make concession or better offer and means to achieve quick settlement. (f) Strike-free deals are possible where unions agree that no industrial action can take place until certain procedures are exhausted, duration of an agreement aspires, provision is made for compulsory arbitration and legally enforceable peace clause is included in the agreement.

There is no doubt that Green's (1994) contributions have increased our general knowledge of strike, but they have not spoken much about the nature of strike as a social process. Bastone, Boraston and Frenkel (1980) provided us with a rather detailed work on this. Their aim was to bring to light the social processes that underlie strikes and near-strikes. Thus, they began with definitions of the social processes of strike and ended with those social processes beneath the management of discontent. In terms of definition, they opined that not all output restrictions constitute work stoppage; and not all work stoppages constitute strikes. What constitutes a strike is defined by social processes such as: an expressed intent by the workers that their work stoppage is a strike, workers leaving the plant or company to effect the work stoppage, management taking the workers of the clock, but defining the work stoppage as illegitimate. The implications of these social definitions of strike are that the statistics of strike usually reported are not correct, strikes are under-reported, union and management have differing records of number of strikes and that management plays a major role in the existence and duration of strikes.

Given the social processes that underlie strikes, the use of the conventional dimensions of strike analysis (number of workers) provide only limited insight into the social organization of strikes. From the work of Bastone, Boraston and Frenkel (1980), we came to the conclusion that what could give a better insight into the social organization of strikes is the analysis of the context of strike, strike vocabularies, strike initiatives and checks, dynamics of strikes, strike claims, mobilization for strike, and management of discontent. The context of strike consists of the background conditions or factors that facilitate a strike action. They include technology, work organization, worker organization, management organization, bargaining relationships, and strike alternatives. All these could make a strike possible to the extent that they provide power to the workers both in terms of the ability to disrupt production and the ability of management or workers to obstruct the other's goals. Given power, the next thing in the social organization of strike is strike vocabularies.

Strike vocabularies are the plethora of rationales in support and in opposition of strike action. The vocabularies in support of strike are in multiples and complex (making strikes multi-casual). They vary among groups and individuals, vary generally, change even in the course of action, have "build-up" characteristics and are often attributed to management. Examples include management breaking agreements, management not being fair, loss of money and security, safety and work conditions and increase earning. Vocabularies in opposition to strike are also multi-faceted, related to the nature of larger situations and are often advanced by the union leadership and elite group. Examples include norms against strikes, available alternatives, problems in strikes, and criticisms of the case for a strike. The vocabularies whether for or against strikes could further be distinguished into individualistic and collectivist vocabularies. While the former are rationales in pursuit of the interests of individual workers, possibly using collective means and account for lower level strikes, the latter are in pursuit of the interests of workers as a collectivity, stressing consciousness and group identity and account for higher level strike actions.

Another set of social processes that underlie strikes or near-strikes are strike initiatives and checks. Strike initiatives refer to the first proposals that work be stopped as a sanction against management in support of a given demand. Strike checks, on the other hand, refer to the counter proposals. These proposals and counter proposals could come from the ordinary worker; but they are mostly from the grievers, opinion leaders and stewards. The resources and level of influence of each of these initiators vary and so is the level of strike action they can initiate or check. A strike initiative or check by any one of these actors could receive varying patterns of support and opposition by the other actors. The development or avoidance of a strike action depends on the distribution of power and influence amongst these actors with the opinion-leaders and stewards having dominant power.

A combination of the context of strike, the strike vocabularies and strike initiatives and checks provides strikes with its dynamics. Characteristically, the dynamics of strikes could be stated thus: (a) Strikes involve the development of complex vocabularies, negotiations and decisions. (b) Strikes involve different types of actors engaged in different roles and at different levels. (c) Strikes, no matter how they start, could involve both domestic and non-domestic organizations. (d) Strikes and near-strikes are affected by the role management plays such as conceding to workers' demand, aggravating action towards strike or near strike and mobilizing resources to withstand or avoid strikes. (d) Strikes and threat of strikes constitute integral part of the organizational pattern and development within a workplace.

After the dynamics of strikes, Bastone, Boraston and Frenkel (1980) examined several other social processes underneath strikes. These are strike claims, negotiations and compromises, mobilization of members, power unity and mass decision, preparation for confrontation, the eleventh hour, dispute in retrospect, and mobilization and management of discontent. For analytical convenience, we consider the first three as matters relating to strike claims, the next five as issues involving the mobilization for strikes and the last two as general management of strikes (Zeb-Obipi, 2004). The social process of strike claims suggests that strikes are characterized by the development of claims and counter claims by a union and management through structured negotiations. Negotiations are structured in terms of time and period, process, levels, stages (and content). Both the union and management follow careful and detail procedures to develop and pursue their claims with a view to having possible compromises; but with also preparations for possible strike. A preparation for strike would require some mobilization, another social process.

Our deductions from the theory of social organization of strikes are: (a) When management fails to react to cues by union that could prevent a strike, the union adopts a fail-safe strategy, grounds of compromise get changed and both are forced into a structural conflict. (b) Management weaknesses coupled with union's concerns propel union to provide education and leadership to its members to win majority in favor of a strike. (c) The move towards strike is checked on a number of occasions and, ways. (d) A strike problem is not automatic but a product of definitions of a situation by workers through discussions often characterized by attitude build-up, ambivalence and variety of changing perspectives. (e) Though it has been argued that major strikes involve an explosion of class-consciousness, and in build-ups towards strikes, workers fluctuate between individualistic and collective perspectives or consciousness. (f) A union leadership in mobilizing for a strike is concerned with the choice of a strategy as much as it is with the implications of the subject matter of the strike. (g) Democratic bodies, procedures or mechanisms as well as the techniques and strategies applied and sources of influence of workers' leadership play crucial roles in the organization of strikes. (h) Strike is a form of collective action, involves some degree of organization and the organization required is often a complex and uncertain process. (i) Strike is a continuous possibility in any Industrial Relations system and emerges into other forms of collective action and behaviour. (j) The management of the discontent that underlie strikes involves the use of general vocabularies and network of influence, creates problems for workers' leadership which is both conditional and delicate, and is in a two-way influence with institutional, organizational process and structural factors. Strikes and indeed industrial conflicts can be prevented, minimized or resolved quickly, even where they occur, through the management of the institutions of job regulation. Thus, institutions of job regulation become an important part of Industrial Relations as a field of study and practice.

Institutions of Job Regulation: Zeb-Obipi (2018d) asserted that the Rule approach to Industrial Relations sees it as the study of the establishment and administration of rules (Dunlop, 1958); the study of the institutions of job regulation (Flanders, 1965); and as a behavioural theory of labor negotiations based on the rule-making mechanism (Walton and Merkesie, 1965). In this approach, the rules for the governance of the workplace through Industrial Relations are identified and the network of variables involved in their making and administration are analyzed. Rule-making, therefore, is the core of industrial relations theorizing within this framework. Evidence of this could be found in the Oxford and Systems models. This view of Industrial Relations is supported by Oxford Reference (2022) in its declaration that:

> Academic industrial relations was defined by Hugh Clegg, one of its founders in the UK, as the study of job regulation. The concept of job regulation refers to the rules that govern the content of employment relationship and the behaviour and activities of employees, employers, and their representatives. The study of job regulation is therefore the study of the creation, application, and effects of job or employment rules.

There are different employment or industrial relations rules based on different criteria of classification: formal/written/ status vs informal/ customary/norm rules, substantive vs procedural rules, and custom/ practice, joint regulation, unilateral regulation, vs statutory rules. The third division bespeaks the methods by which industrial relations rules are made; herein lies the institutions of job regulation. So an institution of job regulation refers to an industrial relations mechanism or method for the creation and application of rules to govern the workplace. Flanders (1965) classified them into unilateral, joint, tripartite, statutory and social regulations. For Clegg (1980), there are four methods of job regulation: collective bargaining, managerial regulation, trade union regulation and statutory regulation. Using an adjudicative perspective, Coleman et al (1975) identified three adjudicative rule making processes: rule enforcement, rule information and rule interpretation. Ahiauzu (1999) identified three types of institutions of job regulation: managerial, joint and social regulations. Given these diverse perspectives, their areas of agreement and disagreement, the Inaugural Lecturer has come to the conclusion that the various methods of job regulation can be classified into five categories: **Unilateral, Joint, Statutory, Social and Convention Regulations.**

Unilateral regulation entails decisions and actions of either management or union to the exclusion of the other that affect work and work relationships such as lockout or strike. In joint regulation, both parties, and sometimes government, take collaborative decisions and actions for the regulation of work as evident in joint consultation, collective bargaining, disciplinary, grievance and dispute settlement procedures and industrial democracy (employee voice, involvement, participation etc.). With statutory regulation, reference is to rules emanating from the State through the making, interpreting and enforcing of laws, formulation and implementation of policies and programmes relating to employment and labor, and instances of government interventions (minimum wage, trade dispute, safety and health laws, labor policy, industrial jurisprudence etc.).

Social regulation entails customs and practices inherited over time and taken for granted as accounting for decisions and actions of employers and employees or their representatives and so serve as work rules; evidence of this can be found in both parties' support for some social programmes and infrastructure to boost employees' commitment to the organization and work (Zeb-Obipi & Agada, 2018; Agada & Zeb-Obipi, 2018). This is the "**So-therefore**" at our Senior Staff Club that follows the pronouncements of promotion, especially those of Professors in our school. For Convention regulation, reference is to the range of standards set or recommendations made by the International Labor Organization (ILO) that governments and parties in industries across the globe have adopted through ratifications to regulate work and referred to as International Conventions. There are quite a number of such Conventions; at least there are eight fundamental conventions (Conventions 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 138, 182, III) and four governance conventions (Convention 81, 122, 129 and 144).

In the field of Industrial Relations, we have made a number of contributions in addition to our teaching content and those earlier mentioned; and some of these include:

i. Delineation of the subject matter of Industrial Relations as it evolved from union, to job regulation and to conflict, the applicable web of discipline approach, and the union, rule and conflict frameworks of analysis (Zeb-Obipi, 2018d). An outstanding contribution of this work is the reformulation of earlier works by the Oxford and System Schools that saw a change in the Industrial Relations definitional equations of $r = f(c,b)$, associated with the Oxford or Institutional School, and $r = f(a,t,e,s,i)$ related to the System School, to a more parsimonious one, $r = f(a,c,i)$. Furthermore, inadequacies in Dunlop's sub-systems of society that omitted the sociocultural subsystem (very important in an African context) and where Industrial Relations was put on the same plane of analysis with the political and economic subsystems were corrected.

ii. Design of a collective bargaining taxonomy of three domains (Context, Process and Outcomes) for a path through the theory jungle (Zeb-Obipi, 2002), the application of its context element to define the structure of collective bargaining in Nigeria's oil industry (Zeb-Obipi & Bagshaw, 2002) and account for its role in conflicts in the oil industry in Nigeria (Zeb-Obipi, 2009).

iii. Account of how patient management is affected by strikes (Zeb-Obipi & Meze-Enyindah, 2006).

iv. Application of game theory in collective bargaining for conflict resolution (Bagshaw & Zeb-Obipi, 2003).

v. How forced compliance (managerial regulation) predicts employee effectiveness (Uzobuenyi & Zeb-Obipi, 2018).

vi. Established relationship between Industrial Relations environment and organizational resilience and the implications of this relationship for Nigerian managers (Zeb-Obipi, Obiekwe & Ateke, 2019).

vii. How workers' well-being is affected by their indirect voices such as collective bargaining, joint consultative council and work council (Dienye, Zeb-Obipi & Biriowu, 2020).

viii. Impact of compromise conflict management style on organizational health (Bamson & Zeb-Obipi, 2020).

4.5 Managerial Orientations

Zeb-Obipi (2021a) has argued that the choice of behavioural techniques for use by a manager depends on the manager's orientation defined as the disposition or mindset of the manager towards management, organization and theories them. Offering an **activity model** of managerial behaviour (managerial activities, functions and roles) based on the works of scholars like Taylor, Fayol and Mintzberg and a **behavioural model** of managerial behaviour (managerial styles, skills and dispositions) informed by works such as the Ohio, Michigan and Scandinavian studies, Zeb-Obipi (2021a) asserted that managerial behaviour is driven by any one of three orientations: **firm-minded, relations-minded and development-minded orientations**. He observed that the three schools of thought on managerial behaviour (Function, Work Activity and Behavioural Schools) are related to one another in any given managerial orientation. Using the elements of functions, roles and skills he demonstrated their relationship with George and Jones' (1996: 13-14) declaration:

"Managers perform their functions by assuming specific roles in organizations (and they need skills) to perform their functions and roles…. Management functions, roles, and skills are intimately related." Looking at the definitions or descriptions of functions, roles and skills, their relationships can further be seen. ***Functions:*** A set of general and broad categories of tasks of an officer that indicates the roles of the officer and the performance of which he requires certain skills (e.g. planning, organizing, directing and controlling functions). ***Roles***: A set of behaviours or tasks a person is expected to perform because of the person's position in a group or organization: and the position is suggestive of the functions of the person (e.g. interpersonal, decisional and informational roles). ***Skills:*** An ability to act in a way that allows a person to perform well in a role (e.g. conceptual, human and technical skills). To further highlight the relationships amongst the elements of managerial behaviour, Zeb-Obipi (2021a) undertook an exploration of the literary meanings of some of the other concepts related to managerial orientations. These include behaviour, mind as used in mindset, disposition and style. Our reference here is the Webster's New Encyclopedia Dictionary (1995).

Behaviour is defined as the way a person acts, functions, reacts or a particular way of conduct – manner or process of carrying on. Mind is defined as a way of thinking or feeling; and when used in the phrase "to mind" or compound, minded, indicates "to be concerned over something" or have a given disposition. Disposition is defined as a natural attitude towards something or an inclination, an act or action of bending towards something or a tendency to a particular state, character or action. Finally, style is defined as a method or manner of acting or performing, and when done in accordance with some standards it becomes skill – an ability or dexterity that comes from training and practice. Common to all these concepts are the terms act, action and manner. Depending on the angle from which they are viewed, they represent two things: a way of thinking and a way of acting. There is no doubt that thinking underlies action and action reflects thinking. Thus, a manager of a given disposition or mindset (firm-minded, relation-minded or development-minded) will exhibit an appropriate style (task, consideration or development) and will have more of the relevant/applicable skills (technical, conceptual and human/political skills). So much for skills, styles and mindsets as aspects of managerial behaviour driven by an orientation that makes a manager prone or averse to applying behavioural science technique in people management.

The application of behavioural science techniques requires or involves some methods and processes. There is also no doubt that such applications could be fraught with problems given the context of application. In this section of the literature survey, attention is shifted to briefly examine these methods, processes and context. From the dictionaries, including the encyclopedic ones, several definitions and descriptions of these terms or concepts of interest here have been provided. The term method refers to a regular systematic plan, way or procedure of doing something, an orderly arrangement, a habitual regularity or orderliness. Relating these to our context, the relevant issues are the systematic habitual, regular, continuous and orderly application of the behavioural techniques. On these indices and as they combine to characterize a method in diverse extent, we conceive three methods by which the behavioural techniques are applied. The first method we wish to call the **"incidental method"**. The word "incidental" relates to the concept of "incidence". This is an unusual event or an unintended event that occurs only as a result of the occurrence of an intended event. It is something that happens unexpectedly, an event seen as part of a whole situation, occurring by chance, not by design. It is an episode that occurs not in the way intended, occurring merely by chance or without intention. It is an accompanying event of a secondary importance or minor consequence that only happens depending on or relating to another event which is the main and intended episode that is of primary importance or major consequence – the designed event. So an "incidental method" simply means a way of doing things that happens without any clear intention of so to do. Regularly and rather habitually or on a continuing bases, managers have been found to do things they least intended or situations and pressures have forced them to do. This method has been associated with managerial behaviour a long time ago. It is evident in the nature of managerial job or work and in the political and intuitive approaches to management.

The very nature of managerial work requires some form of incidental, political or intuitive approach. A manager's work is not as orderly and systematic, as often presented. This is the core of the matter in the arguments of Mintzberg (Pugh, 1984) involving the "folklore and facts about managerial work" preceding his grand theory of managerial roles. According to him: "Considering the facts about managerial work, we can see that the manager's job is enormously complicated and difficult…. Brevity, fragmentation, and verbal communication characterize his work. (The) pressures of his job drive the manager to be superficial in his actions – to overload himself with work, encourage interruption, respond quickly to every stimulus, seek the tangible and avoid the abstract, make decisions in small increments, and do everything abruptly" (Pugh, 1984: 423-424, 433). Another evidence of the incidental method in management exist in the political and intuitive approaches to management (Baridam, 2021). Having explained the incidental method and illustrated it occurrence in management, what does it mean to say that a behavioural technique is being applied through the incidental method? The expected answer is that the manager seems to have employed or used a given technique incidentally. It was not by design, but by chance. It came unto him in his daily routines or as he seeks to solve a given problem, some of the elements of such techniques emerged. It is not his intention to do so or neither is it an organizational policy for him to do so – apply the said technique. This brings us to two other or alternative methods, Personal Initiative and Organizational Policy.

By the **personal initiative method**, the manager consciously accesses and applies a said behavioural technique to facilitate his job. This he does without the organization expressly providing for the application of such a technique. Where such provisions are even made, this method is seen to apply where discretion, more than organizational guidelines, is the driving force behind the manager's application of a given technique. This method has certain things in common with the incidental method. It is necessitated by the nature of managerial work. It is part of political behaviour and could be an aspect of applying intuition to managing. But the fact that it is deliberate, intended and a chosen course of action designed to achieve well thought out consequences distinguish it from the Incidental Method. References to managers' resort to their judgment to make independent choices (Stamp, 2000; Vickers, 1984) support the Personal Initiative Method. So what does it mean to claim that a manager applies a given behavioural technique via the method of Personal Initiative? To us, it means that the manager has defined the problem before him, gone to his kit of managerial tools, considered the technique appropriate in solving the problem and applied that technique to solve the problem. More importantly, he has done all these not because the organizational policies require him to do so, but of his volition. This is because, after all, an initiative refers to a personal capacity to think up and begin an action, to introduce a policy or measure, or to act on one's own ideas without any prompting from some other person (or organization).

The third method, **organizational policy**, is perhaps the most obvious means of techniques applications in organizations in other areas (technical). Here, an organization prescribes what techniques managers should apply, which manager or managers at what level should apply which techniques and under what circumstances a given technique should be applied. This is because a "Policy is a guideline or organizational action and the implementation of goals and objectives" (Mullins, 1996: 91-108). It provides the basis of decision-making and the course of action to follow. More specifically, it defines the 'how', 'where' and 'when' means to achieve objectives by providing rules, plans and procedures in the form of directives. Now, let us put this within the context of the discussion here as we have done with the two earlier methods. To assert that a behavioural technique is being applied through the method of organizational policy is to suggest any or all of the following; (a) it is formulated into an organizational policy, (b) it is part of an existing organizational policy, and/or (c) it is reflected in a given organizational policy. So even before looking out for the practice of such a technique and in addition to possibly identifying such a practice, one should be able to find elements of the behavioural techniques of interests in policies of the organization. Where to look out for these would include Human Resource Management, Industrial Relations and Corporate Policy areas. The extent to which these policy areas reflect the concerns of behavioural techniques indicates the extent of the application of such techniques through the Organizational Policy Method.

Whether or not a behavioural technique gets applied through the method of incidence, personal initiative or organizational policy, any application must entail the entrance of the technique into the organization. It is this entrance process we have conceived as constituting “Application Process” in the context of our discourse. Our reference definitions of this term “Process” suggest that it is a series of actions, operations or changes taken or undertaken to achieve a particular result or leading to a given end. To us, it is a set of goal directed and interrelated activities that are undertaken either simultaneously or sequentially on an ongoing basis with feedback chains. With these descriptions of a process, for “application process”, we are looking for a set of activities that leads to the entrance or emergence of a behavioural technique in an organization. There are, at least, three possible sets of such activities namely: Manpower Procurement, Management Development, and Organizational Development.

Human resource procurement is used to denote all the web of activities involved in getting workers to become members of an organization. It begins from where human resource planning stops and progresses through recruitment, selection, employment offer, induction to placement. It has been variously described as the staffing or employment function of management and business (Baridam, 2021; Ahiauzu & Nwokeye, 1984). Though scholars may not agree on the exact details of the activities involved in this function, whether or not it should be an enterprise or managerial function and variations across organizations, there is no doubt that it has "to do with getting people into the organization" (Ahiauzu & Nwokeye, 1984: 132). Herein lies its relevance in this discourse. Through human resource procurement, people come into an organization with already acquired techniques. For most managers, especially those who have been exposed to the social and behavioural sciences in general and Organizational Behaviour and Theory in particular, these acquired or learned techniques either through past experiences or schools would include the behavioural techniques. As they come into the organization and are assigned responsibilities over others, the behavioural techniques they came with are likely to come into play either through incidence, personal initiatives or within the policy provisions of the organization. It is possible sometimes to find such managers lacking in the behavioural techniques. Some managers could have risen from the rank and file "with inadequacies" in such techniques (Moorhead & Griffin, 1995: 480). Or for some other reasons, an organization may want its managers to be exposed to the behavioural techniques through the process of management development.

Management development which has been in practice since the 13th century (Keil: Pugh, 1984) has been described as one of the triggers of the studies on managerial behaviour and to it such studies have made the greatest contributions (Steward, 2000). Introducing an integrated model of managerial behaviour and management development, Mullins (1996) has this to say:

> Managers need a balance of technical, social and conceptual knowledge and skills, acquired through a blend of education and experience. There is therefore, a continual need for managerial development… Development involves a combination of knowledge and varied experience. These are seen as taking place through a combination of both theoretical and practical involvement. **The advancement of human relations skills is ideally seen as stemming from deliberate and constructive self-development** (511 - 512). [Emphasis mine]

So through the process of management development, managers are enabled to acquire and bring into play most of the behavioural techniques. It is assumed that the managers are exposed to the behavioural techniques in the course of a management development program and that techniques learnt are brought into or used in the organization. Consequently, management development becomes one of the processes by which behavioural techniques get applied in an organization. Hence it is considered an application process.

Another application process that could be inclusive of, but is far more than, management development, is **Organizational Development** (OD). Miles (1975; 192) stated that OD, in its advanced form, "represents the zenith of applied behavioural sciences in organization today": French and Bell (Armstrong, 2001: 258) defined it thus: "A planned systematic process in which applied behavioural science principles and practices are introduced into an organization towards the goals of effecting organizational improvement, greater organizational competence and greater organizational effectiveness". Organizational development, on its own, is therefore, a behavioural science. According to Luthans (1985), Organizational Development started as an applied behavioural science involving the use of laboratory training and survey feedback to provide insights into total systems. Laboratory training and survey feedback were the two historical stems of OD; with laboratory training employing the techniques of T-Group or Sensitivity Training and Grid Training. Today, it encompasses any planned, comprehensive and long range change, emphasizes a wide range of values and concepts, and involves the participation of a change agent, intervention and action research. More specifically, OD underlying values include concerns for human feelings, open expression, efficacy of confrontation, participative decision-making and self-direction and control.

Related to these are its underlying concepts such as experiential learning, system-wide change, problem-solving, process-learning, and continuous monitoring (Miles, 1975). It consists of a set of behavioural techniques which seeks to introduce other behavioural techniques into an organization. The detail activities involved in an Organizational Development process have been described in various frameworks. Those we found to be widespread in the literature include: (a) Intervention/Entry, (b) Process Consultation, (c) Selection of Techniques, (d) Establishment of Sustaining Mechanisms, and (e) Continuous Process Review. These activities define the stages and procedure of Organizational Development as a process of change management, organizational problem solving, and more importantly, introducing behavioural techniques into an organization. It is for this last reason we consider it as a behavioural techniques application process. In other words, behavioural techniques get applied in an organization through the process of organizational development.

In addition to the techniques' application methods and processes, the last issue that is of interest here is the technique application context – the source of application problems and facilitators. An application problem is conceived as an impediment or factor that limits or poses difficulties to the application of a behavioural technique. Where it does not deter application, it constrains of a behavioural technique. Where it does not deter application, it constrains it, restricts the tendencies of applying the techniques or even interferes with the possible outcomes of the application in a manner that is rather undesirable. Against this background, we have identified four possible application problems: Awareness, Technique Development, Intellectual Transfer and Change where these facilitate, rather than impede application, they are considered as facilitators. Our emphasis here, however, is their constraining effects. Let us briefly examine them.

Awareness is having or showing realization, perception or knowledge of something (Lorimer & Douglas, 1995; Webster's New Encyclopedia Dictionary, 1995). It involves being conscious and informed of something. To be aware is to know, be conscious or informed; more appropriately is to be abreast of something– knowing all, including the most recent facts or information, about a thing, subject or situation. It is a problem because most managers are not aware of most of the behavioural techniques, let alone the most recent ones. Even with those they are aware of, the extent of the awareness is often not sufficient. For instance, suppose a manager has knowledge of the existence of a given technique, a problem exists in terms of how much of it he knows, the circumstances and how of its application. As a matter of precedence, even where a manager may not know that what he is doing exists as a theoretical formulation, an awareness of what he is doing must come before the actual doing. If this is true, then it is impossible to have any technique applied without knowledge of such technique. In fact, the extent of application of a technique is dependent on the extent of knowledge the applying manager has of the technique. Where such a knowledge is inadequate the manager experiences difficulties in applying such a technique.

Another application problem is **technique development**. By technique development, we mean the extent to which behavioural science concepts and theories have been advanced from just being concepts and theories to being practically useable tools. It involves bridging the gap between theory and practice; for as Pugh (1984: 9) asserts: "Every act of a manager rests on assumptions about what has happened and conjures about what will happen, that is to say it rests on theory. Theory and practice are inseparable". Unfortunately, behavioural science concepts and theories differ in the extent to which the inseparability of theory and practice is ensured; thus, some of them do show a theory-practice gap in their development. Herein lies the problem. For instance, some behavioural scientists just churn out theories without paying attention to their implications for practice, so managers acknowledge their existence but do not or cannot use them (Miles, 1975). To avoid this, those who are conscious of this flaw and are devoted to developing techniques from concepts and theories, in their works, explore, address or suggest implications, best practices, "Frequently Asked Questions," (FAQs), "actionists" or "checklists", "dos and don'ts", "common mistakes" and "making it happen" lists etc. (Goleman, 2002). In view of the foregoing, it will not be out of place to claim that the extent to which the body of knowledge on a given technique includes these indices of technique development determines the extent of development of such a technique. So the questions to ask that are relevant to technique development include: Do the theories behind the techniques suggest implications for management? How relevant are they to the problems of an organization? Is there research evidence on the application of the inherent concepts and theories? What are the successes and problems of the application? Answers to these and other related questions could facilitate or restrain managers' behaviour in the application of behavioural techniques.

Intellectual transfer is the next problem managers face in their attempt to apply behavioural techniques (Cooper and Schindler, 2001). A manager may not have the awareness and technique development problems i.e. he is abreast of a given technique, up to the point of the action-lists. But just as a swimming student could be abreast of all swimming techniques and yet may not be a competent swimmer and could even drown at a first attempt to swim, a manager may not be able to apply a given taken until an intellectual transfer occurs between the behavioural scientist and the manager.

The problem of intellectual transfer is in the distinction between propositional and procedural knowledge as illustrated by Wikipedia (2005b: 104):

> Suppose that Fred says to you: "The fastest swimming stroke is the front crawl. One performs the front crawl by oscillating the legs at the hip, and moving the arms in an approximately circular motion". Here, Fred has propositional knowledge of swimming and how to perform the front crawl. However, if Fred acquired this propositional knowledge from an encyclopedia, he will not have acquired the skill of swimming: he has some propositional knowledge, but does not have any procedural knowledge or "know-how". In general, one can demonstrate know-how by performing the task in question, but it is harder to demonstrate propositional knowledge.

From the foregoing illustration, the problem of intellectual transfer in behavioural technique application involves the transition from propositional knowledge to procedural knowledge that makes technique application demonstrable. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) provided evidence of this problem in the distinction between "successful and unsuccessful sciences", knowledge and behaviour, and in learning by doing on the premises that pure knowledge is limited in value unless it can be applied in real situation. They argued that the successful sciences of chemistry, physics, and physiology provide students or practitioners "direct experiences in using their new technical skills in the laboratory" but the unsuccessful sciences of psychology, sociology and political science:

> do not seem to equip students with a single social skill that is useable in ordinary human situations (as) no continuous and direct contact with social facts is contrived for the student. He learns from books, spending endless hours in libraries; he reconsiders

> ancient formular, uncontrolled by the steady development of experimental skills, the equivalent of the clinic or indeed the laboratory (Mayo: Hersey and Blanchard, 1996: 4).

They also observed that the early contributions to the behavioural sciences provided knowledge without effecting changes in behaviour – no intellectual transfer. Change in knowledge becomes manifest in change in behaviour only when intellectual transfer has occurred. Such a transfer is expected to proceed thus: knowledge changes, attitudinal changes, behavioural changes and performance changes. These changes differ in terms of the ease and time required to accomplish them; thus, Hersey and Blanchard (1996:4) declared:

> Changes in knowledge are the easiest to make followed by changes in attitudes. Attitude structures differ from knowledge structures in that they are emotionally charged in a positive or a negative way. Changes in behaviour are significantly more difficult and time consuming than either of the two previous levels. But the implementation of … performance change is perhaps the most difficult and time consuming.

Another illustration of the problem of intellectual transfer could be found in their proposition of learning by doing. According to them, learning to apply behavioural sciences is like learning anything such as hitting a baseball, "getting up there and attempting to hit – by practice, by doing what you are attempting as team". It will not be sufficient by merely reading books, watching or listening as these only provide conceptual knowledge. What does and makes what is being learnt a part of one's relevant behaviour is for one to "try on" – practice. In doing this, one could feel ill at ease and uncomfortable the first time, but one must continue to patiently practice if the intellectual transfer would become effective. Again, Hersey and Blanchard (1996: 15) put it this way:

> The first time you attempt to behave differently based on theory, … you probably would have been more effective using your old style of behaviour rather than the new (although in the long run the new style may have a higher probability of success). This is why so often practitioners who go through a training experience in which they learn new knowledge as well as attitudes find that in "trying on" some new behaviour for the first time, it doesn't work. As a result, they begin to respond negatively … saying such things as "How can we accept these things?", "They are not usable", "They do not work in the real world". It is this kind of attitude that has hindered managers from attempting to make behavioural science theory a reality in terms of managing more effectively.

From all the illustrations above, we can provide some definitions and categorization of our concept of intellectual transfer. It is the process by which the propositional knowledge, conceptual knowledge, knowledge or theory provided by the behavioural scientists and acquired by the management practitioners is transformed into procedural knowledge, performance knowledge, behaviour or practice respectively. It refers to how much of learnt techniques became practiced techniques. It requires a readiness to learn, sequencing of learning and learning resources. The extent to which managers or their organizations meet these requirements could give rise to two possible forms of intellectual transfer: adequate or inadequate transfer. Their differences depend on how they measure on the three indices of intellectual transfer Miles (1975) defined as learning readiness (motivation to learn and some prior base to which the new awareness can be attached), learning sequence (series of appropriately sized opportunities to explore and experiment with new concepts and behaviours) and learning resources (substantial investments of time and money and continued evidence of high priorities for process evaluation).

The last application problem we find in the literature is **change**, though it is not often, so stated (Miles, 1975). Change or organizational change constitutes a dominant theme in most texts on Organizational Behaviour (OB) and Organizational Theory (OT). Most of the texts have diverse perspectives or models of change, giving rise to differences in their extent and depth of coverage. There is no common framework of analysis. For instance, while some scholars treat it as a phenomenon on its own and proceed to examine its relationship with other phenomena of business and management (Cohen et al, 2001; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2001; Robbins, 1996; Hersey and Blanchard, 1996, Moorhead & Griffin, 1995), others (Mullins, 1996, Gibson et al, 1994; George & Jones, 1996) consider it as a variable of other phenomena such as organizational development (change management – process), management development and organizational effectiveness (change as a determinant), and organizational behaviour modification (change as the determined – result).

We also observed that most scholars take the meaning or concept of change for granted. It is difficult to find efforts devoted to providing definitions of change either verbally, ostensively or operationally (Emory, 1980). Often the concept is discussed straight on either as a phenomenon or variable without any definition of what is change. Our exploration for a definition led us to the conclusion that change is a process, an act or result of becoming different either through alteration, modification, variation, transformation, transition or substitution. Each of these is a change process and as such could be considered as synonyms of the term change. Our interest here, however, is not its definition but how it constitutes a problem to behavioural technique application – an aspect hardly explored by existing works. Change constitutes a problem in technique application because of its driving and restraining forces, imposed transitory and complex elements, and the disposition of managers and conditions required to accomplish it. Each of these three sets of factors associated with change, in our estimation, affects the behaviour of managers in terms of the techniques they apply, the method of application and application process.

4.6 Research Paradigms

A research paradigm in the social sciences is a viewpoint shared by a group of scholars about a subject so as to make a meaning of it that is anchored on an intellectual tradition, philosophy of social sciences, theories of society, action and explanation and a baseline theory. Every social science research is underlined by an intellectual tradition (Sociological Positivism, German Idealism or Critical Realism); a philosophy of social science relating to ontology, epistemology, human nature (*humanology*) and methodology in an objectivism-subjectivism continuum; a theory of society in two dimensions: order-conflict and regulation-radical change dimensions (Zeb-Obipi, 2006); a theory of action relating to rational, situationally constrained or emergent actions at micro and macro levels; a theory of explanation involving different modes of explanation and meaning-making processes; and a baseline theory within the classifications of socio-economic, sociological and formal organization theories (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016; Zeb-Obipi, 2006; Zeb-Obipi & Onoh, 2003). These are the sources, and define the nature, of social science paradigms. The choice of a paradigm for a given study is influenced by the researcher's chosen intellectual tradition, philosophy of social sciences, theory of society, theory of action, baseline theory and theory of explanation. In schematic terms, this definition is laid out in Figure 9.

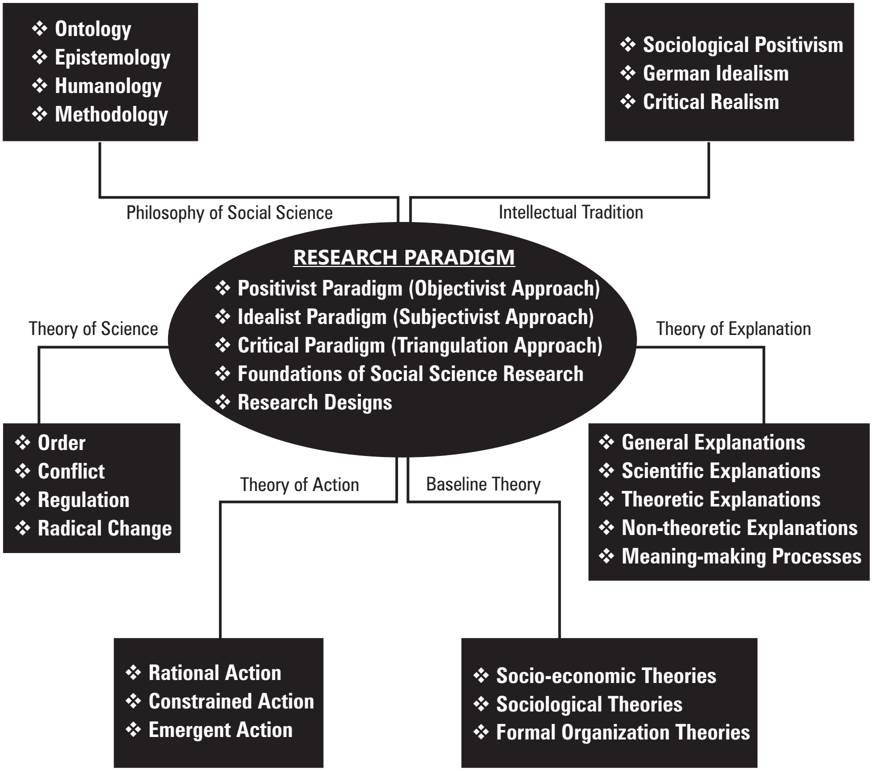

Fig. 9: Dimensions of Research Paradigms in Social Science Analysis
Source: Author (2022).

Owing to the fluid, shifting or multifaceted nature of the concept of research paradigm, it has become conventional to talk of it in different dimensions. One can discuss it in terms ranging from intellectual tradition to methodology as evident in the works of Ahiauzu and Asawo (2016), Zeb-Obipi (2006) and Burrell and Morgan (1979). For Ahiauzu and Asawo (2016), Sociological Positivism associated with the French Philosopher, Isidore Marie Francois Xavier Auguste Comte (1798-1857), German Hegelian Idealism associated with the

German Philosopher, George Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831) and Critical Realism associated with the English Philosopher, Ram Roy Bhaskar (1944-2014) are research paradigms in the mold of intellectual traditions. They had, however, earlier referred to issues suggestive of methodologies as "paradigms in the analysis of social action" (pp. 7-11); and these can be summarily defined thus:

(a) ***Structural Functionalism:*** A phenomenon under study exists as a whole, having parts that function for the harmony, maintenance and regulation of the whole. The subject is explained in terms of its parts and their functions.

(b) ***Teleology:*** A phenomenon under study exists in terms of the purpose it is to serve more than what causes. The subject is explained in terms of the goals it seeks to achieve.

(c) ***Hermeneutics:*** A phenomenon under study exists as an externalization and objectification of internal mind processes through interpretations. The subject is examined in terms of indicators of objectification.

(d) ***Solipsism:*** A phenomenon under study exists only as a creation of one's mind as nothing exists except one is aware of it. The subject is studied from the point of the meaning the researcher makes of it.

(e) ***Phenomenology:*** A phenomenon under study is a product of the everyday experiences of people in their life-world consciousness and arrived at through lived experiences. The subject under study is examined from the daily experiences of the relevant population.

(f) ***Historical Materialism:*** A phenomenon under study is a product of man's material or social conditions created over time rather than human consciousness. The subject under study is analyzed from the perspective of the applicable material and social conditions of the subject (action or actor).

(g) ***Symbolic Interactionism:*** A phenomenon under study is perceived as the sum of meaningful communications or symbols shared by individuals through repeated interactions. The subject under study, social action, is viewed from the prism of the shared communications and symbols that hallmark the repeated interactions involved in that action.

For Burrell and Morgan (1979), research paradigm includes the assumptions about the nature of Social Sciences which constitute our Philosophy of Social Sciences. They relate to ontology (realism - nominalism), epistemology (positive/empiricism - anti-positivism/ rationalism), human nature or *humanology* (determinism – voluntarism) and methodology (nomothetic – ideographic). These are employed to determine whether a research approach is objectivist or subjectivist; and providing for a middle of the cause approach, the issues involved in the philosophy of social sciences relating to the assumptions can be formulated thus:

(a) ***Ontological Assumptions*** (Nature of Reality): Is reality objective, existing out there as given, external to human consciousness and can be arrived at through realist orientation? Is it subjective, a product of the mind, of human consciousness and can be arrived at through nominalist orientation? Or is it something in-between these and arrived at through critical realist orientation? If a realist assumption, the approach is objective. If a nominalist assumption, the approach is subjective. If a critical realist assumption, the approach is one of triangulation.

(b) ***Epistemological Assumptions*** (Nature of Knowledge): Is knowledge objective, existing as given, in hard or tangible form and arrived at through positivist orientation? Is it subjective, one to be experienced in a soft and intangible form and arrived at through anti-positivist orientation? Or is it something in-between these and arrived at through critical realist orientation? If a positivist assumption, the approach is objective. If an anti-positivist assumption, the approach is subjective. If a critical realist assumption, the approach is one of triangulation.

(c) ***Humanological Assumptions*** (Nature of Human Being): Is man a product of his environment, influenced by it, his actions determined by his circumstances and dependent on his state of affairs, making his nature one of determinism? Is man the creator of his environment which he influences with a freewill to determine his circumstances independent of his state of affairs, making his nature one of voluntarism? Or is there a two-way interaction between man and his environment from the viewpoint of critical realism? If a deterministic assumption, the approach is objective. If a voluntarist assumption, the approach is subjective. If a critical realist assumption, the approach is one of triangulation.

(d) ***Methodological Assumptions*** (Nature of Study Method): Is the study one that seeks regularities, searches for universal laws, regards social reality as a given social fact and so employs nomothetic methods? Is it one that seeks meanings, searches for peculiarities and regards social reality as one constructed by people in their everyday life experiences and so uses ideographic methods? Or is it one that seeks to employ a combination of methods in line with critical realism? If a nomothetic assumption, the approach is objective. If an ideographic assumption, the approach is subjective. If a critical realist assumption, the approach is one of triangulation.

Reviews of these various assumptions and other research paradigms by the Inaugural Lecturer and some colleagues brought to the fore a number of definitional, explanatory and philosophical constructs for the analysis of organizational action. The definitional constructs include purposiveness and "*mentalness*" to define human action; subjective awareness, interrelatedness and institution to define social action. The explanatory constructs are denoted by causal, functional, etiological, epidemiological, apperceptive, atomic, metaphysical, universalist (deductive), individualistic (inductive), probabilistic, explicatory, descriptive, theoretic and non-theoretic explanations (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016; Zeb-Obipi, 2007b). For analytical convenience, these can be put in four categories: (a) General explanations (from causal to metaphysical explanations), (b) Scientific explanations (from deductive to explicatory explanations), (c) Theoretic explanations (explanations involving calculus, theorem, model, hypothesis and theory: Jaja & Zeb-Obipi, 2005) and (d) Non-Theoretic or descriptive explanations (explanations using classification schemata and ordering systems such as definitional and analytical schemata and serial, quasi and metrical systems: Jaja & Zeb-Obipi, 2005). The various explanation modes are affected by meaning making processes such as objectification, typification, facts and value judgments (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2016).

Another significant contribution on philosophical constructs as part of research paradigms by the Inaugural Lecturer is the articulation of the "**third-eye**" in line with the intellectual tradition of critical realism, thus: (i) *dualism* for ontology, structural radicalism for cosmology, *relationism* for relational psychology, *nature-nurturism* for epistemology, *inductive deduction* for logic, *ideofactualogy* for ethics and *sociotech-utilism* for aesthetics (Zeb-Obipi, 2006). Indeed, the issues of research paradigm constitute the foundations of social science research (philosophical, theoretical and scientific foundations) and dictate the applicable research designs which Emory (1980) has identified to include study, sample, measurement, instrument and analytical designs. It is important to note that our "third-eye" approach assumes that the paradigms exist in a continuum with the critical realist paradigm in the middle of the positivist and idealist paradigms with people management leaning more to the idealist end of the continuum. So our interest here is that any behavioural science technique designed and made available for application in people management also depends on the research paradigm that has influenced the research process or activities leading to its design. An inappropriate paradigm means an inappropriate research; and an inappropriate research leads to defects in techniques for people management either in the area of Organizational Behaviour, Human Resource Management or Industrial Relations- the People Management Tripod for the solution of worker productivity problems.

5. THE ELEMENTS OF TRIPOD AND SOLUTION

Tripod, solute, solvent and solution are concepts not known to be conventional terms in Management. A concept, according to Emory (1980), is an abstraction from reality to which word(s) are assigned to be able to communicate about it. It denotes an image in one's mind that is only transferred unto the mind of another person or an audience when a word or words are assigned to it. Concepts, just like constructs and definitions, are crucial to the understanding and construction of hypotheses, models and theories; hence, they are part of the foundations of Management Theory and Research Methods in Social Sciences.

A concept can be sourced from common usage, alternative usage, borrowed from another language and even created where necessary. Precedence shows that it could also be borrowed from other disciplines as we have done using osmosis, membrane and amoeba from Biology to better distinguish Total Quality Management from System Management Theory when we sought to "*tiqumise*" operations at the Nigeria Ports Authority (Zeb-Obipi, 1998; Jaja & Zeb-Obipi, 2005). In this instance, we have borrowed tripod, solute, solvent and solution. While the latter three concepts have been obtained from Chemistry and its related fields, tripod has been found in several disciplines or professions such as anthropology (cultural artifact), military (weapon mount), photography and filming (camera and light mounts), astronomy, surveying and laboratory-oriented disciplines (equipment mount). The use of these concepts here is intended to enable creative illustrations in ways that effectively abstracts from their features for a shared understanding of the import of our thesis: ***workers' productivity is a function of how well the workers are managed as a people using the people management tripod of disciplines***.

5.1. The Tripod Features

A tripod is a portable three-legged equipment or frame for supporting the weight, maintaining the balance, and controlling, of an object placed on it. Wikipedia (2022) asserted that the triangular stand provides stability against gravitational loads, horizontal shear forces and better leverage for resisting tipping over due to lateral forces by spreading the vertical center. It has several uses, ranging from cultural to laboratory uses; several parts such as three collapsible telescopic legs, center post, head, joints, footplate, mounting screw, movable arm and shoulder strap (Wikipedia, 2022; Norah, 2021) and in furtherance of expertise and professionalism. McGray (2022: 2) recommended its use to us when she advised thus: “We just need a better way to describe our three-part ideas than three legged stool.… You can probably use that in your analogy, that **there are all sizes of tripods for different size ideas**”. From its parts and uses, the following elements have been deduced: (a) Unity, support and strength, (b) Weight, stability and balance, (c) Creativity, accuracy and sharpness, (d) Distance, leveling and details, and (e) Flexibility, adaptability and professionalism. These are qualities the Tripod

Disciplines of People Management (Organizational Behaviour, Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations) bring to the solution of organizational problems in general and worker productivity in particular.

5.2. The Solution Elements

The literature on solution and solution terminologies is very vast. As non-experts in this field and for the purpose of this lecture, we shall limit ourselves to the terminologies of solute, solvent and solution. A solution is a homogeneous mixture of two or more substances referred to as solute and solvent. While a solute is the substance in lesser amount and that is dissolved, a solvent is the substance that is in a greater amount and that does the dissolving. Just like its components, it could be in one of three states: gas, liquid and solid; hence, there are gaseous (both solute and solvent in gas state), liquid (while solvent is in liquid state, solute could be either in gas or solid state), and solid (both solute and solvent in solid state) solutions respectively. Properties or characteristics of solutions that are of interest to us are the: (i) composition of a solution, (ii) solubility of the solute in the solvent to create the solution and (iii) dependence of extent of a solute's solubility on temperature, pressure, the its size and nature, and amount of the solvent (https://www.powershow.com; https://www.chem. purdue.edu.; Najam Academy, 2021)

We are inclined to assert that People Management is a solution with worker productivity as a solute and its disciplines as the solvent. Applying the solvent of OB, HRM or IR dissolves the solute problem of worker productivity. By having more of these disciplines increasingly applied (temperature and pressure elements) in their specifics and diversities to a solute grounded into “small particles, rather than in the form of large pieces” (size and amount elements) guarantees an “unsaturated solution”; even in circumstances where a “saturated solution” is feared (Najam Academy, 2021). ***Take any problem of productivity, be it in relation to unaligned ability-job fit,***

negative work attitude and toxic work environment and you will see that it is solvable; hence it is a solute. Apply an appropriate OB technique (Behaviour Modification), or HRM technique (Human Resource Development) or IR technique (Worker Participation) and you have a solvent in your hand to dissolve the solute. The result? SOLUTION!!! *V*ice Chancellor, sir, herein lies our analogies of solute, solvent and solution; and taken together with the analogy of tripod, complete the picture the Inaugural Lecturer desires to convey by the crafting of the Lecture topic and the derivatives principles of people management expressed in metaphors (stories).

6. PEOPLE MANAGEMENT METAPHORS (PRINCIPLES)

The idea of using metaphors to convey principles is in the beauty of storytelling. According to Hyrum Smith in the book, "Fish!" by Lundin, Paul and Christensen (2000:1), "the right formulae for teaching principles that improve conditions in the workplace (is): Tell a good story!". Our mentor, Emeritus Prof. Ahiauzu, was a good story teller. He would stimulate, engage and sustain the interest of his audience in every lecture or session with exciting, illustrative and instructive stories and would sing and dance if a story involves doing so. His influence on us inspired our concept of Organizational Parenting (Zeb-Obipi, 2016c; Omah, 2019). This refers to a form of mentoring wherein a mentee takes on all or some of the behaviours, mannerisms and personality traits of a mentor in ways that enhance the mentee's performance; and it is measured in terms of acquired behaviour, personality and rights. So we have found ourselves, like him, telling stories, singing and dancing in classes or at presentations. Indeed, we use metaphors to spice up lecture delivery and we are tempted to do so here. Vice Chancellor, Sir, as we are getting to conclude this lecture, please permit us to do so.

6.1 Tortoise Metaphor

The tortoise is an animal known for its legendary roles in local stories. In most of the stories, the tortoise symbolized wisdom and so does its community. If for any reason, it is found on its back, it has no way of getting back onto its feet. Efforts of another tortoise or a community of it are required; hence, the sense or wisdom of community and team. The tortoise further indicates this sense when it had a keg of palm wine meant to last it for only a month sustained it for twelve months. It caused eleven of its friends to have sips from its drink and for the next eleven months went round these friends to lay calms to their palm wine when it was each one's turn to have a keg of palm wine. The implication of this to a people manager is that a manager should encourage a sense of team and community for the mutual benefit of the individuals, groups and the organization. Hence, one of my slogans as DSA was "**RSU: Happy Community! RSU: Happy Community! Happy Community: RSU!!!**" Now what enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.2. Ekeete Metaphor

A maid, taking care of a baby, was never appreciated whenever she took the initiative to do something and the outcomes were good; but she got scolded in few instances when the outcomes were less than satisfactory by her madam. One day, while her madam was at work, fire erupted in the house and she ran out leaving the baby behind. When the crowd that gathered insisted that she should have come out with the baby, she retorted that she was waiting for her madam to come and tell her what to do. A people manager encourages subordinates to be creative and allows an extent of independence to engender innovations and inventions for problem solving, resulting in productivity improvements. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.3 Kpokpofieari Metaphor

It is common to find in this part of the world, workers having a reason not to come to work or close early from work every Friday. A very popular reason is the excuse to go for burial. *Kpokpofieari* is the symbol of a town crier beating a wooden gung, inviting people to attend a meeting or a function at a village square. There was a time when Fridays were associated with people trouping to their respective villages to attend burial when Friday night vigil was the order of the day and as if they were responding to the town crier's gung. Insisting on a subordinate already dressed in the burial *ashoeb*i or who is flaunting the burial t-shirt, singlet or wrapper as signals of *Kpokpofieari* is like forcing an unwilling horse to take a drink. A people manger would understand the peculiar circumstances of a subordinate and factor in such circumstances when making work demands on the subordinate such as rather having trade-offs that exist in management by objectives, flexible work schedules and some other employment practices. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.4 Tie Metaphor

An average bank worker, not noted for habitual late coming, one day had electricity challenge to get his cloths ironed for work and so set off late to work. In struggling to get into a bus, had his tie stained; but could not go back home to get it changed as he was already late to work. He continued his journey to work. Meanwhile his task-oriented manager was already furious and had expressed his anger in the banking hall; directing that the worker should see him immediately on arrival. As the worker arrived and went to see the manager, the manager gave vent to his anger, not paying attention to the challenges of the worker and abusively directed the worker to get to work. However, a people-oriented manager listened to the worker, counselled the worker and even offered him a spare tie in the office. With the task-oriented manager, this worker felt downcast and fumbled through the day at the counter. But with the people-oriented manager, the worker got out of his less exciting morning mood and could be humming whiling working: **"God moves in a mysterious way/His wonders to perform/He plants His footsteps in the sea/And rides upon the storm"**. A people manger should help a subordinate overcome personal and work challenges to enhance subordinate performance. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.5 Rockwater Metaphor

This comes from the biblical story of Moses striking "the rock at Horeb" following God's instruction for water to quench the thirst of the Israelites (Exodus 17: 1-7). The seeming impossibility associated with this story commends it for the illustration intended here. There are a number of situations where a manager may appear to be at his wit's end and workers seemed not to know what to do to discharge responsibilities assigned to them. Our staff at the Information and Technology Centre (ICTC) have challenges with laptops, internet networks and printers required to run Turnitin tests, produce attendance sheets for examinations, upload and download results, produce certificates, transcripts and identity cards or respond to other varieties of students' and staff demands and complaints; and the equipment available must be secured even where there are holes around the fence that make the compound prone to unauthorized access. Maybe the Vice Chancellor is yet to grant approval of applicable requests or approved fund is yet to be released due to financial constraints of the University. In the face of all these, the staff will deliver somehow or anyhow; and so analogically, **the rock must produce water** given the result over excuses orientation at the Centre. So **Ene**, the Technical Services Lead, **Ossai**, the Academic Services Lead, **Opuwari**, the Production Services Lead, **Ochomma**, the Development Services Lead, Ogbonna, the Self-help Services Lead, **Eke**, the Bursary Services Lead and **Ekeriance**, the Guard Services

Lead must deliver under the watch of **Orike**, the Deputy Director and his immediate boss, the Inaugural Lecturer. Indeed, they have often delivered. Thus, a people manager elicits extra-ordinary contributions from subordinates even when it seemed very difficult for them to make such contributions. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.6 Rearmirror Metaphor

There was this big Madam. She had a driver who she despised a lot. She would shout at him if he even dared to look backward while she was at the back seat, the car owner's seat. She would insist he was just a driver and should keep his eyes in front instead of peeping at her from the rear mirror. He was not worthy or good enough for a chat even on a long journey beside opening and closing the door for her when leaving home or at arrivals. So one day, they stopped to buy fuel. After paying for the fuel and while settling into the car, she alighted from the car to exchange pleasantries with an acquaintance. He drove off. She ran after the car beaconing on him. Remember that he had been so dehumanized working with her that he would not dare as much as look at the rear mirror least he got abused and accused of trying to look at her. As usual, at arrival, he went round to open the car for his Madam. Low and behold, Madam was not in the car. Implication? A manager should appreciate the individuality of the worker as a human being by offering the worker a sense of worth. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.7 Bigfowl Metaphor

This is taken from a movie at about the time when another one, “Willy Willy”, was very popular in Port Harcourt. The movie is an illustration of the symbiosis between the world of work and that of other aspects of life and the role of perception. A couple, Mr. and Mrs. Bigfowl, worked in the same organization, the wife being the Human

Resource Manager. The husband did not see the reversal of the home-role structure; that at work the wife was the boss. For some reasons, he got sacked and the sack letter was signed by his wife. For him, he believed that Mrs. Bigfowl could not sack Mr. Bigfowl and there emerged: “You sacked me at work. I sack you at home”. Similar incidences in real cases have been reported with respect to age, sex and relationships at the workplace. We were availed with details of these and more by our good friend and colleague, **Dr. Chris Biriowu**, a beautiful addition to our Faculty in the specific areas of Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations. The import of this metaphor is that the worker is more than one thing in one and the many things compete in accounting for a worker's behaviour as a human being; hence, the eclectic model of man. So a people manager must always be sensitive to the diverse and eclectic nature of any of his subordinates, especially in our African cultural setting. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.8 Ladder Metaphor

A young unemployed graduate appeals to a neighbor and small businessman for employment. The neighbor reluctantly offered the young graduate a job as Office Cleaner and the young man was very enthused. After few months, the young man became less enthusiastic, demanding for an increase in pay. With an increase, he once again became very happy. Soon, he started to show signs of dissatisfaction; this time requesting for promotion. Given that by the nature and size of the business there was no promotion prospect, the employer requested to know the position the young man wished to be promoted to; and his response was: “Manager, Office Sanitation!”. This bespeaks the nature of people or human beings to seek maximum satisfaction, respect, dignity and affiliation; explaining how needs that are satisfied cease to be a source of motivation. Every satisfied need constitutes a lower level rung of a ladder which an individual would have for stepping unto a higher level rung of the ladder.

A manager is expected to be adept at knowing his workers in their **satisfaction continuum or ladder** so as to be able to drive their enthusiasm at work **as desired**. So as DSA, analogically, you would find me sing with my students: "**Inside Aluta, a gentleman, no dey ooo/ Inside Aluta, a gentleman, no dey ooo/ Inside Aluta, a gentleman, no dey ooo**". Now what enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.9 Fishmarket Metaphor:

This is from the Fish Philosophy and story developed by Lundin, Paul and Christensen (2000) around the famous Pike Place Fish Market at Seattle, the largest city in Washington State in US. The story which has film/video and book versions is an invented one that tells "a parable about finding the deep source of energy, creativity, and passion that exists inside each of us by learning to love what we do, even if at the moment we may not be doing exactly what we love" (p. 11). It advocates the following for a manager: CHOOSE YOUR ATTITUDE, PLAY, MAKE THEIR DAY AND BE PRESENT to replace the toxic energy dump at the workplace with some fresh air. Employ humour when suitable (Daminabo, 2018). The implication is that a manager creates an organizational atmosphere and work environment that are innovative, playful, attentive, accountable and engaging enough to result in greater energy, enthusiasm, creativity, morale and productivity. Any wonder then that George (1972) defined management is the processing of creating an environment to influence human behaviour for the achievement of set goals. For Smith (1996), it entails empowering people to bring out the best in a workforce. So what enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.10 Steering Metaphor

Behind every human action there is something that steers or drives it. Individuals differ as to what drives them even with a shared behaviour and how they respond to the drives even over time. This is the fact in reference when we say that there is a person behind every person and so to understand a person within any role set, there is the need to get to the person behind the person and that is the "steering" person. This entails comprehending the factors or circumstances capable of explaining the behaviour of the person. The failure to understand this accounts for a number of conflicts. A good example is found in the story of a hypothetical happy couple that suffered divorce due to the lack of understanding of this principle. A people manager is discerning enough to look beyond the acts of subordinates to gain a deeper understanding, anticipate such acts and design appropriate preventive (where negative) or facilitative (where positive) measures, getting into a scenario planning behaviour. What enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

6.11 Club Metaphor:

Zeb-Obipi (2017b) described a club as a relaxation hub capable of taking care of the general and peculiar socio-cultural, network, entertainment/recreational, and welfare interests of its members. Referring to the Senior Staff Club of the Rivers State University, Nkplou-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt, he argued that it is hinged on the philosophy of **socio-intellectualism**. This refers to the involvement of persons engaged in brain work (academic and administrative) in relaxation and fun interactions that enhance their productivity at work. Events at the Club encapsulates recreational, welfare, and networking elements capable of meeting the interests of the diverse membership of the Club drawn from the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU) and National Association of Academic Technologists (NAAT). Such events include Happy Hour, games and sports engagements, “So-therefore”, “Ear-opening” and other usual “**Approved for Friendship and Conviviality** sessions; customarily ushered in by**: “Our Pride! Our Club!** But in addition to recreation, relaxation, entertainment, sports/games, welfare and networking elements for its hypertension-clinic effects, its activities are **intellectually pimped** as evident in the C-ranking of members and **gauging of the mood** of the University community. Herein lies the metaphor. A people manager Vice Chancellor encouraged participants at the Club to get him information as to how the different segments of the University was feeling towards his administration, what was happening or about to happen and what the people wanted to see happen. So we had the story of the VC waiting, beating and dancing with a bucket for students protesting because of taps that had stopped running in their hostels and staff witnessing bad spots on the roads repaired just a night after they had complained at the Club. Guess who this VC was: Emeritus Prof. Ahiauzu. And what enabled him in these? The People Management Tripod.

6.12 Bole Metaphor

Bole is a Nigerian street food or dish of roasted plantain complimented with roasted fish, pepper sauce and vegetables. Tasty and quick to make or get, it is a very popular meal in Nigeria; and so popular that it is even associated with festivals in this region of Nigeria, Bole Festival. Its easy to get, delicious, affordability, enticing and widespread craving features have informed this metaphor. A lady returned home very hungry and asked her younger brother to go and get her bole. While eating, the brother sat close, watching and occasionally asking her: “Aunty, what are you eating? Are you eating bole?” Unperturbed, she ate until she got to “made in China”, the bottom of the plate and asked the bother to go and wash the plate. Doing this over a number of times caused the brother to go into hiding the moment she was sighted returning home. On the other hand, deliberately leaving some pieces in the plate whenever she finished eating, saw her brother happily clearing and cleaning the plates even before she would direct him to do; always waiting for her return; and would even ask, if she delayed sending him on the bole errand: "Aunty, won't you eat bole today?" The implied principle here is that a manager should identify with the needs of a subordinate as deserving of satisfaction like those of the manager. This informed one of my popular songs with the student community when I was DSA: "**Na fake, na fake, na fake, DSA. Na fake, na fake, na fake, DSA. Na fake, na fake, na fake, DSA. DSA wey no love students na fake DSA**". Now what enables the manager to do this? The People Management Tripod.

7. COMMUNITY SERVICE CONTRIBUTIONS

The traditional roles of a university are often classified into teaching, research and community services. This accounts for why all three areas constitute part of the assessment of academic staff for promotion in universities. Interestingly, community service, is an area of assessment common to both teaching and non-teaching staff; and has become an area of contributions by a Professor worthy of evaluation and explains why reference is made to it during inaugural lectures as could be seen from that of our pioneer Professor of Library and Information Sciences and 67th Inaugural Lecturer, **Lady Professor Blessing Esuru Ahiauzu** (Ahiauzu, 2020). During appraisal sessions, disputes do arise as to what constitutes a community service as a contribution. It seems to us that one way of resolving such a dispute is to evaluate the extent to which that is an output of research and solves an organization's, government or society's problem. So it is possible to have three categories of community services for teaching or academic staff: those offered organizations by way of consultancy, those offered to government by way of appointments and other related government activities, and those offered other significant institutions and groups in the society.

7.1 Firm Consultancy Services

These refer to services rendered to business organizations as a consultant. Today's business environment is fraught with challenges and opportunities that put a lot of pressures on management. These demand competences that may not often be available in an organization. To have the required competences, organizations hire the services of Management Consultants the way Lawyers, Architects, Accountants, Doctors, etc. from outside the organization are hired. This is in line with the dictates of globalization that has brought with it practices that enable organizations to have competitive advantage. In reference is the practice of outsourcing in general and hiring independent contractors or consultants in particular. In the case of a Management consultant, an expert (one with a highly specialized set of skills) is hired to provide advice and assistance in relation to specific areas in managing an organization's context, process or output through the advancement of options or recommendations, offer of required resources, and implementation of possible solutions. The Consultant contracts to offer services for a client organization without the legal status of being an employee to improve service quality while saving compensation costs; hence the perceived benefits of hiring a consultant.

For the Inaugural Lecturer, these have come as research outputs and include: (i) Headcount, job audit and evaluation; (ii) Shaping worker behaviour for competent performance; (iii) Team building, goals, effectiveness and skills; (iv) Impact of global oil politics on new investments and employment relations; (v) Effects of downsizing and rightsizing on union membership; (vi) Aligning compensation with strategic business imperatives; (vii) Industrial relations system in Nigeria; (viii) The concept and implantation of decent work, (ix) Re-engineering trade unions through appropriate organizing mechanisms; (x) Industry 4.0 implications for the evolution of Human Resource Management. Others are: (i) **A checklist for action now in preparing for life after service,** basic entrepreneurship skills development for retirees, personal retirement and investment planning; (ii) Understanding and managing people from the perspective of contemporary Organizational Behaviour; (iii) Strategies for exceptional problem-solving and decision-making; (iv) The imperatives of mergers, acquisitions, collaborations and alliances for HR Best practices towards integration; (v) Code of ethics and conduct for NGOS; (vi) Performance appraisal and management; (vii) Effective grievance resolution procedure for productivity improvement in the workplace; (viii) Challenges and benefits of effective personal income management; (ix) Industrial relations frameworks and practices in current trends in industrial relations in Nigeria; (x) Structure, process and techniques of collective bargaining; and (xi) Preliminary corporate quality audit for the implementation of Total Management System.

7.2 Public Sector Services

Government, its arms, ministries and agencies and other public sector organizations are beneficiaries of research outputs. The Inaugural Lecturer has made some modest contributions here and such contributions include works involving: (i) Building capacity of civil servants for national development through the Federal Governments Transformational Agenda (Zeb-Obipi, 2013); (ii) resolving conflict to attain sustainable development in the Niger Delta (Zeb-Obipi, 2011b); (iii) documentation of the amnesty process in the Niger Delta (Peterside, Okodudu, Ekekwe & Zeb-Obipi, 2011); (iv) technical report on the proposed industrial policy for sustainable development of Rivers State; (iv) Training of local government employees and community leaders for councils' performance evaluation in Rivers State; (v) Driving innovations through public-private partnership; (vi) Provision of a checklist of actions for representative and constituency relations for legislators; and (vii) institutionalizing social corporate responsibility by organizations as an instrument for youth development.

Within here also are the contributions on the: (i) Impact of workers' attitudes on their productivity in a local government system; (ii) **Definitions and importance of the local government system for Grass-Root Development**; (iii) I**nstruments and principles** of r**esource management in local government administration**; (iv) Proposal for a Budget of Paradigm Shift for the Rivers State Ministry of Employment Generation and Empowerment's 2009 Budget; (v) Technical report on the Summit on Employment Generation and Empowerment organized by the Rivers State Government; (vi) Benefits of cordial relationship among NYSC, corps members and corps members' employers; and (vii) Ethics as a bedrock for public sector organizations' success (Zeb-Obipi, 2019).

7.3 Public Social Services

Outside business and government organizations, society consists of several other social institutions. Religious, traditional, socio-cultural, community development, non-governmental, alumni and youth organizations fall within this category of institutions. The Inaugural Lecturer has offered diverse research driven presentations to these institutions and these have been classified as public social services. A few of these are: (i) Leadership responsibilities and accountability for development and the contemporary approach to the search for leadership; (ii) Unity amidst diversity in communities and the development nexus; (iii) The local church leadership, investment opportunities, wealth creation and financial independence; (iv) Roles of alumni associations in the development of an Alma Marta, as an agent of change and emerging roles; (v) Report of the 2013 IYC Crisis Resolution Committee (vi) Report of the Okrika LGA Crisis Resolution Committee; (vii) Education as a basis for development; and (viii) Attitudinal changes required for community development.

Others include: (i) **An action framework for the empowerment of the street youth,** youth leadership of communities as an imperative for a well-led future, and the roles of social clubs in community development; (ii) R**ecent history and routes of unity in Ogoloma** and a new thinking for a new Ogoloma community**; (iii)** Key questions and answers in the criminalization of the struggle for resource control in the Niger Delta; (iv) The monarchism versus republicanism debate and the roles of the traditional institution in national development in terms of **g**rassroots mobilization, **r**ural development, **a**dvocacy and **p**overty alleviation- the content of our **GRAP** concept (Zeb-Obipi, 2021b; 2009b); (v) and Choosing the right career, dangers of examination mal-practices, a *theo-orthodoxical* approach to success in education, living education as life, the way forward for education in the lives of youths and pursuing a career in the social sciences.

CONCLUSIONS

This Lecture commenced with a narration of the Inaugural Lecturer's academic journey and a justification of the Lecture, including the choice of the topic. The Inaugural Lecturer did not get into the academia by coincidence but grew and was mentored into it as a born and mentored teacher. His progression to the rank of a Professor has occasioned this Inaugural Lecture; presented to herald the creation of a department to be dedicated to people management and to showcase the contributions of the Inaugural Lecturer in his major areas of teaching, publications and community services driven by research over the years.

The lecture asserted that organizations', and indeed society's, major problem is that of productivity which in its nucleus form entails worker productivity. A number of challenges were identified as constraining worker productivity; and a broad classification of these challenges has them as unaligned ability job fit, negative work attitude and toxic work environment. These and their diverse constituents have been the concern of several scholars and researchers, including the Inaugural Lecturer either alone or in collaboration with peers and students; a concern that has driven the Lecturer's research, teaching, publication and community services. The dominant findings point to one fact, which is that, like a solute, any of these worker productivity problem can be “dissolved” by way of resolution through people management.

The thesis of the Lecture is that the challenges of productivity at work are traceable to the way workers are managed as a people and as such are best addressed through better people management. It is the view of the Inaugural Lecturer that resolving the problem of workers' productivity requires a greater focus on a tripod of people management disciples. These disciplines are Organizational

Behaviour, Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations. Each of them serves as a solvent for a solution to the problem of worker productivity. These disciplines provide managers with a variety of tools that facilitate the management of people with positive implications for productivity at work.

For Organizational Behaviour, the techniques are found in the domains of individual, group and organization behaviour either as they dispose individuals, groups or organizations to behave in a given way (foundations) or how they are able to cause changes in the behaviour of individuals, groups or organizations (dynamics). For Human Resource Management, the techniques are within its human resource inflow functions (HR Planning and Recruitment), through-flow functions (HR Development, Compensation, Integration and Maintenance) and outflow (HR Separation: retirement, retrenchment, redundancy, dismissal and death). The institutions of job regulation define the techniques for Industrial Relations (Unilateral, Joint, Statutory, Social and Convention Regulations).

In each of these disciplines, the Inaugural Lecturer has shown his contributions in terms of research, teaching, publication and community services; and direction of research as evident in the metaphors or principles of people management. Twelve (12) People Management Principles have been stated in the mold of metaphors for a further focused research and application, namely: Tortoise, Ekeete, Kpokpofieari, Tie, Rockwater, Rearmirror, Bigfowl, Ladder, Fishmarket, Steering, Club and Bole Metaphors. These and their essence are to be continuously examined and evaluated as facilitators and the Twelve Principles of People Management going forward.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Contained within each of our research outputs are applicable recommendations. It is not possible to state all of them here. Consequently, we are inclined to state our recommendations in as much general terms as possible, drawing from the vast literature and empirical works we have come across, undertaken and contributed to. So in a simple and single sentence, the crux of our recommendations is that: "**Everyone and anyone in charge of the affairs of others in organizations should be a People Manager**". Such a manager is one that:

(a) understands and accepts workers as persons, human beings, with different and unique needs, wants, aspirations and backgrounds as evident in the various models that assert that man is a rational, economic, social, self-actualizing, or complex, being; an environmentally controlled, or self-controlling, being; a work disliking, or work liking, being; and, more appropriately, an eclectic being. These require that the manager be a role model, recognize his weaknesses and strengths, never act as a "super-human being" or play god, manage the emotions, impressions, and perceptions of others and his, and develop diverse but adequate people skills.

(b) creates and allocates satisfaction to his subordinates. This is because people often follow a leader who while in the pursuit of the group's objectives ensures that their individual objectives are properly aligned and achieved. This suggests a manager who is able to determine the needs and interests of the followers, work together with them to reach mutually beneficial goals and solutions, enjoy and share success in himself and others, recognize and reward success attained by followers, identify reasons for failure by followers and offer encouragement, coaching and mentoring.

(c) listens and responds to his subordinates; thus portraying the manager as being sensitive to subordinates, open to subordinates, caring for subordinates, patient and empathic with subordinates, interested in, and interesting to, subordinates. In doing these, the manager is expected to be mirroring, exploring, and affirmative when and where necessary; directive, passive, or assertive when and where necessary; decisive but flexible enough to adapt to the unexpected; proactive, initiative, and prompt; able to communicate well to avoid ambiguities; and gain rapport, trust, and shared vision and values.

(d) is transparent and accountable in terms of being open and sincere in all his doings and intentions, taking responsibility over what he does or should do, how, when, and where he should do it in a way that leaves no one in doubt as to where a point of decision or action lies. Such a manager will seek and accept feedback, accept and respond to criticisms positively, elicit and offer explanations, encourage ideas' generation, and employ teams and committees to ensure participation.

(e) meets social or psychological contract obligations that now exists even between employees and employers often represented by management. Such a manager must accept that social or psychological contract is not hypothetical as when even not actually entered into like other forms of contracts, it is implied by social conformity and mutual expectations; recognize that this contract, like all other contracts, creates obligations and requires meeting them adequately; build a reputation for trustworthiness, speaking from a position of knowledge, keeping promises, supporting others when they are in difficulty, and working through differences; respect the rights of every worker, including human rights, rule of law, and security of life and property; thus, proving that the manager is worthy of the confidence reposed in him or her.

(f) increases the productivity and value of the individuals, groups and organization under his or her charge, even where self-sacrifice is required to attain desired effectiveness and efficiency. To achieve these, the manager must not only constantly set targets but also strive to achieve set targets despite the odds, minimize cost or expenses, maximize revenue or gains, improve quality and avoid wastages such defects, errors and malfeasance.

)g) is well trained in the sciences and logics of Organisational Behaviour, Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations through a focused research, teaching and learning. This makes the case for the creation of a Department of Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations in this University as is the case now in most Universities in Nigeria and across the globe. Furthermore, it is our view that the tripod disciplines of People Management be domiciled in this Department.

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I appreciate our former Vice Chancellors and Acting Vice Chancellors; especially Emeritus Prof. S. Odi-Owei, Emeritus Prof. S. C. Achinewhu, Prof. V. O. T. Omuaru, Prof. B. B. Fakae, Prof. B. C. Didia and Prof. O. B. Owei. My appreciation also goes to Emeritus Prof. M. A. Amakiri and Prof. B. M. Oruwari, former Deputy Vice Chancellors. Within this category, I wish to acknowledge our visiting, serving and former Vice Chancellors and Deputy Vice Chancellors. I thank our former Registrars, Librarian and Acting Bursar: Mrs. D. C. Odimabo, Mrs. V. T. Jamabo, Prof. B. E. Ahiauzu and Mr. K. Abraham. Next are the rest of the University Management Committee members, Provost, Deans, Directors and Heads of Departments and

Units. I have enjoyed working with each and every one of you in the various assignments we have undertaken at different times and as such I deeply appreciate you all. For specific mention is the Dean of my Faculty, Faculty of Management Sciences, Prof. N. Gladson Nwokah, a **high-flyer go-getter**; for as usual, he has mobilized the entire Faculty to ensure a desirable level of participation in this Inaugural Lecture. Dean, sir, I acknowledge your support, not just for me, but to all members of the Faculty where and when needed.

Let me also here acknowledge my colleagues of the Faculty of Management Sciences, ranging from the Professors and Heads of Department to our graduate Assistants. Permit me to mention a few of these my colleagues: Professors B. D. Kiabel (Director of Entrepreneurship Development Centre), L. C. Obara, L. A. Nwanyanwu (Director of Graduate Business School), T. C. Agwor (Director of CCE), J. Ohaka (HOD Accountancy), S. N. Amadi, A. J. Toby (Dean of PG School), J. C. Imegi, D. W. Dagogo, A. O. Oparanma, M. D. Tamunomiebi, K. B. Bagshaw, L. I. Nweke, G. A. Okwandu, B. C, Opara (DSA) and J. U. Didia. Other Heads of Department in the Faculty are: Dr. H. W. Akani (Banking and Finance), Dr. I. Wechi (Management), Dr. H. Harcourt (Marketing) and Dr. C. E. Obara (Office and Information Management). My other colleagues of the Department of Management include: Dr. J. Mark, Dr. J. M. O. Gabriel, Dr. C. Biriowu, Dr. S. P. Asawo, Dr. S. Lebura, Dr. L. Don-Baridam, Dr. K. Konya, Dr. H. E. Ogbonda, Dr. K. D. Gbarale, Dr. B. P. Lekara, Dr. P. O. Olomi, F. Nna, M. N. I. Okeah, A. A. Abere, G. Obinna and N. Ichenwo. To you all, I express my gratitude for partnering with me in this journey.

Prof. P. B. Johnnie "forcefully recruited" me into the Department of Business Administration, now Management Department, of the Faculty; so he planted, but others "watered" the seed he planted. These others include Prof. Seth Accra Jaja, a teacher and mentor, a life coach by example and my **Idea Chain**. Give him any set of ideas, and no matter how unrelated they are, you will have in return a thesis on their relationship as if emerging from a management coconut broken open for you to see either crumbling pillars or an ark. My mentor, in the mold of Emeritus Professor A. I. Ahiauzu, I cannot thank you enough. Then my **Idea Graphics**, Prof. D. I. Hamilton. Leave him with a paper and pen at any event, including meetings, and you will find him always moving the pen round the different parts of the paper, drawing some diagrams, objects and animals while still participating in the event; and I suspect that one of such diagrams would have been the launch pad for our thrust unto the search for Business Policy as a rocket science. Thank you, sir, for overseeing my promotion to the rank of a Professor while you were our Dean.

For nearly seven years, I served as the Dean of Student Affairs. At the Directorate of Student Affairs, I worked with very beautiful souls. My very own ***twinny***, Prof. E. T. Jaja and Dr. O. A. Orji served as my Associate Deans of Student Affairs. Dr. I. Jamaica, Mr. A. Okwu and others at the Directorate that contributed to our successes include: M. V. Vulasi, S. B. S. J. Obenge, E. Mbadiwe, G. John-Mark, E. Amadi, B. N. Zite, G. A. Gilbert, J. E. Brown, G. Nworlu, M. Daniel, N, Wosu, C. Douglas, K. T. Ekine and P. O. U. Vitalis. As DSA, I also worked with many good students, including those who served alongside the following student Presidents: F. B. Nnaa, D. A. Daminabo (the first product of our **E-voting initiative**), B. Azuonwu. E. O. Gogo, P. Pepple, S. R. Ogan, and K. Omano for SUG and Q. Damiete, S. Fubara, C. Ofurum and O. H. Wokoma for the PGSA. Thank you for all your support while working with you. Now at the Information and Communication Centre, I have been blessed to work with a Deputy Director, Dr. S. Orike and a number of very hardworking persons in service teams led by Q. Ochomma, D. S. Ene, M. V. Opuwari, I. M. Ossai, A. Ogbona, Dr. G. O. Eke and Dr. E. D. Ekeriance. I appreciate all of you and our respective team members for your continuous support; and I hope you continue to work in tandem with **our**

orientation of result above excuse. My technical ICT partners, leaders in the field, Cinfores Ltd, I acknowledge your continuous support.

I have been fortunate to be part of the traditional, political and religious institutions too and I have enjoyed wide spread support from members of these institutions. For our various Kings (HRM E. T. I. Obudibo, HRM A. M. Tom, HRM T. O. Ogube, HRM A. M. Frank, HRM N. A. Oputebeya, HRM B. Fiboinumama, HRM F. T. Okuru, HRM G.I. Idikisime-Olunwa and HRH F. I. H. Koko), the Ancient Ogoloma Divisional Council of Chiefs led by Chief M. A. Kunumgbe, Okrika Divisional Council of Chiefs led by Chief D. B. Ofokume, Kirike Divisional Council of Chiefs led by Chief Prof. S. F. Ogan, Ogu Divisional Council of Chiefs led by Chief L. T. Willaims-Iyama, Bolo Se Council of Chiefs led by Chief F. Amaso and the other Councils, I appreciate you all. I wish to thank all our Councilors, Council Chairmen, Legislators at the State and National Assemblies and appointees of Government at the State and National levels. Deserving of specific mention here are Chief T. K. Tobin, Late Senator Chief Tari Sekibo Odo-Abaji, Chief Senator George Thompson Sekibo, Chief Dr. Abiye Sekibo-Achi, Hon. Bright Gogo, Hon. Linda Somiari-Stewart (my **Residual Sister**), Rt. Hon. Evans Bipi, Chief Akuro Tobin and Barr. Vincent Nemioboka. Relevant to acknowledge here are those student politics and the struggle for an ideal society have given to me as family. The Niger Delta Forum, Rivers Professionals (RivPro) and the Past Leaders of the National Union of Rivers State Students (NURSS) Forum (PANLEAF), I thank you. Dr. Dakorinama George-Kelly, you are appreciated too. We have in good attendance, members of my Baptist family in general and Calvary Church, Borikiri, Port Harcourt, in particular, led by Rev. Emmanuel Awortu, well mentored by Rev. M. A. Aneidima and the Board of Deacons and Deaconesses. We are also blessed by the presence of other servants and congregations of God, including leaders and members of the Christ Army Church of my town, Ogoloma and the Wakirike (Bese) Gospel Ministers' Association. For your ceaseless prayers for me and my family, I remain eternally indebted to you all. The spiritual, prayer and material blessings of Pastor and Dr. Mrs. David Ibiyeomie are equally appreciated here.

To my plenty friends at the Senior Staff Club, Port Harcourt Club 1928, especially the Squash Section, African United Football Club, Goldashe Football Club and New Delta Football Club, I am deeply very grateful. Worthy of mention here are my childhood friends, and their lovely wives, of the **12th Friend Circle of Ogoloma**: Chief Precious Saiah, Achese Alalibo, Miebaka Nyengiyikabo, Jackson Dakuro, John Awengs, Aribibia Gogo, Setty Alalibo, Wisdom Imabibo and Hon. Itekena Ebe. I appreciate the elders and members of the Ogulacha War Canoe House, Ogoloma and the entire Wakirike; including the Wakirike Development Coalition being coordinated by Dr. Abiye Hector-Goma from the UK. I acknowledge my folk of Madam T and the Yikarebogha family: Timi, Joy, Ebi, Jane, Charles, Bridget, Joe, Pere, Dr. and Mrs. E. Azubuike and the rest of the team. The list here would be incomplete without the mention of Prof. I. K. E. Ekweozor (Chairman, University Lecture Committee), Prof. G. K. Fekarurhobo, Prof. N. Boisa, Prof. D. K. Kabari, Prof. M. Ahiakwo, Prof. J. Sodiki, Prof. E. Ekwulo, Dr. H. Whyte and Chief Engr. I. Munonye. The Lebari, Owakah and Burubo families, please note that I am grateful. Two of my teachers and friends during my primary and secondary education, though no longer alive, deserve a special mention: Chief Idia Iwo and Mr. Dan Sotar Oriye Onyeoma. Let me also here acknowledge my immediate boss in Primary 6, Teme Fred, who I deputized as Assistance Senior Boy. My experiences at Government Secondary School, Abissa, the then Rivers State College of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt and Opobo Comprehensive Secondary School also earned me some friends and I am glad to acknowledge them.

From the depth of my heart, I wish to appreciate all my former and present students at various levels here and other sister institutions for enabling me learn alongside with them. Dr. J. Agada, Dr. J. A. Okpawpan, Dr. G. L. Kpurunee, Dr. L. Nwikiabe, Dr. C. C. Wobo, Dr. Mrs C. U, Ekweozor and Dr. N. Ikenna-Amadi (nee Kalio), Dr. S. Lebura, Dr. B. W. Ateke and Mr. C. Onwuka (colleagues), your contributions in the course of my preparation of this lecture have been very impressive and I thank you greatly. The leaders and members of the various groups put together for the success of this event, you have my gratitude; and these groups include: Management Sciences' Faculty Group led by Dr. J. Gabriel and Dr. P. M. Nadube, Wakirike Group led by Dr. G. Amamngabara and Mr. P. S. Tobin and University Friends' Group led by Engr. E. C. Obuah and Dr. Arc. K. Dimkpa.

Now to my family; and I do have a large family. My relations of the Orubo and Obipi families in Ogoloma, thank you. To Mrs. Ngozi Onyeozire, Mr. Sunday Abraham and the entire Onyeozire and Abraham families, I am eternally grateful. My in-laws, the Fiberesimas of Okrika, my wife's sisters and brothers, Gloria, Nnene, Tubonimie, Iyaye, etc, I appreciate you and your respective families. Dr. G. Opuda, Dr. C. Biriowu, Hon. L. Alabala, Engr. M. Senibo, D. Okumgba, G. Tamunoiyalla, F. London and our very own Ben, Achese and Collins, I deeply acknowledge the support from you and your families to my family over these years. Abiye, Asime, Beauty, Diepiriye, Nengi and Florence, my younger ones and children, you are highly appreciated. To my forever damsel, guardian angel, supportive, humble, homely, grow-along and very entertaining friend and wife, **Mrs. Victory Aya Zeb-Obipi (nee Fiberesima), you remain "MY GRATITUDE**". Finally, all the glory goes to God in appreciation of whose blessings we cannot count; and so would now sing the Baptist Hymnal 318, "Count Your Blessings"; text by Johnson Oatman Jr (1856-1922) and music by Edwin O. Excell (1851-1921):

1. When upon life's billows you are tempest tossed,
When you are discouraged, thinking all is lost,
Count your many blessings, name them one by one,
And it will surprise you what the Lord hath done.

Refrain:

Count your blessings, name them one by one;
Count your blessings, see what God hath done;
Count your blessings, name them one by one;
Count your many blessings, see what God hath done.

2. Are you ever burdened with a load of care?
Does the cross seem heavy you are called to bear?
Count your many blessings, ev'ry doubt will fly,
And you will be singing as the days go by.
[Refrain]

3. When you look at others with their lands and gold,
Think that Christ has promised you His Wealth untold;
Count your many blessings, money cannot buy,
Your reward in heaven, nor your home on high.
[Refrain]

4. So, amid the conflict, whether great or small,
Do not be discouraged, God is over all;
Count your many blessings, angels will attend,
Help and comfort give you to your journey's end.
[Refrain]

CITATION

CITATION ON PROFESSOR ISAAC ZEB-OBIPI AT THE 79TH INAUGURAL LECTURE OF THE RIVERS STATE UNIVERSITY ON WEDNESDAY, 27TH JULY, 2022 AT THE SENATE BUILDING OF THE UNIVERSITY, NKPOLU-OROWORUKWO, PORT HARCOURT.

BIRTH AND EDUCATION

Professor Isaac Zeb-Obipi is the son of late Elder Zebulun Obipi of Ogoloma in Okrika Local Government Area of Rivers State and Late Mrs. Chinyere Tamunodiepiye Obipi of Amuhie in Umuahia North of Abia State. Due to the circumstances of his birth that earned him his African name, Tamunonigiyeofori (nothing is greater than God), and the biblical name, Isaac, he attended a number of primary schools; prominent amongst which is State School, Kala-Degema (Usokun), in Degema Local Government Area of Rivers State, where he became the Assistant Senior Boy in 1979.

He attended Government Secondary School, Abissa, the Rivers State College of Education (now Ignatius Ajuru University of Education) Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt, for the University of Ibadan degree programme and the Rivers State University (now Rivers State University of Science and Technology (now Rivers State University). From these institutions, he obtained WASC, the B.Ed. (Economics), MBA (Management) and PhD (Organizational Behaviour) degrees respectively in 1984, 1988, 1996 and 2007. He did his national youth service in former Gongola (Tariba) State and got his Certificate of National Service with commendations in 1989; alongside an Honorary Chieftaincy title: Otom Udedoo Mbawar I.

CAREER HISTORY AND NON-TEACHING PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Upon his return from service, he was employed by the Rivers State Post Primary Schools Management Board, Port Harcourt as Economics Master in 1990. First posted to Government Secondary School, Opobo and later to Enitonna High School, Port Harcourt, he transferred his services to the Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt in 1997 as an Assistant Lecturer. He grew from the rank to Lecturer II (2000), Lecturer I (2003), Senior Lecturer (2007), Reader (2015) and Professor of Management (2018) with research interest that cuts across Organizational Behaviour, Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations.

Early in his career, he offered tutorial services at study centres in Port Harcourt, including the Port Harcourt Study Centre of the National Teachers Institute (NTI), Kaduna (1991-1995). Within this period and subsequently, he also engaged in relevant and non-teaching professional activities which include:

1. ***Member (2017-Date),*** Governing Board of Graduate School of Business, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt.

2. ***Lead Rapporteur (2012).*** Seminar on "*Repositioning RSUST Academic Staff for Sustainable Performance*", held at the University Amphitheatre, Port Harcourt, 14th -15th June.

3. ***Chairman, Panel of Analysts (August*, 2009)*:*** Head Count and Job Audit Carried Out at Pellegrini Catering (Nig.) Ltd, Cee and Gee Consult, Port Harcourt.

4. ***Resource Person/Rapporteur (December, 2008)***: Workshop/ Seminar on The Enhancement of Local Government System Administration for Better Service Delivery for Councilors organized by the Public Policy and Leadership Centre in conjunction with the Degema Local Government Council in Rivers State at Marian Hotel, Calabar from 9^{th}-11^{th} of December.

5. ***Member, Technical Committee (November, 2008)***: Strategic Plan on Economic Empowerment in Rivers State under the Chairmanship of Prof. A. I. Ahiauzu for the Rivers State Committee on Economic Empowerment.

6. ***Team Leader, Technical Committee (July-August, 2008)***: Summit on "Engendering A Paradigm Shift on Employment Generation and Empowerment in Rivers State organized by the Ministry of Employment Generation and Empowerment from 7^{th}-8^{th} of August.

7. ***Chairman, Panel of Evaluators (*February-April, 2008)**: Job Evaluation Carried out at Global Gas Refining Ltd, Cee and Gee Consult, Port Harcourt.

8. ***Resource Person (April-May, 2008)***: Parliamentary Exchange Programme of the Rivers State House of Assembly to Australia facilitated by the Public Policy and Leadership Centre, Port Harcourt.

9. ***Principal Management Consultant (2006-Date):*** Cee and Gee Consult, Port Harcourt.

10. ***Community Relations Consultant (CRC) (2000-2002)***: Nigerian Agip Oil Company Limited (N.A.O.C), Port Harcourt.

11. ***Management Consultant/Programme Coordinator (*1997-2007):** International Centre for Management Research and Training (CIMRAT), P.H.

12. ***Personal Assistance to the Consultant (1995-1996)***: Strategic Information Plan (SIP), Oil Mineral Producing Areas Development Commission (OMPADEC), Port Harcourt.
13. ***Management Consultant (*1993-1997)*:*** Anpal Associates, Port Harcourt

ARTICLES, BOOKS, CONFERENCE PAPERS AND SUPERVISION

Prof. Zeb-Obipi has over ninety articles and conference papers published in international, national and institutional journals. For some of these, he has won awards and recognitions. He has six book chapters, co-authored three books and reviewed eight books. He is an editor of a number of journals and serves on others' editorial boards.

He has to his credit several seminar, workshop, and technical papers often involving gown-town relationships. He has also supervised a lot of students' projects, theses and dissertations. While he has lost count of their numbers, he thinks of his supervisees not only as his mentees but the ultimate measures of his academic wealth, including Professors and Readers; and indeed, with his numerous mentees he is academically a very "wealthy man".

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION AND EXTERNAL SERVICES

1. **2022 March-Date, *Director,*** Information and Communication Technology Centre, RSU, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PH
2. **2015 (November) – 2022 (March): *Dean,*** Directorate of Student Affairs, RSU, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PH.
3. **2013-2015: *Acting Head,*** Department of Office and Information Management, RSUST, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt.

4. **2012-2013: *Ag. Director,*** Entrepreneurship Development Centre, RSUST, PH
5. **2008-2013: *Acting Head,*** Department of Management, RSUST, PH.
6. **2020: Member,** Committee on History of Rivers State University
7. **2015-Date:** Member, Appointment & Promotion Committee, RSU, PH
8. **2017: Member,** Investigation Panel on Alleged Ghost Workers, RSU, PH
9. **2016-Date: Member,** Senate Ceremonial Committee, RSU, PH
10. **2016-Date: Chairman,** University Convocation Lecture Committee, RSU, PH
11. **2016-2021: Chairman,** University Grandaunts' Night Committee, RSU. PH
12. **2016: Chairman,** University Cultural Day Committee, RSU, PH
13. **2015: Member,** Local Organizing Committee for the Conference of Vice Chancellors of Nigerian Universities (AVCNU), RSUST, PH.
14. **2012: Team Leader,** RSUST Entrepreneurship Development Centre Fact Finding Visit to Convent University, Ogun State**.**
15. **2012-Date: University Orator,** RSUST, PH.
16. **2011-2012: Chairman,** Committee on 2nd Biennial Conference of Pro-Chancellors of State-owned Universities hosted by RSUST, PH.

17. **2011-2012: Member,** Committee on Entrepreneurship Development Centre, RSUST, PH.
18. **2011-2015: Chairman,** Committee on Students' Service Fees, RSUST, PH.
19. **2010-Date: Member,** Committee on University Ranking, RSUST, PH
20. **2010-Date: Member,** Registry Appraisal Panel, RSUST, PH.
21. **2009-Date: Member,** Senate Lectures Committee, RSUST, PH.
22. **2009-2013: Member,** Senate Research and Publication Committee, RSUST, PH
23. **2008-2016: Member,** Staff School Management Committee, RSUST, PH
24. **2008-Date: Member,** Senate of the RSUST, PH.
25. **2007-2009: Member,** Exam Ethics Committee, RSUST, PH.
26. **2005-2009: Member,** Assessment & Graduation Requirement Committee, RSUST, PH.
27. **2005-2009: Faculty Examinations and Record Officer,** FMS, RSUST, PH.
28. **2002: Member,** Departmental Research and Publication Committee,
29. **2000: Member,** Task Force on Post Graduate Results Backlogs, FMS, RSUST, PH.
30. **2000: Secretary,** Management Department Course Review Committee, RSUST, PH.

31. **1999: Member,** Faculty Undergraduate Brochure Drafting Committee, FMS, RSUST, PH
32. **1999: Member**, Committee on Departmental Journal, RSUST, PH.
33. **1999: Member,** Committee on Undergraduate Course Review, RSUST, PH.
34. **1997-2004:** Management Department Examinations & Records Officer, RSUST, PH.
35. **2017-2021: President,** Senior Staff Club, Rivers State University, PH
36. **2015-2021: Chairman,** Committee of Hall Wardens, RSU, PH
37. **2015-2021: Staff Adviser,** Student Union Government (SUG), UST, PH.
38. **2008-2015: Staff Adviser,** National Union of Rivers State Students, (NURSS) RSUST, PH
39. **2004-2005: Course Adviser,** Management Department, RSUST, PH
40. **2019-Date: External Examiner,** Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike, Umuahia, Abia State.
41. **2019-Date: External Examiner,** Delta State University, Abraka, Delta State, Abraka
42. **2019-Date: External Examiner,** University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Port Harcourt.
43. **2019: Visiting Scholar**, Graduate Business School, Ignatius Ajuru of Education, Port Harcourt

44. **2019: Visiting Scholar,** Garden City Premier Business School, Port Harcourt
45. **2018-Date: External Examiner/Moderator,** National Open University of Nigeria
46. **2018-Date: External Professorial Assessor,** Delta State University, Abraka, Delta State; Federal University, Otueke, Bayelsa State.
47. **2018: External Examiner,** University of Calabar, Calabar, Cross River State
48. **2017-Date: Visiting Scholar,** Post-Graduate Programme, Department of Management and Department of Office and Information Management, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt.
49. **2012-2017: External Examiner,** Undergraduate Programme, Department of Management, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt.
50. **2012-2013: Visiting Senior Lecturer,** Dept. of Management, IMSU, Owerri
51. **2009-2010: External Examiner,** Delta State University, Abraka.
52. **2009-2010: External Examiner,** Delta State University, Abraka

MEMBERSHIP OF RELEVANT PROFESSIONAL BODIES

1. Member, Academy of Management of Nigeria.
2. Member, Chartered Institute of Personnel Management.
3. Fellow, Institute of Human and Natural Resources.
4. Fellow, Institute of Management Consultants of Nigeria.

AWARDS, RECOGNITIONS AND COMMENDATIONS

The number of awards bestowed on Prof. Isaac Zeb-Obipi might need a room space. These awards include those from:

1. International organizations such as that of Universal Peace Ambassador Award,
2. NGOs such as that of Academic Personality of the Year Award,
3. Coalition of organizations such as that of ICT 4D in Education Award,
4. Publishing houses such as that of Best Paper Award,
5. Religious organizations such as that of Ambassador for Christ Award,
6. Humanitarian organizations such as that of Excellence in Humanitarian Service Award
7. Students' organizations such as that of Academic Support Award and
8. Communities such as that of "OTOM UDEDO U MBAWAR 1" – "GOOD SERVANT OF MBAWAR 1"; a meritorious Honorary Chieftaincy Title by Mbawar Community, Taraba State (Former Gongola State) (NYSC).

COMMUNITY AND LEADERSHIP SERVICES

1. ***PRO* (2017-2019),** Okrika Divisional Council of Chiefs (ODCC), Walga, Rivers State
2. ***Member,* 12th RSU Governing Council** (2015-2019), Representing the Alumni.
3. ***Vice Chairman* (2015-2019)**, Ogoloma Council of Chiefs, Ogoloma, WALGA, R/S.
4. ***Chairman* (2014),** Summit Planning Committee, Wakirike Development Plan Summit.
5. ***Member* (2014-Date)**, Board of Directors, Development and Leadership Institute (DLI).
6. ***Secretary* (2013)**, Ijaw Youth Council Crisis Resolution Committee of the INC.
7. ***Secretary*** (2012): Okrika LGA Crisis Resolution Committee.
8. ***Chief Ogulacha II* (2010-Date)**, Chief and Head of Ogulacha War Canoe House of Ogoloma, Okrika, Rivers State.
9. ***National Secretary* (2008-2010):** Rivers State University of Science & Technology Alumni Association
10. ***Member,* (2008):** Committee on Youth Development, Okrika Local Government Council.
11. ***Vice Chairman* (2008-2010):** Rivers State University of Science & Technology Alumni Association, Rivers State Branch
12. ***Member* (2007)**: National Representative Council, and Committee on Youth Affairs, Ijaw National Congress (INC)

13. ***Deputy Leader* (2005)**: Representative Council, Eastern Zone, Ijaw National Council (INC)
14. ***Secretary* (2004-2005)**: Advisory Council, Okrika Local Government Council
15. ***Chairman* (2000-2006)**: Committee on Youth Affairs, Ijaw National Congress (INC)
16. ***Secretary* (1999-2003)**: Rivers State Government Project Monitoring Committee (WALGA)
17. ***Chairman* (1998-Date)**: The 12th Friend Circle of Ogoloma
18. ***Secretary* (1996-2002)**: Wakirike National Congress (WNC)
19. ***Executive Attaché* (1994-1995)**: Dr. D. Denni-Fiberesima, National Vice President, Ijaw National Congress (INC).
20. ***President* (1993-1995)**: Post Graduate Students Association (PGSA), RSUST, Port Harcourt.
21. ***National President* (1986-1987)**: National Union of Rivers State Students (NURSS)
22. ***Member* (1986)**: Publicity & Enlightenment Committee, Political Bureau, Rivers State
23. ***Senior Prefect* (1983-1984)**: Government Secondary School, Abissa.

PERSONAL PHILOSOPHIES AND GUILDING PRINCIPLES

1. Service to God and Humanity.
2. Nothing happens that must not come to pass.
3. Rejoice not over anyone's misfortune.
3. Never feel too important to appreciate others.

4. Wisdom requires the application of deep and critical thoughts.
5. The best measure of wealth is how many persons one has helped to become successful.

RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION AND FAMILY

The Inaugural Lecturer was born into the Christ Army Church in Ogoloma. He is now a member of the Calvary Baptist Church, Borikiri, Port Harcourt. He is married to a supportive, humble, homely, grow-along and very entertaining friend, Mrs. Victory Aya Zeb-Obipi (nee Fiberesima) with two lovely children, Dieye and Nengi.

RIVERS STATE UNIVERSITY
NKPOLU-OROWORUKWO,
PORT HARCOURT, RIVERS STATE

PEOPLE MANAGEMENT TRIPOD AND WORKER PRODUCTIVITY: THE SOLUTE, SOLVENT AND SOLUTION

An
Inaugural Lecture

by

PROFESSOR ISAAC ZEB-OBIPI
B.Ed., MBA, PhD, FIHNR, FIMC, MTAMN, MCIPM

PROFESSOR OF MANAGEMENT

(Organizational Behaviour & Human Resource Management)
Department of Management, Faculty of Management Sciences

PROGRAMME OF EVENT

SERIES NO. 79

Wednesday, 27th July, 2022

ORDER OF EVENT

1. Arrival
2. Opening Prayer
3. University Anthem
4. Introduction of Dignitaries by the Master of Ceremony (IPP Unit)
5. Registrar's Invitation to the Vice-Chancellor for Opening Remarks
6. Opening Remarks by the Vice-Chancellor
7. Citation on the Inaugural Lecturer by a Stand-in University Orator
8. The Inaugural Lecture Presentation by Prof. Isaac Zeb-Obipi
9. Presentation of Lecture Monograph to the Vice-Chancellor
10. Closing Remarks by the Vice-Chancellor
11. Vote of Thanks by the Chairman, Senate Lectures Committee
12. Closing Prayer
13. University Anthem
14. Departure
15. Photograph Session

UNIVERSITY SONG

1. RivSU, RivSU we sing of thee
Flower of knowledge and Peace
In the Garden City stands a tree
From whence inspiration comes
The people of many a tongue
Come and search and find the Golden Fleece
All for a simple and humble song
All for excellence and creativity.

2. RivSU, RivSU we wing of thee
Flower of knowledge and Peace
Busy we all toil as the bee
Fruitful, science and tech we grow
Keep in motion the wheel of truth
Waters of the rivers always flow
To build a Nation in truth
All for excellence and creativity

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