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FOREWORD

This fourth edition of the CIPM study pack is one of the learning resources recommended to persons preparing for certification through professional examinations. It is uniquely prepared to meet the knowledge standards of HR certification bodies and/or degree awarding institutions. The study pack is highly recommended to researchers, people managers and organisations responsible for human capital development in its entirety.

Each chapter in the text has been logically arranged to sufficiently cover all the various sections of this subject as itemised in the CIPM examination syllabus. This is to enhance systematic learning and understanding of the users. The document, a product of in-depth study and research, is practical and original. We have ensured that topics and sub-topics are based on the syllabus and on contemporary HR best practices.

Although concerted effort has been made to ensure that the text is up to date in matters relating to theories and practices of contemporary issues in HR, nevertheless, we advise and encourage students to complement the study text with other study materials recommended in the syllabus. This is to ensure total coverage of the elastic scope and dynamics of the HR profession.

Thank you and do have a productive preparation as you navigate through the process of becoming a seasoned Human Resources Management professional.

Olusegun Mojeed, FCIPM, fnli
President & Chairman of the Governing Council

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

1.1 Learning Objectives

At the end of this topic, students should be able to:

- i. define Psychology as a discipline;
- ii. list and explain the goals of Psychology;
- iii. describe the history of psychology, prominent scholars and the growth of the discipline over the years.

1.2. Introduction

The fascinating discipline of psychology, also known as the “science of mind and behaviour,” investigates the interconnectedness of people’s thoughts, feelings, and deeds. It investigates the most fundamental parts of our lives, including our worldview, cognitive processes, memory, and social interactions. Understanding others and ourselves is made easier with the tools provided by the study of psychology, which delves deep into the mind to uncover underlying behavioural patterns. Fundamentally, psychology is a multifaceted field that integrates insights from the scientific, management and social sciences. It uses various approaches, from scientific study to experiments to simple observation, to probe the many elements of the human condition. Psychology covers various research interests, from how an individual changes from birth to adulthood to how social environments affect our choices. Learning about psychology can help us better understand others and ourselves. It gives us the information and skills we need to develop as individuals, strengthen our connections with others, and face the difficulties of daily life head-on.

1.3. Definition of Psychology

Learning about psychology may shed light on our motivations and responses to the world around us and those of other people and animals. Understanding the relationship between your mind and body, enhancing your capacity for learning and memory, and learning to cope with the ups and downs of everyday life are all things that a study of psychology may look into. The Greek words psyche (meaning “soul” or “mind”) and logy (meaning “study of”) are the origins of the English word “psychology.” Before the early 1900s, “psychology” meant the study of the human mind or spirit. To begin with, science is concerned with the observable, and the mind is not. Second, to refer to something as “the mind” suggests it is material. Thinking is a

systematic procedure. It's not like a river, but rather the river's flow; it's not like a car, but rather its motion. In the early 20th century, psychologists called themselves "the scientists who study behaviour." The horizontal portion of the top line seems to be longer than that of the bottom line (even though they are the same length), but this optical illusion raises more questions than it answers. So, let's meet in the middle and say that psychology studies human behaviour and experience. Using the term 'experience,' we may talk about how you feel without indicating that your mind is separate from your body.

However, understanding human behaviour and thought processes is central to psychology, which aims to put such knowledge to good use for the benefit of all people. The scientific method is the primary tool used to investigate any psychological issue. When using the scientific method, researchers unsure of the answer to a question concerning how or why something occurs can suggest a hypothesis as a working theory. A theory is not any old explanation; rather, it must make sense within the framework of an established scientific theory. A scientific theory is a comprehensive explanation (or set of explanations) for a phenomenon in nature that is repeatedly correct. A theory represents our current best guess of how anything in nature works. Having formed an approach, the researcher may test it by observation, or, ideally, experiment findings are made public so that others may verify. Any scientific theory must account for observable and quantifiable phenomena to be put to the test. Since we can't quantify a bird's pleasure, the theory that it sings because it's happy cannot be tested. There has to be a shift in focus to something that can be quantified, like the bird's mental condition. Knowledge regarding values and morals is outside the scope of science since they are not measurable like matter and energy. Since ideas, at least in our perspective, are neither substance nor energy, scientific comprehension of the mind is restricted. The scientific method is an empiricism-based approach.

Most psychologists would agree that it's essential for the discipline to be open to new ideas. Therefore, there are several meanings to the term "behaviour and mental processes" in the definition of psychology. It includes not only actions but also mental and emotional states, sensory data, cognitive processes, stored information, and physical processes necessary for survival. Psychologists work to alter and enhance people's lives and society by describing, predicting, and explaining human behaviour and mental processes. Compared to the sometimes erroneous results of intuition and guesswork, the solutions they uncover via scientific procedures are far more genuine and respectable.

In summary, Psychology is the scientific study of human behaviour and mental processes, including thoughts, emotions, perceptions, and actions (Roggie, 2003). It endeavours to understand how humans think, feel, and behave in various circumstances and how biological, social, and environmental variables impact these mental and behavioural processes. According to Aliyu (2019), psychology covers various subject areas, including personality, cognition, motivation, learning, memory, sensation, perception, development, social behaviour, and mental health.

1.4. Goals of psychology

Sequel to the previous discussion, it is evident that understanding and explaining human behaviour and thought is central to psychology. It explores questions about human thought processes, feelings, drives, and relationships. Normal functioning and deviant behaviour are study subjects in psychology, which seeks to understand their causes. However, psychology has four (4) major goals: describe, explain, predict, and control or modify behaviour.

- 1) **Describe:** The primary goal of psychology is to provide a descriptive analysis of how people react to various stimuli. What, where, and who are all part of a circumstance are all things to consider while describing it. Psychologists can differentiate between typical and aberrant patterns of thinking and activity in humans and other animals by defining the problem. Psychologists employ a wide range of research methodologies, such as surveys, case studies, natural observation, and self-evaluation assessments, to get to this end. These scientific approaches allow for the most precise and impartial characterisation of behaviour (Zaccaro, 2007).
- 2) After the event has been reported, the data collected may be utilised as a foundation for future research into the observed behaviour. In addition to the above, psychology's primary goal is to describe human problems, worries, and actions accurately. Psychologists rely heavily on characterising since it helps them judge whether or not a person's thoughts or actions are within the norm. It also helps children comprehend human thought and action more comprehensively. When we describe something, it suggests that our level of self-awareness and self-control has increased (Gire, 2004).
In general, researchers in psychology compile information on human behaviour and mental processes to form a complete and accurate picture of these phenomena. The issue of measuring is brought to light by this data gathering. Observing and describing human behaviour is psychology's primary focus; detailed descriptions of each facilitate defining what's "normal" and "abnormal" regarding animal and human behaviour. In

order to define and categorise various forms of behaviour, psychologists collect data through studies, surveys, and experiments using tools like the Big Five Personality Test, Aptitude Test, Case Studies, Correlation Studies, and self-report Inventories.

- 3) **Explain:** After describing a person's actions, psychologists try to dig deeper into the motivations behind such actions. The field of psychology attempts to explain human behaviour by conducting tests, experiments, and careful observations. Why individuals act in certain ways may be explained by looking at the context in which they act (Landy & Conte, 2016). Numerous theories have been developed during the psychological study to account for every facet of our conduct. Some theories in psychology are considered micro theories since they only address specific, narrow areas of human thinking and behaviour. However, most psychological research is devoted to prominent theories that attempt to explain every facet of human psychology. Attachment Theory, Behavioural and Cognitive Theory, and Classical Conditioning are some theories used to explain behaviour. For instance, in the classical conditioning method, a youngster is left alone with a dog in a room. At first, he seems completely fearless. The second scenario is a terrifying introduction to the dog by a loud noise. The reintroduction of the dog causes the youngster anxiety since he associates the dog's reappearance with the disturbing noise.

Explaining the causes of observed behaviours and phenomena falls under this category (Madolev, 2012). For instance, if workers at a company ignore safety equipment, a rationale for their behaviour might be developed. Explanation is the ultimate goal of psychology. Psychologists don't only describe mental processes; they also seek to understand the motivations behind people's actions. Psychologists often use controlled laboratory experiments to study human behaviour. After that, they start figuring out why people act as they do. Many psychologists have contributed groundbreaking theories, some of them have stood the test of time, whereas more convincing ones have superseded others. From a psychologist's standpoint, one may look at objective evidence to explain a problem, perform medical and psychological exams, investigate the client's history, do in-depth personal research, and so on. Why do people do these things? Why do certain triggers generate that kind of reaction? Can anything in their biology, upbringing, or mental make-up account for their peculiar outlook and behaviour?

- 4) Predict:** One of the main goals of psychology is to make predictions based on the past. Studies in psychology attempt to foresee the recurrence of observed behaviours by looking at patterns of occurrence in the past. Psychologists may utilise this information to identify trends in people's behaviour and learn more about their motivations. Predicting someone's future actions is psychology's third purpose (Landy & Conte, 2016). Prediction is another focus of scientific study in the field of psychology. In other words, specific predictions about the behaviour of interest may be established based on even prior studies. Prediction involves the identification of potential causes of a future event or behaviour. Previous studies and data are used to predict why workers aren't wearing safety equipment. Keeping tabs on past observations may help scientists predict when and how similar behaviours will occur in the future and what factors could lead those behaviours to change. Predictions in psychology are often based on analysis of existing data or original study results. The term for this is "predicting." A psychologist may assist you in altering your actions to prevent a recurrence of a negative outcome. Hard evidence is not the sole foundation for predictions.
- For instance, a researcher may have shown that alcoholics are more likely to develop a nicotine addiction, but he may not know the underlying causes of this correlation. However, by learning more about this phenomenon, we may work to lessen the likelihood of someone becoming dependent on alcohol and nicotine (Landy & Conte, 2016). Accurately forecasting future events relies heavily on an accurate understanding of the past, which is why describing and explaining past behaviour is so important. Predicting people's behaviour accurately is a good indicator of how well we grasp what motivates them. Psychologists may use prediction to make educated estimates about human behaviour, even if they don't fully grasp the processes at play. For instance, researchers may find that the results of a certain aptitude test may be used to forecast the likelihood that a certain set of high school students would discontinue their studies throughout the school year.
- 5) Control:** One of the main goals of psychological study, alongside curing mental disorders and improving people's quality of life, is altering or managing their behaviour. Using information gleaned from several psychological research on human behaviour, people can exert more control over their actions (Zaccaro, 2007). Research's goal of control, which entails altering behaviour using effective intervention techniques, is similar. For instance, appropriate intervention tactics may be created to

increase employee usage of safety equipment. Psychology's ultimate goal is changing or dominating behaviour via strategic planning and action. This objective is to make people's lives better and more meaningful. The effect should endure long enough to enhance someone's standard of living. It might provide some much-needed relief for others. One useful psychological skill in dealing with stress is understanding how to prevent or mitigate a manic episode (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005). In addition, stress reduction, emotional regulation, and an uplifted disposition are benefits.

In the scenario above, researchers may utilise what they've learned about the correlation between students' performance on aptitude tests and their likelihood of dropping out of school to create interventions to reduce the latter. Changing people's habits is one of psychology's main focuses, with applications ranging from treating mental illness to promoting general well-being (Wertheimer, 2000).

1.5. History of Psychology

Psychology is a relatively new science, but its origins can be traced through centuries. Since at least the time of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle in ancient Greece, philosophers have debated such psychological topics as where human knowledge comes from, the nature of mind and soul, the relationship of the mind to the body, and even the possibility of scientifically studying these matters (Wertheimer, 2000). So scientific psychology is rooted in philosophy, especially in a philosophical view called empiricism. In the 1600s, empiricists such as John Locke, George Berkeley, and David Hume challenged the claim—made by philosophers as far back as Plato that some of what we know is present at birth. Empiricists argued that our minds are more like a blank slate (*tabula rasa* in Latin) on which our experiences write a lifelong story. In other words, according to empiricism, knowledge comes to us only through our experiences and observations. For nearly 130 years, empiricism has guided psychologists in seeking knowledge about behaviour and mental processes not through speculation but through observations governed by the rules of science. We can trace psychology's roots back to the ancient Greeks, who considered the mind a suitable topic for scholarly contemplation. Later philosophers argued for hundreds of years about some of the questions psychologists grapple with today. For example, the 17th-century British philosopher John Locke believed that children were born into the world with minds like “blank slates” (*tabula rasa* in Latin) and that their experiences determined what kind of adults they would become. His views contrasted with those of Plato and the 17th-century French philosopher René Descartes, who argued that some knowledge was inborn in humans.

1.5.1 The Structuralism 1832-1920

The German scientist Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) was the first to be called a psychologist. In 1873, he released *Principles of Physiological Psychology*, a landmark work in the field. According to Wundt, psychology aims to determine what factors contribute to our awareness and how they interact to produce our subjective state of mind. Wundt employed introspection (which he referred to as "internal perception"), which involves examining one's conscious experience as objectively as possible to treat the human mind as if it were any other part of nature. Wundt's version of introspection relied only on carefully controlled laboratory settings in which an external stimulus was intended to elicit a measurable (replicable) mental state (Taylor, 1911).

First, only "trained" or experienced observers who could detect and report a response in real-time were allowed. The second criterion was that consistent, reliable stimuli be used so that the person may anticipate and be prepared for the inner response. Because another human being cannot see the human mind and awareness, it was necessary to implement these experimental procedures to avoid "interpretation" in the reporting of internal experiences. The term "structuralism" was coined to describe this line of inquiry into the nature of the mind. In 1879 Wundt set up his psychology lab at the University of Leipzig. Wundt and his students conducted experiments there, including timing responses. A light, picture, or sound would be shown to a subject, sometimes placed in an isolated room from the scientist. The individual would respond to the stimulus by pressing a button, and the interval between the stimulation and the button press would be measured and recorded. However, his attempts to educate others on introspection fell short since the process remained extremely subjective, and participants seldom reached a consensus. Structuralism lost popularity when Wundt's disciple Edward Titchener died in 1927 (Volti, 2008).

1.5.2 Gestalt Psychology, 1880-1943

In the early 20th century, three (3) German psychologists, Max Wertheimer (1880-1943), Kurt Koffka (1886-1941), and Wolfgang Kohler (1887-1967), emigrated to the US to escape Nazi Germany. These scholars are widely regarded for spreading the different Gestalt concepts among American psychologists. A primary focus of Gestalt psychology is that while a sensory experience may be dissected into its component pieces, it is frequently how those parts relate to one another as a whole that elicits a perceptual response from the person. When these individuals immigrated to the US, they were prevented from continuing their extensive labour and study. Although the ideas of Gestalt psychology were prominent in Germany, their impact

was dampened in the US due to the reasons above and the subsequent growth of behaviourism (Volti, 2008). Despite these caveats, numerous Gestalt ideas continue to significantly impact the modern world. Late in the century, the idea that a person should be seen as a whole rather than a collection of pieces was established as a cornerstone of humanistic thinking. Gestalt theory has continued to impact studies of perception and sensation. The main focus of structuralists, psychoanalysts like Freud, and Gestalt psychologists was on articulating and making sense of subjective experience. However, out of ethical reservations that interior experience could be the topic of scientific investigation, some researchers limited their focus to the visible output of mental processes, and actions.

1.5.3 Psychoanalytic Theory, 1856 to 1939

Sigmund Freud is one of the most famous and important people in the history of psychology. Freud, an Austrian neurologist from 1856 to 1939, was attracted by his patients with "hysteria" and neurosis. Hysteria was a common diagnosis in the ancient world for diseases affecting predominantly women and characterized by a broad range of symptoms (both physical and mental) for which there was no clear organic basis. He argued that many of Freud's patients' issues originated in the patient's subconscious. Freud believed that our unconscious mind stores emotions and drives of which we are unaware. The patient's troubles could only be solved if we could reach their unconscious. Dream analysis, analyses of the first words that come to people's thoughts, and harmless slips of the tongue were all ways that Freud believed the unconscious mind might be reached. For decades, the field of clinical psychology was dominated by psychoanalytic theory (Thorne & Henley, 2005), which emphasizes the importance of the unconscious and formative events. Learning more about Freud's theories may be accomplished by looking into the fields of lifespan psychology, personality analysis, and psychotherapy. For instance, many therapists put a lot of stock in the idea that one's formative years have a lasting effect on one's psyche. Although Freud did not create the psychoanalytic technique of having the patient speak about their past and present selves, he greatly publicised it. The other theories of Freud, however, are very contentious. According to Drew Westen (1998) many of the critiques of Freud's views are misguided since they focus on his earlier works rather than his later works. Westen argues that Freud's critics overlook the impact of Freud's big ideas, such as the significance of early life experiences on adult motivations, the difference between unconscious and conscious motivations, the potential for internal conflicts to influence behaviour, the role of self- and other-perceptions in shaping interactions, and the evolution of personality. All of these hypotheses are supported by further study, which Westen

details. Empirical evidence supports the efficacy of updated versions of Freud's therapeutic method (Knekt et al., 2008; Shedler, 2010). The therapist-client connection is commonly used in contemporary psychotherapy as a lens through which the client's unconscious self and relationships may be explored. Freud should be included in any examination of psychological history because of his historical relevance and therapeutic contributions.

1.5.4 Functionalism, 1842-1910

The first American psychologist to advocate a novel approach to the field was William James (1842-1910). William learned about Darwin's theory of evolution by natural selection and agreed that it could be explained the diversity among living things. Natural selection is crucial to this concept because it explains how organisms change in response to their surroundings. Because of natural selection, an adapted characteristic in an organism serves a purpose crucial to the organism's ability to survive and reproduce. James's view, known as functionalism, was that the field of psychology existed to investigate the role that actions played in society. Another, more nuanced interpretation of functionalism is that, unlike structuralists, functionalists were concerned with how the mind worked rather than how its constituent elements did so. William, like Wundt, thought introspection was useful for studying mental processes, but he also used more objective processes, such as the use of various recording devices and the examination of the tangible results of mental processes and anatomy and physiology (Akinwale, 2018).

Behavioural analysis and John B. Watson James's interest in the nature and purpose of consciousness was not the only area of research opened up by Darwin's theory of evolution to psychologists in the decades after 1900, particularly in North America. If all species developed adaptively, universal rules might govern how they think and act. Psychologists observed animals' behaviours in mazes and other experimental settings. They extrapolated universal rules of learning, memory, problem-solving, and other mental processes from these discoveries with the hope that they might also apply to humans. Professor of psychology at Johns Hopkins University, John B. Watson, felt that animal and human behaviour provided the most relevant scientific data in the field. In 1913, Watson published "Psychology as the Behaviourist Views It." In it, he claimed that psychologists should stop thinking about what's going on in people's heads and focus instead on what can be seen in the wild (Watson, 1919). His theory, known as behaviourism, did not consider the unconscious as Freud's did, nor did it address awareness like structuralism and functionalism did. According to Watson, consciousness studies prevent psychology from becoming a legitimate science. Learning, according to Watson, is the primary

driver of behaviour. He famously said that with sufficient manipulation of the infant's surroundings, he could train the child to become a doctor, a lawyer, or a criminal.

1.5.5 Behaviourism, 1849-1936

Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) was a Russian scientist who pioneered the study of behaviour. Pavlov researched conditioned reflexes, a learning behaviour in which an animal or person first responds reflexively (unconsciously) to a stimulus and then learns to respond similarly to a new stimulus that the researcher has previously connected with the initial stimulus. The reflex Pavlov studied was the production of saliva in reaction to the presence of food. The salivation response might be triggered by repeatedly presenting a second stimulus, such a particular sound, alongside the original meal stimulation. As soon as the second stimulus was "learned," the food stimulus was unnecessary. Among the many forms of learning behaviour that behaviourists examine, Pavlov's "classical conditioning" is only one.

John B. Watson a prominent American psychologist, at Johns Hopkins University in the early 20th century. Watson believed that the study of consciousness was defective, whereas Wundt and James were focused on elucidating the nature of conscious experience. Since Watson thought conducting an impartial investigation of the mind was difficult, he instead concentrated on controlling overt behaviour. "behaviourism" described Watson's influential movement to change psychology's emphasis from the mind to behaviour. The relationship between taught behaviour and innate characteristics of the organism was a primary focus of behaviourist research. Many behaviourist studies were conducted on animals, hoping that insights gained there may be applied to people.

B. F. Skinner, an American psychologist, was also an early supporter of behaviourism. Operant conditioning is a learning process in which incentives and punishments shape, sustain, and modify behaviour, and Skinner researched it from the 1930s until he died in 1990. When explaining how adults might unwittingly foster children's tantrums by rewarding them with attention, Skinner would use functional analysis of behaviour (Volti, 2008). He also pointed out that the thrill of gambling's virtual rewards might lead to compulsive behaviour because of the game's sporadic and unpredictability. According to Skinner, functional analysis not only elucidates the underlying acquired principles of behaviour but also shows how reinforcement and punishment may be modified to bring about the desired changes. Many psychologists agreed with Watson and Skinner's view of psychology as studying learning and observable behaviour. From the 1920s through the 1960s, behavioural studies were the norm in North

American psychology. "In Review: The Development of Psychology" offers a concise history of the many psychological philosophies (including behaviourism) that have shaped the field.

1.5.6 Humanism, 1908-1970

In the early 20th century, behaviourism and psychoanalysis dominated American psychological thought. However, not many psychologists were happy with the widespread impact of what they saw as narrow viewpoints. They took issue with Freud's gloomy outlook and determinism (all behaviour is determined by the unconscious). They also didn't like that behaviourism tended to oversimplify things. Because it considers both heredity and environmental factors equally responsible for shaping an individual's behaviour, behaviourism is also deterministic at its foundation. Some psychologists started developing theories on the significance of deliberate choice and a genuine propensity toward "good" in shaping our sense of identity and actions. Therefore, humanism developed. Humanism is a school of thought in psychology that holds that every person has the capacity for good. Maslow and Rogers are two of the most well-known humanistic psychologists

American psychologist Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) is well recognized for his work outlining a hierarchy of needs to inspire action. This idea will be explored in further depth in the next chapter, but a high-level summary will be offered for now. According to Maslow, after a person's physiological and safety requirements are addressed (i.e., food, water, shelter), their higher-level wants (i.e., social needs) will kick in and inspire their actions. Self-actualization, or the development of one's full potential, is central to Maslow's theory of the hierarchy of needs. As is typical of the humanistic worldview, focusing on the best in others is plain to see (Thorne & Henley, 2005). For humanistic psychologists, the "whole" person is lost in the reductionist experiments typical of the physical and biological sciences; hence they reject it on principle. Humanistic inquiry was pushed back to Maslow and Rogers. Quantitative research streams exist within humanistic psychology, such as studies of happiness, self-concept, meditation, and the results of humanistic psychotherapy (Aliyu, 2019) although this program has been mostly qualitative (not measurement-based).

Like Maslow, American psychologist Carl Rogers (1902-1987) focused on the goodness that can be found in everyone. Rogers helped his clients who sought therapy because of difficult personal problems using client-centred therapy. In client-centred treatment, the patient takes the reins, as opposed to the therapist's central role in psychoanalysis in deciphering what the patient's conscious conduct indicates about the unconscious mind. According to Rogers, a

therapist's ability to use this method to its fullest extent hinges on their ability to demonstrate three qualities: unconditional positive regard, authenticity, and empathy. The therapist practices unconditional positive regard when they take the client at face value, no matter what the client says. Given these conditions, Rogers thought, individuals could resolve their own problems (Thorne & Henley, 2005).

1.6. Conclusion

The scientific study of human behaviour and mental processes may be understood on a fundamental level after taking a broad introduction to psychology course. It delves into the intricate inner workings of the mind to examine things like learning, feeling, seeing, growing, and being social. Psychology aims to explain why people think, feel, and behave the way they do by studying these basic systems. Psychologists use various research methodologies and theoretical frameworks to understand better people, communities, and societies to study normal and aberrant behaviour. It elucidates the biological, psychological, and social forces that affect human experiences. A person's understanding of themselves and the world around them and their respect for the variety and complexity of human nature may be greatly enhanced by studying psychology. Thus, the broad overview of psychology introduces students to the fascinating world of human behaviour and mental processes and lays the groundwork for future field studies. It's a great resource for learning about the inner workings of people's minds, which may lead to more compassion, self-awareness, and comprehension of the forces at play in everyone's life.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. What is the definition of psychology?
 - a) The study of the human mind and behaviour
 - b) The study of the human body and its functions
 - c) The study of the natural world and its phenomena
 - d) The study of the physical and chemical properties of matter

2. Which of the following is NOT a subfield of psychology?
 - a) Developmental psychology
 - b) Social psychology
 - c) Political Psychology
 - d) Clinical psychology

3. What is the difference between nature and nurture?
- a) Nature refers to genetics, while nurture refers to environmental factors.
 - b) Nature refers to environmental factors, while nurture refers to genetics.
 - c) Nature and nurture are the same thing.
 - d) Nature and nurture are unrelated concepts.
4. What is the difference between a psychologist and a psychiatrist?
- a) A psychologist has a medical degree, while a psychiatrist does not.
 - b) A psychologist focuses on talk therapy, while a psychiatrist focuses on medication management.
 - c) A psychologist can prescribe medication, while a psychiatrist cannot.
 - d) A psychologist and a psychiatrist are the same thing.
5. What is the purpose of a double-blind study?
- a) To prevent the researcher from knowing which participants are in the control group and which are in the experimental group.
 - b) To prevent the participants from knowing which group they are in.
 - c) To prevent both the researcher and the participants from knowing which group they are in.
 - d) To ensure that the study is conducted in a fair and unbiased manner.
6. Which of the following is a goal of psychological research?
- a) Describe
 - b) Explain
 - c) Predict
 - d) all of the above
7. Which of the following is not a goal of psychological research?
- a) to describe behaviour
 - b) to provide therapy
 - c) to predict future behaviours
 - d) to influence behaviour
8. When you ask yourself, “Why is this happening” you are conducting research for which goal of psychology?

- a) Describe
- b) Explain
- c) Predict
- d) influence

Case Study: Understanding Learning Styles

Imagine you are a teaching assistant for an introductory psychology class. The class comprises students from diverse backgrounds and learning styles. Your professor has asked you to design a study guide that explains the concept of learning styles and how understanding them can enhance students' study strategies and academic performance.

Question:

Create a comprehensive study guide that explains the concept of learning styles, the various types of learning styles proposed by psychologists, and the implications of recognizing and accommodating different learning styles in education. Use relevant psychological theories to support your explanations.

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Recommendations for further reading

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CHAPTER TWO

APPLICATION OF PSYCHOLOGY TO HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

2.1. Learning Objectives

Students should be able to:

- i. define human resource management;
- ii. explain Human Resource management as an aspect of Industrial Psychology;
- iii. identify and explain the major functions of human resource management (human resource planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation management, performance management and employee health and safety); and
- iv. deploy psychological theories and principles for excellent human resource management

2.2. Introduction

The application of psychology to the management of human resources (HR) entails using psychological concepts and theories to enhance the efficiency of activities about HR within businesses and other types of organisations. This strategy acknowledges the significance of understanding human behaviour and motivation in the workplace, and it tries to make use of this knowledge to improve employee performance, job satisfaction, and the overall success of the firm. A more satisfied and productive work environment may benefit individuals and the business by applying psychological concepts to recruiting, selection, training/development and performance management, among other functions. These are just some areas in which psychological principles can be used.

2.3. Definition of Human Resource Management

Human resource management (HRM) is a systematic process by which human capital or human resource are recruited, managed and transitioned in a way that helps an organisation achieve its objectives (Isiaka, Kadiri & Aliyu, 2016). Mondy and Noe (2005) described HRM as a field concerned with the organisation and the human elements' well-being. They believed that HRM is critical in any organisation since it functions as an integrated unit that seeks to select the right person, for the right job, at the right time and position in a dynamic environment. According to them, the unit considers not only recruitment and selection but also the motivation, development and maintenance of human resources. On this note, De Cenzo and Robbins (2003) posited that HRM is a strategic approach to the effective and efficient management of people

in a company or organisation such that they help its business gain a competitive advantage. This was based on scholarly notions that the performance of an organisation depends mainly on the efficiency of its human resources involved.

As Dessler (2008) reported, the contemporary business world requires a systematic set-up for recruitment, training and development, motivation, workforce planning, performance evaluation, industrial relation and remuneration management, which is the primary responsibility of HRM. This practice focuses on developing skills, ability and knowledge in human resources so that the tasks and responsibilities given by the organisation are performed effectively and efficiently. The contemporary concept of HRM centered on four key functions, which Al-Hawary and Alajmi (2017) identified as human resources acquisition, development, maintenance and motivation. Although various HRM scholars are addressed in the literature what affects an organisation's performance individually or collectively, talent management is the most prevalent today.

2.4. Relationship between HRM and Industrial Psychology

First, HRM and industrial psychology focus on people management in the workplace. For instance, the issues of recruitment, selection, training, performance evaluation, and pay are all aspects of HRM. On the other side, industrial psychologists try to figure out how to maximise productivity by studying employees' actions in the workplace. For example, according to Aliyu (2019), HRM refers to an organisation's long-term strategy for handling its people issues. This includes hiring, screening, orienting, coaching, rewarding, and communicating with workers. Aside from that, it equally aims to provide businesses with a reliable and efficient workforce. However, industrial psychology, often known as organisational or occupational psychology (Aamodt, 2007), is a subfield focusing on the workplace. A good example is employee attitudes and motivation, job satisfaction, productivity, and health and wellness are all major study issues.

Furthermore, HRM is related to industrial psychology since the latter offers the theoretical underpinnings for HRM techniques. This is why most HR managers consult the findings of industrial psychologists on issues including employee motivation, job satisfaction, leadership styles, and company culture (Akinwale & Aliyu, 2019). HR experts might use the findings of an industrial psychologist's study of the elements that affect workers' motivation to create incentive programs that push workers to give their all. As a result, it can be observed that HRM and industrial psychology work toward the same end, i.e. enhancing business output. In another

report by Aliyu et al. (2020), HR managers use HRM techniques informed by Industrial Psychology to position their companies better to meet their objectives, while industrial psychologists, on the other hand, utilise their understanding of HRM to develop studies to boost businesses' efficiency. So, it's two-way traffic.

However, from the perspective of Spector (2008), understanding human behaviour and psychological processes in the workplace is a central goal of industrial psychology, which is why the field offers theoretical frameworks, research methodology, and practical insights. It's useful for HR experts to determine what drives workers, keeps them satisfied at work, and boosts productivity. Employee evaluations, training and development programs, and performance management systems are just some of the HR practices that benefit from the expertise of industrial psychologists. On the other hand, HRM is the set of policies and procedures that a business uses to oversee its employees. It implements the lessons learned from the field of industrial psychology. HR experts use industrial psychology to hire people who are a good fit for the position and the company's culture, to create training programs that are based on scientific research into how people learn, and to implement performance evaluation systems that take into account the psychological factors that affect employees' work.

2.5. Major Functions of Human Resource Management

The available data indicate that the HRM revolves around the following functional areas: human resource planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation management, performance management, employees' health and safety, among others.

2.5.1 Human Resource Planning

Human resource planning (HRP) is the systematic and strategic planning of a company's human capital to suit immediate and long-term business needs. HRP is the ongoing process of determining what a company's human resource requirements are and how to find the best workers to meet those needs. It requires methodical planning to deploy HR to satisfy immediate and long-term demands. A company's current labour supply is analysed, labour demand is predicted, anticipated labour demand and supply are equalised, and assistance in achieving organisational objectives are the four main activities in HRP (Spector, 2000). However, HRP ensures that there is never a shortage or excess of employees and that the best possible match between workers and occupations is also made, despite frequent staff setup or pool changes

(Wong & Thirumoorthy, 2015). Several procedures aid HR managers in achieving their goals via HRP, including (Isiaka, et al. 2016);

- i. The identification of specialised labour.
- ii. The top candidates are chosen, trained, and paid for the open positions.
- iii. Dealing with absenteeism and resolving disputes.
- iv. Promotions, pay, dismissals, and employee discipline.

HRP necessitates four broad steps, they are:

- i. Determining a company's current supply of HR. This calls for knowledge of workers' various responsibilities and performance levels and the available HR in an organisation.
- ii. Predicting the workforce of a corporation in the future. Future workforce requirements of a corporation are described, including those for employee transfers, promotions, pay raises, and retirements.
- iii. Estimating the demand for jobs. This entails anticipating a company's future expectations and preparing to satisfy them.
- iv. Combining plans and strategies with the business's overarching strategy. The HR is now seeking funding to carry out its objectives and initiatives. Collaboration with other corporate divisions is also necessary.

2.5.2 Recruitment and Selection

In order to hire qualified workers, a thorough recruiting and selecting strategy is essential. For example, selecting an appropriate strategy for recruitment and selection guarantees productivity and reliable performance. A well-thought-out recruiting strategy aids in further modifying employee conduct and attitude. This will help to create a skilled, driven, and effective workforce (Chakraborty & Biswas, 2020). The effectiveness of production is impacted by hiring qualified people with advanced skills and talents and a better control system that improves quality performance. A firm's coherence and output are increased through proper recruiting, which ensures that the correct individuals are brought in to fulfil the organisational aim and mission. As workers become aware of organisational needs and act appropriately to provide the company with a competitive edge, a successful recruiting strategy significantly influences organisational performance and growth (Aamodt, 2007). The company's strategic goals are achieved by attracting a pool of HRs with diverse skills, experience, and competencies. As a result, the firm gains a human capital advantage (Aliyu, 2019). Chakraborty

& Biswas (2020), a structured recruiting strategy enhances the likelihood of hiring people with the necessary aptitudes, dispositions, and levels of commitment. It guarantees successful organisational results. The expansion of an organisation is constrained by poor recruiting strategies, which also lead to decreased undesired expenses and reduced staff turnover.

The primary aim of the selection process is to identify and hire the most qualified applicant(s) for the vacant position. Recruiting many people is easy, but selecting the best out of them is often problematic for employers. This is because employing the wrong people can cause long-term negative effects, such as high training costs, a loss of reputation, increased labour turnover, meagre production, and a loss of profitability (Chidi, 2013). Conventionally, “Person-Environment Fit” is the main instrument used in the selection process (Aliyu, 2019). Managers hiring employees need to understand the skills and abilities required in a particular job and determine which candidates have those capabilities. Interviews, reference checks, tests, applications, and résumés can all help identify candidate differences. Managers can make their selection decisions with a fuller awareness of the applicants’ strengths and weaknesses (Agunbiade, 2021).

2.5.3 Training and Development

Employees are better equipped with knowledge, skills, talents, and core proficiencies when organisations provide them with chances for professional development and career progression. Because of this, they want better originality. Training and development aims to help workers become more competent while also enhancing their creativity and critical thinking skills so they can make better decisions faster and more effectively (Obisi & Aliyu, 2018). As a result, training is a learning process through which individuals gain the attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed to execute their jobs more effectively to attain organisational goals. It serves as a link between the job criteria and the current employee specifications. This implies that a person will need more knowledge and abilities to do a certain profession. Therefore, learning is necessary to implement a new process, boost employee productivity, teach unskilled people to increase their value to the company, reduce the need for supervision, enhance communication and behaviour, reduce the likelihood of accidents, etc.

Armstrong (2006) argues that development is a process that unfolds over time and allows individuals to go from a current state of understanding and capacity to a future one where higher-level skills, knowledge, and competences are needed. It takes the form of educational exercises that get employees ready to handle new or expanded duties. The term "development"

encompasses activities that enhance job performance and foster personality development, assist people in reaching their full potential, and advance them towards becoming better men and women and good employees. Organisations invest in training and development because they see it as essential strategic instruments for successful human and organisational performance (Obisi & Aliyu, 2018). As a result, they are certain that it will provide them with a competitive edge in the business world. Employee learning and development is a technique used to transfer relevant skills, knowledge, and competence to the employees to support both individual and organisational performance, so it cannot be overemphasised for any organisation to achieve its corporate objectives.

2.5.4 Compensation Management

Designing and executing a system of incentives and bonuses for workers inside a company is known as compensation management. By offering employees fair and competitive pay packages that align with their abilities, experience, and performance, compensation management aims to draw in, keep, and inspire workers (Obisi & Aliyu, 2018). The administration of benefits, job analysis, wage surveys, performance appraisal, and compensation management are some of the primary tasks involved. Job analysis is determining the abilities, competencies, and responsibilities necessary for each position within an organisation. Salary surveys are carried out to ascertain the market rate for each position to ensure that the organisation's pay packages are competitive (Obisi & Aliyu, 2018).

Employee performance is evaluated to determine if they are eligible for pay raises, bonuses, and other awards. Managing employee perks, including health insurance, retirement schemes, and paid time off, is known as benefits administration. Effective pay management depends on achieving organisational objectives, motivating employees, keeping top talent, and increasing productivity. It requires a thorough understanding of the culture, values, and objectives of the organisation as well as the wants and requirements of its staff.

2.5.4 Performance Management

Since many organisations are unsure of performance management, they often encounter confusion and ambiguity. However, Koon (2003) believed that by connecting each employee's and the manager's job to the overarching objectives of their work unit, performance management supported the broader company goals. As a result, employees are essential to the success of their company. According to Isiaka et al. (2016), performance management is a strategy for improving outcomes for an organisation, its teams, and its members by

comprehending and controlling performance within a predetermined framework of goals, objectives, and standards. However, performance management is a collection of interconnected procedures that evaluate a person's capabilities and potential. This allows for establishing work- and development-related goals and collecting and analysing work behaviour and performance data. Additionally, it involves the processes of performance planning (setting goals), performance monitoring, coaching, measuring (evaluating) individual performance about organisational goals, providing feedback, rewarding based on accomplishments against set performance and necessary competences, and developing a development plan (Adeoti, 2005).

Performance management encompasses more than just performance evaluation, according to Taylor (2013). Armstrong (2006) performance management and evaluation have important distinctions. According to Isiaka et al. (2016), performance evaluations are the official evaluations and ratings of employees by their supervisors, often at an annual review meeting. In contrast, Adeoti (2005), performance management is a continuous process of management that is much wider, more thorough, and more natural. It emphasises the support role of managers, who are expected to act as coaches rather than judges, and it is future-oriented. Performance rating has lost credibility because it has been carried out much too often as a top-down, primarily bureaucratic system controlled by the HR department rather than by line managers (Obisi & Aliyu, 2018).

2.5.5 Employee Health and Safety

Employee health and safety means the procedures, rules, and regulations businesses implement to ensure that their workers are safe and protected at work (Obisi & Aliyu, 2018). It entails spotting and reducing dangers, encouraging a secure and healthy workplace, and addressing possible threats to workers' physical and mental well-being (Taylor, 2013). In order to safeguard the physical, mental, and emotional well-being of its workers, an organisation must put in place procedures and policies. It entails detecting and evaluating possible workplace dangers and taking action to remove or reduce them. Providing workers with the tools and training to do their tasks safely and efficiently is another aspect of ensuring their health/safety. This necessitates providing personal protective equipment, holding frequent safety training sessions, and implementing safety guidelines and procedures. Also entails addressing problems, including workplace stress, harassment, and discrimination and offering assistance and support to staff members experiencing mental health problems (Armstrong, 2016).

Employee productivity and well-being are directly impacted by their health and safety, making them essential components of any organisation. Here are some of the idea's essential elements (Armstrong, 2006).

1. **Risk Assessment:** Organisations should undertake thorough risk assessments to identify possible risks and hazards in the workplace. This entails assessing the physical environment, work procedures, tools, and any other elements that can endanger the health or safety of the workforce.
2. **Safety Rules and Procedures:** Establishing simple and clear safety rules and procedures is crucial. This needs to specify the conduct, procedures, and rules workers must adhere to keep the workplace safe. Personal protection equipment (PPE) use, accident reporting, emergency response, and safe work practices are just a few examples of the topics that policies may address.
3. **Education and Training:** Businesses should provide staff with the necessary information and training about workplace safety and health procedures. This includes instructing them on possible risks, proper equipment use, and emergency protocols and encouraging a safety-conscious culture.
4. **Employee Wellness and Health Promotion:** Promoting employee wellness and health is essential to assuring well-being. Workplaces may foster work-life balance, give access to healthcare services, and promote healthy practises among workers.
5. **Safety Inspections and Audits:** Regular inspections and audits will assist you in spotting any safety issues or protocol violations. To ensure that the workplace complies with safety norms and legislation, these assessments might be carried out by internal or external organisations.
6. **Incident Reporting and Investigation:** A system for reporting and investigating incidents or accidents must be established to learn from the past and stop future occurrences. Organisations may utilise this method to pinpoint the underlying reasons, put remedial measures in place, and enhance safety precautions.
7. **Continuous Improvement:** Businesses should regularly examine and enhance their health and safety procedures. This entails monitoring trends, getting input from the workforce, maintaining current legal requirements, using cutting-edge techniques, and proactively fixing any discovered flaws.

2.6. Application of psychological theories and principles for excellent HRM

There are several applications of psychological theories and principles for excellent human resource management, such as behavioural theory, cognitive theory, humanist theory, personality theory, learning theory, and a host of others.

2.6.1 Behavioural Theory

The behavioural theory concerns how observable behaviours are acquired and strengthened due to interactions with the environment. It implies that external forces, as opposed to inner feelings or ideas, determine behaviour. The foremost authority on behavioural theory is American psychologist B.F. Skinner (1963) is most recognised for his work on operant conditioning. According to Skinner, incentives and penalties influence behaviour, and by adjusting these outcomes, one may mould and regulate behaviour.

2.6.2 Cognitive Theory

The importance of mental processes in comprehending behaviour is emphasised by cognitive theory. It implies that ideas, perceptions, and beliefs greatly influence behaviour and how people perceive and react to their surroundings. The Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget, born in 1964 and best known for his research on infant cognitive development, is one of the well-known figures linked with cognitive theory. Piaget suggested that children experience many phases of cognitive development and actively generate knowledge via interactions with their environment.

2.6.3 Humanist Theory

The humanist viewpoint emphasises the worth and potential that each person has. It emphasises personal experiences, irrational judgements, and autonomy. Humanist academics strongly emphasise the value of one's development, self-actualisation, and pursuit of one's special potential. The humanist philosophy is most closely identified with Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. The hierarchy of needs, which Maslow developed, contends that people have several needs (including physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualisation needs) that influence their behaviour (Maslow, 1943). In developing person-centred therapy, Rogers emphasised the value of sincerity, unconditional positive regard, and empathy in promoting human development.

2.6.4 Personality Theory

Understanding and explaining individual variations in behaviour, ideas, and emotions is the goal of personality theory. It includes several methodologies and theories put out by academics on forming personality and character characteristics. Sigmund Freud, an Austrian neurologist and the father of psychoanalysis, is a significant figure in the discipline. According to Freud's theory from 1968, the interaction between the id, ego, and superego, as well as unconscious processes, early childhood events, and personality traits, all have an impact. Carl Jung, who created analytical psychology, and Hans Eysenck, who concentrated on the biological foundation of personality, are two other important personality theorists.

2.6.5 Learning Theory

The study of learning theory focuses on how experiences and interactions with the environment help people learn new behaviours, skills, and information. These include behaviourism, social learning theory, and cognitive learning theory, among other viewpoints. In addition to B.F. Skinner, who was previously discussed in the framework of behavioural theory, and Albert Bandura is a significant figure connected to learning theory. Social learning theory was put out by Bandura in 1977, and it places a strong emphasis on how learning occurs via modelling, imitation, and observation. He proposed that people may pick up behaviours by watching others and the outcomes they encounter. Self-efficacy, which relates to a person's confidence in their capacity to achieve in certain activities or circumstances, was another idea developed by Bandura.

Thus, HRM is essential for every business, as previously discussed. It occasions overseeing employees and ensuring the firm has enough of them with the correct talents to succeed. Using relevant psychological theories and concepts may enhance HRM procedures. Some examples of how psychological theories and concepts may be used in HRM that can provide positive results are as follows:

1. Recruiting and selecting procedures may be improved using psychological theories and concepts. The trait theory of personality, for instance, may be used to pinpoint the characteristics of an applicant that an employer is seeking. The notion of cognitive talents may also be used to design exams that accurately reflect what is required for certain occupations.
2. Training and development programs may be improved by using psychological ideas and theories. Training programs that emphasise observational learning and modelling

are one application of the social learning theory. The notion of cognitive load may also be used in developing instructional materials to reduce the mental strain placed on students.

3. Performance management systems may be created by using psychological theories and concepts. Employees' performance may be improved using the goal-setting theory, for instance. The equity idea may also be used to guarantee impartiality in performance reviews.
4. Motivating workers using psychological ideas and theories is an option. Motivational tactics that emphasise the importance of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are just a few examples of how the self-determination theory might be used. The expectancy theory may also be used to create compensation plans that meet the workforce's needs.
5. Effective leadership practices may be developed by using psychological theories and concepts. For instance, the philosophy of transformational leadership may be used to cultivate leaders capable of invigorating and energising their teams. Similarly, the contingency theory may be utilised to nurture leaders with a flexible approach to management.

2.7. Conclusion

Applying psychological principles to the administration of human resources in modern workplaces is becoming an increasingly vital practice. Human resources specialists can foster a more productive and upbeat workplace atmosphere by developing a grasp of human behaviour, emotions, and motivations. Psychological evaluations, training programs, and employee engagement initiatives may assist businesses in attracting and retaining top personnel, enhancing work satisfaction, and ultimately achieving their corporate objectives. As a result, incorporating psychological principles into HR policies and procedures is critical to success for any firm.

In conclusion, applying psychological theories and principles can help organisations improve their HRM practices and achieve better outcomes. By understanding the psychological factors that influence employee behaviour, organisations can develop HRM practices that are more effective and efficient.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following is NOT beneficial to using psychological principles in human resources management?
a) Improved employee motivation b) Increased employee turnover
c) Better employee selection d) Enhanced employee training
2. Which is an example of a psychological test used in employee selection?
a) IQ test b) Blood test c) Hearing test d) Vision test
3. Which of the following is NOT a factor that influences employee motivation?
a) Job satisfaction b) Pay and benefits c) Work-life balance d) Employee age
4. Which of the following is an example of a psychological intervention used to improve employee well-being?
a) Employee training b) Employee counselling c) Employee discipline
d) Employee termination
5. Which of the following is an example of a psychological theory used to explain employee behaviour?
a) Maslow's hierarchy of needs b) Newton's laws of motion
c) Darwin's theory of evolution d) Einstein's theory of relativity

Illustrative Theory Questions

1. Explain the concept of job satisfaction and its importance in human resources management.
2. Describe the employee selection process and the role of psychological tests in this process.
3. Discuss the factors that influence employee motivation and how they can be addressed by human resources management.
4. Explain the concept of employee well-being and the role of psychological interventions in promoting it.
5. Describe a psychological theory that can be used to explain employee behaviour in the workplace.

Case Study: Balancing Employee Well-being and Performance

Consider yourself as the human resources manager of a technology enterprise of moderate scale, confronted with the predicament of effectively managing the equilibrium between employee welfare and performance. The organization has seen significant growth in recent times, resulting in heightened expectations to adhere to stringent project timelines. Nevertheless, there has been an increase in the levels of stress, burnout, and unhappiness among workers. The objective at hand is to formulate a strategic plan that integrates psychological concepts in order to provide a work environment that is both productive and conducive to the well-being of individuals.

Question:

As the HR manager, how would you apply psychological concepts to address the balance between employee well-being and performance in the company? Provide a comprehensive strategy that encompasses recruitment, training, motivation, and support systems. Back your approach with relevant theories from the field of psychology to justify your decisions.

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CHAPTER THREE

FUNCTIONAL AREAS IN PSYCHOLOGY

3.1. Learning Objectives

Students should be able to: describe the following sub-fields of psychology:

- i. Developmental psychology;
- ii. Clinical psychology;
- iii. Environmental psychology;
- iv. Social psychology;
- v. Industrial/organisational psychology;
- vi. Experimental psychology;
- vii. Forensic psychology;

3.2. Introduction

As was covered in earlier chapters, the scientific discipline of psychology encompasses various subfields subject to investigation and study. It is possible to categorise these zones based on the functions that they perform. The term "functional areas" refers to the numerous subfields of psychological research and application utilised to achieve specific aims within psychology. These subfields are clinical psychology, developmental psychology, social psychology, cognitive psychology, and biological psychology. Another one is cognitive psychology. Even though each of these functional areas has a unique study focus and methodology, they all contribute to our understanding of how people think and act. Knowing the functional areas of psychology is essential for students and professionals in the field because it provides a framework for organising and integrating knowledge and skills across various domains. This is why knowing the functional fields of psychology is so important. In this article, we will investigate the functional zones of psychology and discuss their significance to the field as a whole.

3.2 Functional Areas in Psychology

The several subfields and disciplines of psychology that examine certain aspects of human behaviour, mental processes, and experiences are referred to as "functional areas" in psychology. Cognitive psychology, developmental psychology, social psychology, personality psychology, abnormal psychology, and a great deal of other subfields are included in this

category. Each functional area has its own distinct set of ideas, research methodologies, and practical applications; these aspects contribute to our overall comprehension of the human mind and behaviours.

3.2.1 Developmental Psychology

Developmental psychology, which focuses on the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes from infancy to old age, is the scientific study of how people grow and change throughout their lives (Gleitman et al., 1988). Since they also concentrate on changes in cognitive abilities, moral reasoning, social conduct, and other psychological qualities, developmental psychologists research various subjects, such as language acquisition, moral development, personality development, socialisation, and ageing. Researchers use various study techniques to comprehend how people grow and evolve through time, including longitudinal, cross-sectional, and experimental designs. Developmental psychology's main objective is to increase our knowledge of how people grow and utilise that information to encourage healthy development and well-being across the lifetime. The scientific study of development across the lifetime is known as developmental psychology. Physical maturation processes are of interest to developmental psychologists. However, they don't have a narrow emphasis.

Early developmental psychologists tended to concentrate on changes that persisted into adulthood, giving them a wealth of knowledge about the differences between very young children and adults regarding their physical, cognitive, and social abilities. Jean Piaget's studies, for instance, showed that extremely young toddlers do not exhibit object permanence. The concept of object permanence states that physical objects continue to exist, even if they are concealed from view. Adults are aware of toys even when concealed behind a curtain after being shown to them. Infants still very young, however, behave as though a concealed item has vanished. It's debatable exactly when object permanence is attained (Myers & DeWall, 2018).

3.2.2 Clinical Psychology

In clinical psychology, the main areas of study are the evaluation, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of mental diseases and psychological disorders. Clinical psychology is a highly specialist area that calls for substantial training, education, and licencing in the state where one wishes to practise. Clinical psychologists assist people in overcoming a range of emotional, behavioural, and cognitive issues by working with them individually, in families, and groups

(Myers & DeWall, 2018). They use various therapy strategies and treatments to assist their customers in enhancing their mental health and well-being. Clinical psychologists may find employment in various places, such as clinics, hospitals, private practises, educational institutions, and research facilities. They could specialise in forensic psychology, child and adolescent psychology, neuropsychology, or health psychology.

Clinical, counselling, and community psychologists investigate the root causes of behavioural problems and provide support to assist disturbed individuals in recovering from them (Quinton, 2015). Clinical psychologists typically have PhDs in psychology; most provide counselling services, and many engage in research. A counselling psychologist, for instance, could practise as a mental health counsellor and have a PhD or a master's degree in psychology. Community psychologists provide psychological services to homeless individuals and those who need assistance but do not ask for it. They also aim to stop poverty and other stressful situations that often result in disorder by advocating for educational institutions and other social systems improvements. These psychologists are distinct from psychiatrists, medical professionals focusing on aberrant conduct (psychiatric) (Quinton, 2015).

3.2.4 Counseling Psychology

Similar to Counselling Psychology, which focuses on the emotional, social, occupational, and health-related outcomes in people who are generally thought to be psychologically well, Health Psychology examines people who are not mentally ill. Wong and Thirumorthy (2015) presented viewpoints that have had an impact on how clinicians engage with individuals who are seeking psychotherapy. Roger's views regarding client-centered therapy have been particularly effective in reshaping how many clinicians practise medicine. This is although some contemporary therapists who are educated from a psychodynamic point of view still use components of the psychoanalytic theory in their practice. In addition, therapeutic practice in behavioural therapy, cognitive therapy, and cognitive-behavioural therapy has been affected by both behaviourism and the cognitive revolution.

3.2.4 Environmental Psychology

Environmental psychology is a subfield of psychology that investigates the connections that may be made between people and the surroundings in which they live. It focuses on how individuals interact with their surroundings, how they perceive and react to environmental stimuli, and how the environment impacts people's behaviour, emotions, and overall well-being

(Gleitman et al. 1988). Environmental psychologists investigate various surroundings, including natural settings like parks and forests, constructed environments like homes and workplaces, and social contexts like schools and communities. Natural settings like parks and forests are among the most common locations that environmental psychologists research. In addition, they investigate the influence that aspects of the surrounding environment, such as noise, lighting, and air quality, have on human behaviour and health.

The study of environmental psychology seeks an understanding of how individuals may design and maintain surroundings that benefit their health and improve their overall quality of their lives. Environmental psychologists investigate how people's interactions with their surroundings influence their behaviours and thought processes. In order to make residence halls, shopping malls, auditoriums, hospitals, jails, and workplaces, as well as other types of spaces, more pleasant and useful for the people who will be using them, architects and interior designers put the findings of their study to use while planning or remodelling these types of spaces.

3.2.5 Social Psychology

The scientific study of how individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are influenced by their interactions with others is known as social psychology. It focuses on understanding how others influence people, how individuals take in and make sense of social information, and how individuals build and sustain connections. Social psychologists investigate a wide range of themes, including social identities, attitudes, social cognition, social influence, group dynamics, and intergroup connections. They use various research approaches, including experiments, surveys, and observational studies, to gain a deeper comprehension of human conduct in varied social settings.

Applying this information to improving people's lives and advancing societal change is the ultimate objective of social psychology. Social psychologists investigate the many ways in which individuals have an effect on one another via their research. For instance, they research social-influence methods, such as the efficacy of advertising campaigns to prevent the spread of the AIDS virus via unsafe sexual practises. They also investigate the effects of peer pressure, the factors that influence who we like (or even love), and the reasons behind and mechanisms behind bias formation. According to what Akinwale and Aliyu (2019) have discovered, for instance, even if we may take great satisfaction in the fact that we are not prejudiced, we may nonetheless have unconscious views about certain racial or ethnic groups that adversely impact how we interact with members of such groups.

3.2.6 Industrial/Organisational Psychology

The industrial-organisational (I/O) psychology branch (I-O psychology) utilises psychological theories, precepts, and research results in industrial and organisational contexts. I-O psychology includes scientific study of behaviour in I-O contexts and its applied character (Riggio, 2013). I/O psychology is the scientific study of how individuals behave at work. The right candidate for a job must be hired, candidates must be trained for the position, teams must be developed, salaries and bonuses must be decided, workers must be given performance feedback, an organisational structure must be planned, and the workplace must be set up so that employees are happy and productive (Riggio, 2013).

I-O psychologists often deal with problems including human resource management, organisational structure, and working conditions. Businesses often consult I-O psychologists to help them make the best recruiting choices and provide work environments that foster high levels of worker productivity and efficiency. I/O psychologists care for the individual employees and the company, including the economy's effects and governmental rules. This scenario should worry organizational/industrial psychologists (Akinwale & Aliyu, 2019). A manufacturer of sophisticated electronic equipment was required to provide reference and maintenance guides for its goods. None of the device's engineers was proficient writers and did not want to spend time creating the instructions. In order to create the guides, the business employed a technical writer. After a year, she was given an unsatisfactory performance grade because the guides she created had too many technical inaccuracies. She said that they were always too busy when she approached an engineer at the firm to review one of her manuals or walk her through a technical concept. She found her work to be challenging and annoying. Her workplace had poor lighting, was loud, was warm, and her chair was unpleasant. Every time she brought up these issues, she was informed she "complained too much." An industrial/organizational psychologist assists the business in assessing its choices in such a circumstance. She may be fired and replaced with an electrical engineering specialist as a potential solution.

3.2.7 Experimental/Cognitive Psychology

The field of psychology known as experimental psychology focuses on applying scientific research methods to the study of human behaviour and the mental processes that underlie it. It comprises developing and carrying out experiments to test hypotheses and theories on many human behaviour elements, including perception, memory, learning, motivation, emotion, and social interaction (Quinton, 2015). These aspects of human behaviour include learning and

social interaction. Experimental psychologists gather data using a variety of research approaches, such as laboratory experiments, field experiments, surveys, and observational studies and then evaluate the results statistically. Experimental psychology aims to acquire a more in-depth understanding of how people think, feel, and act to better people's lives and put this learning to use.

3.2.8 Forensic Psychology

A subfield of psychology known as forensic psychology examines psychological issues that crop up in the legal system. Forensic psychologists try to determine what led to the behaviour in question. Forensic psychologists and psychiatrists, for instance, will determine whether or not a person is competent to stand trial, will determine the mental state of a defendant, will act as consultants in child custody cases, will consult on sentencing and treatment recommendations, and will offer advice on issues such as eyewitness testimony and children's testimony. In these positions, they would generally testify in court as expert witnesses, being called upon by either party in a legal dispute to express their conclusions based on their study or experience. In order to function effectively as expert witnesses, forensic psychologists need to have a solid grasp of the law and present their findings within the framework of the legal system rather than focusing only on psychological issues. In addition, forensic psychologists are used in the process of selecting juries as well as preparing witnesses. Within the framework of the legal system, they could also be responsible for providing psychiatric therapy. A very limited number of psychologists work as consultants for law enforcement agencies, and one of their responsibilities is to develop criminal profiles.

3.2.9 Gestalt Psychology

Gestalt psychology, which originated in Germany during the early 20th century, is a psychological framework that places significant emphasis on the comprehensive examination of the mind and behavior, as opposed to their fragmented analysis into discrete elements. The name "Gestalt" originates from the German language, specifically denoting "form" or "pattern." This theoretical framework aims to comprehend the manner in which humans see and encounter the environment by means of meaningful and structured patterns.

3.2.10 Psychodynamic Psychology

Psychodynamic psychology is an established psychological framework that centers its attention on comprehending the impact of unconscious processes and internal conflicts on human behavior, cognition, and affect. The concept under consideration has its roots in the

contributions of Sigmund Freud and has since undergone a process of development to embrace a diverse range of ideas and methodologies that investigate the intricate dynamics between conscious and unconscious elements of the human psyche.

3.2.11 Engineering Psychology (Ergonomics)

Engineering psychology, commonly referred to as ergonomics, is an academic field that is dedicated to the scientific study of creating and organizing various goods, systems, and settings with the primary objective of maximizing human well-being, comfort, safety, and performance. The discipline encompasses the integration of psychological, engineering, physiological, and other interdisciplinary concepts to enhance the interaction between individuals and their respective work environments, tools, and technology. The primary objective of engineering psychology is to optimize effectiveness, security, and user contentment.

3.2.12 Educational Psychology

Educational psychology is a specialised branch of psychology that centres its inquiry on the examination of the processes by which people acquire knowledge and progress in their intellectual and socio-emotional development within the context of educational environments. The objective of this study is to gain insight into the cognitive and emotional mechanisms that are at play inside students, instructors, and other individuals involved in the educational framework. Educational psychologists use their expertise to enhance pedagogical approaches, facilitate curriculum design, and optimise the holistic educational milieu. Educational psychologists investigate the developmental trajectory of cognitive functions, including memory, attention, problem-solving, and language acquisition, across an individual's lifetime, and examine their influence on the learning process. The field of educational psychology investigates many theoretical frameworks pertaining to the process of learning, including behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Its primary objective is to gain insights into the mechanisms through which individuals get information and develop abilities.

3.2.13 Consumer Psychology

Consumer psychology plays a pivotal role in the formulation and implementation of sales and marketing strategies. This entails comprehending the cognitive processes through which humans engage in decision-making, construct perceptions, and respond to diverse marketing stimuli. By using knowledge derived from consumer psychology, companies have the ability to develop marketing strategies that are more impactful, increase the quality of their goods, and elevate the entire customer experience. The perception and interpretation of marketing messages by consumers exhibit variations. It is essential for marketers to possess a

comprehensive understanding of the manner in which customers perceive their brand, goods, and commercials. This information may be used to create messages and designs that are in accordance with the perceptions and preferences of customers. The ability to attract and engage customers is of utmost importance in a highly competitive market environment. Notions such as the “attention economy” underscore the significance of generating captivating and attention-capturing information. Marketers use several strategies, including the utilisation of visual signals, narrative, and innovation, in order to capture the attention of customers towards their respective goods or services. Individuals are often susceptible to the impact of others' viewpoints and actions. The use of social proof and influencer marketing is predicated on the notion that customers are inclined to place more faith in and embrace items or services that get endorsements from individuals they like or view as possessing credibility.

3.2.13 Exercise/Sports Psychology

Exercise and sports psychology is a specialised branch of psychology that focuses on the psychological elements that impact an individual's performance, engagement, and holistic welfare in the context of physical activity, sports, and exercise. This study investigates the cognitive processes, behavioural patterns, and emotional factors that influence both athletic performance and adherence to training routines. Sports psychologists collaborate with players to enhance their performance by addressing several factors like motivation, goal establishment, focus, and self-assurance. Various strategies, including as visualisation, mental rehearsal, and self-talk, are used to optimise performance. The establishment of explicit and attainable objectives has paramount importance for athletes and those engaged in physical training. Sports psychologists play a crucial role in helping people set both short-term and long-term objectives to increase their motivation and effectively monitor their development. In the context of team sports, it is necessary to possess a comprehensive comprehension of team dynamics, communication, and cohesiveness, as well as the ability to enhance these aspects. Sports psychologists are often engaged in the facilitation of improved cooperation and teamwork within teams. The significance of ethical concerns in the field of sports psychology is especially notable in relation to matters such as the use of performance-enhancing substances, the promotion of fair play, and the safeguarding of players' well-being.

4. Conclusion

grasp the intricacies of human behaviour and mental processes requires a grasp of the functional domains in psychology. When researching and solving psychological problems, each field brings a fresh viewpoint and method. The biological, cognitive, developmental, social, and

therapeutic fields are all very important contributors when it comes to furthering our knowledge of the human mind and conduct. Psychologists can design effective interventions and therapies for a wide range of psychological problems and enhance the general well-being of people and society by combining the information they have gained from the fields above.

Illustrative MCQ Questions

1. Which functional area of psychology studies how people learn and remember information?

- a) Developmental psychology
- b) Cognitive psychology
- c) Social psychology
- d) Personality psychology

2. Which functional area of psychology studies mental disorders and their treatment?

- a) Clinical psychology
- b) Counseling psychology
- c) Educational psychology
- d) Industrial-organisational psychology

3. Which functional area of psychology studies how people interact with each other and with groups?

- a) Social psychology
- b) Personality psychology
- c) Cognitive psychology
- d) Developmental psychology

4. Which functional area of psychology studies how people make decisions and solve problems?

- a) Cognitive psychology
- b) Developmental psychology
- c) Social psychology
- d) Personality psychology

5. Which functional area of psychology studies how people develop and change throughout their lives?

- a) Developmental psychology
- b) Cognitive psychology
- c) Social psychology
- d) Personality psychology

Illustrative Theory Questions

1. Explain the main focus of cognitive psychology as a functional area of psychology.
2. Discuss the role of social psychology in understanding group dynamics and social influence.
3. Describe the key principles of developmental psychology and how they relate to human growth and development.
4. Explain the difference between clinical psychology and counselling psychology as functional areas of psychology.
5. Discuss the importance of industrial-organisational psychology in the workplace and how it can improve employee productivity and satisfaction.

Case Study (as applicable)

Mr. CIPM, who is 40 years old, has been showing signs of anxiety and sadness for the last several months. These symptoms have persisted for some time. He has difficulties sleeping, has persistent worry, and has lost interest in things he used to like doing. He decides to look for assistance from a psychologist.

- i. Which functional area of psychology would be most relevant in helping Mr. CIPM with his anxiety and depression symptoms?
- ii. What techniques or approaches might be used within this functional area to help Mr. CIPM?

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CHAPTER FOUR

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

4.1. Learning Objectives

Students should be able to:

- i. explain developmental stages from birth to death;
- ii. describe theoretical perspectives on developmental psychology (cognitive development, moral development, social development).

4.2 Introduction

There are several periods of growth and development individual experience from birth to death; this is called developmental stages. Specifically, these phases define the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social development that occur as individuals go through life. The study of developmental phases is crucial because it enables us to understand better how individuals grow and develop through time and how these changes affect their behaviour, interpersonal relationship, and general well-being. By knowing the various developmental stages, we can better assist people in their growth and development and in navigating the difficulties and opportunities at various life phases. The different theories and frameworks describing how individuals grow and develop through time are called theoretical views on developmental psychology. These viewpoints give psychologists a prism to comprehend and research human development from birth to old age. The main theoretical stances include cognitive, behavioural, psychodynamic, and socio-cultural theories, each offering distinct insights into human development's intricate processes.

4.3 Developmental Stages from Birth to Death

In psychology, development means how a person's physical, psychological, and cognitive makeup evolves throughout a lifetime (Aliyu, 2022). We are changing from who we were to something else as long as we are alive. We evolve, alter, grow, learn, and acquire certain behavioural patterns and talents during every instant of our existence. A person develops from conception through early childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age. Life is a stage on which we perform our roles; the stage is divided into phases, each of which is impacted by different elements that contribute to the complete accomplishment and growth of that phase. Our experiences as adults, as well as our personalities and behaviours, are moulded from birth.

4.2.1: Conception and Prenatal Stage

The instant a male and female organism engage in sexual intercourse, a person begins to develop. The development stage is initiated when the male sperm cell fertilises the female egg. The germinal stage of development is the first two weeks after fertilisation. By this stage, an embryo has been created from the dividing zygote's cells. The embryo then enters the embryonic stage, swiftly developing a heart, nervous system, stomach, oesophagus, and ovaries or testicles. When the embryonic stage concludes two months after conception, the embryo has eyes, ears, a nose, a jaw, a mouth, and lips, giving it a distinctly human appearance (Smith Johnson & Williams, 2022). The legs feature knees, ankles, and toes, while the little arms have elbows, palms, and stubby fingers. The foetal stage of prenatal development is the last seven months before delivery.

The numerous organs develop and begin to work at this time. The foetus can kick, create a fist, swivel its head, open its mouth, swallow, and frown before the end of the third month. The eyelids, which had been sealed, begin to open in the sixth month. The foetus has a well-developed grip, taste buds, brows, and eyelashes and can now perform sucking motions. The organ systems are all functioning by the end of the seventh month, although still underdeveloped. The foetus may react to light, touch, and external sounds in the eighth and ninth months of pregnancy. Additionally, it can learn. Its heart beats quicker when it recognises its mother's voice but slows down when it hears a stranger (Smith et al. 2022).

4.2.2 Birth

Between the ages of 0 and 2 years, this is the early childhood stage. Jean Piaget referred to this period as the sensorimotor phase, and the Oral stage by Sigmund Freud. Numerous well-developed systems begin operating in the newborn child upon birth. Although they exist at birth, other systems will take considerably longer to mature. The maturation process, an inherently structured sequence of physical change independent of specific environmental occurrences, governs this development.

4.2.2.1 Motor Development in Infancy

Infant motor responses are a crucial area of development (Johnson, 2022). The head, fingers, toes, hands, legs, tongue, and other exterior bodily components move and coordinate properly in this manner. Numerous reflexes, or involuntary movements triggered by stimuli, are present in newborns at birth. Some common reflexes seen in infancy are the ones listed below:

- a) **The rooting reflex:** This response develops when a baby's mouth corner is caressed or stroked. The newborn moves their head towards anything caressing their cheeks, opening their lips to follow the root. This aids the newborn in finding the breast or bottle to be sucked on. Infant death might occur if this reaction isn't present.
- b) **The sucking reflex** assists the newborn in sucking breast milk by working with the rooting. The infant will start to cry when the roof of the mouth is touched. Beginning at the 32nd week of pregnancy, this response takes around 36 weeks to completely develop.
- c) **The Grasp Reflex:** The baby closes his fingers firmly around everything that touches his palm's inside. Surprisingly, the toddler's clutch is strong enough to pull the youngster off the ground.
- d) **The Dancing reflex:** When the child is held upright, the infant can prance with his legs in a way that resembles tiptoe walking.
- e) **The tonic neck reflex:** When the baby is lying on his back, this leads him to move his arms and legs in the posture of a fencer. A baby's arm spreads out as its head is tilted to one side while the arm on the other bends up at the elbow.
- f) **The startle reflex:** The baby reacts sharply to abrupt loud noises. The infant reclines their head, stretches their arms and legs, screams, and then draws them back in reaction to the sound.

4.2.3 Childhood

The stage of childhood spreads through 3 phases; babyhood, early childhood and late childhood.

- a) **Babyhood:** Through symbols, intellect is shown, language use develops, and memory and creativity grow. The process of thinking is irrational and irrevocable. They go to the restroom, speak, walk, and acquire food independently.
- b) **Early childhood:** Preschool, exploratory, and toy age are other names for this stage. Children that attend preschool expand their social horizons and become more socially active. Children may feel guilty if they aren't given the freedom to choose which activities to engage in.
- c) **Late Childhood:** Actions are reversible as operational thinking grows and egocentric thought declines. Children go from their home environment to their school and peer environments.

4.2.4: Adolescence

This period bridges the gap between childhood and adulthood. It encompasses the years ranging from 13 to 19 years of age. A lot of rapid bodily and psychological changes, a lot of competing motivations, and a lot of confusing societal expectations characterised the time. This time of life is also characterised by fast growth in the reproductive activities and maturity of the sex organs, the development of the breast and the buttocks, increased breadth and armpit size, and other physical changes.

4.2.5: Adulthood

Early, middle, and late adulthood are the three distinct stages of adulthood.

- a) **Early adulthood:** The individual must learn how to establish close friendships and romantic connections. The completion of the preceding levels is necessary for the development of this talent. It could be difficult to create closeness if one has not yet built trust or a sense of identity. The inability to rely on people, alienation, solitude, and a fear of commitment are the alternatives if this skill is not developed.
- b) **Middle adulthood:** is often defined as the years between 40 and 60. The middle-aged suffer a battle between generativity and stagnation throughout this time. They could have a purpose or a desire to help the younger generation and their community.
- c) **Late Adulthood:** Physically, middle-aged people undergo a reduction in their cardiac output, response speed, muscular strength, and sensory acuity.

4.2.6: Old age

The last stage of human development is old age, marked by physical, psychological, and social changes. As the body and mind progressively lose function, it is normal. Although each person's experience with old age is unique, it is widely accepted that it starts at 65. Age-related physical changes include a decline in bone density, a loss of bone mass, and a loss of sensory capacities, including eyesight and hearing. Falls, fractures, and other health issues are at an increased risk because of these alterations. Old age may be a psychological period of contemplation and introspection. Many suffer as they reflect on their lives and the people they have lost. However, as individuals explore new interests and pastimes, old age may also be a period of development and satisfaction. Socially, old age may be a lonely and isolated period. Many older adults lack access to social contact because they live alone or in nursing facilities. However, social support from friends and family helps lessen these feelings of loneliness.

4.2.7: Death

Death is the last step of human growth and a necessary life cycle component. The end of all biological processes that support life. Although the precise cause of death might vary, sickness, injury, or organ failure are often to blame. Both the dying individual and their loved ones may find death to be a challenging and unpleasant event. Many individuals worry and dread dying; others may struggle to accept their mortality. However, as individuals reflect on their life and prepare for the next phase of existence, dying may be a moment of acceptance and calm. Death is not seen as an end but rather as a transition in many cultures. Although there is a vast range of afterlife beliefs, many individuals take solace in the notion that life begins again after death.

4.3 Theoretical Perspectives on Developmental Psychology

The many theoretical frameworks used to comprehend the processes of human development over the lifetime are referred to as theoretical views on developmental psychology. These viewpoints provide several filters through which academics and professionals may observe and analyse the intricate phenomenon of human development and change. Jean Piaget's 1954 book *Cognitive Development*, Sigmund Freud's 1905 book *Personality Development*, and Erikson's 1950 book *Social Development* are a few of the essential theoretical viewpoints in developmental psychology.

4.3.1: Cognitive Development

The theory of cognitive development by Jean Piaget provides a thorough explanation of how children's cognitive development occurs from infancy through puberty. According to Piaget, children go through four stages of cognitive development, each distinguished by a unique method of thinking and perceiving the world around them. The following are the four phases of cognitive development:

Periods	Activities and Achievements
Sensorimotor Stage (Birth to 2 years)	Infants learn about the world during this period using their senses and motor skills. They learn object permanence or the knowledge that things exist even while they're hidden from view.
Preoperational Stage (2 to 7 years)	Children at this age can represent things and concepts using symbols. They play pretend and think egocentrically, which makes it difficult for them to grasp other people's viewpoints.

Concrete Operational Stage (7 to 11 years)	Children may reason about tangible things and experiences at this age. They are aware of conservation, which holds that a substance's quantity does not change despite changes in its appearance.
Formal Operational Stage (11 years and up)	Adolescents can reason rationally and abstractly about possible scenarios at this point. They can reason about difficult issues and consider many options.

Piaget's theory has impacted the field of developmental psychology and has assisted scholars in better comprehending how children grow in their intellectual capacities. On the other hand, many say that the theory does not consider variances in cognitive development that might occur across individuals and may not apply to all cultures.

4.3.2: Social Development

A separate psychological problem creates a fresh crisis for the individual to overcome in each of Erikson's stages of development. By the conclusion of the time frame, the individual has concentrated on that problem, worked through the crisis, and either resolved it badly, impeding future psychological growth, or favourably, promoting healthy development.

Age	Central psychological issue or crisis
First year	Trust Versus Mistrust infants learn to trust that their needs will be met by the world especially by the mother or they learn to mistrust the world
second year	Autonomy Versus Shame And Doubt Children learn to exercise will to make choices and to control themselves or they become uncertain and doubt that they can do things by themselves
Third to fifth year	Initiative versus guilt children learn to initiate activities and enjoy their accomplishments, acquiring direction and purpose or if they are not allowed initiative, they feel guilty for their attempts at independence
Sixth year through puberty	Industry versus Inferiority

	Children develop a sense of industry and curiosity and are eager to learn or they feel inferior and lose interest in the tasks before them.
Adolescence	Identity versus role confusion adolescents come to see themselves as unique and integrated persons with an ideology or they become confused about what they want out of life.
Early adulthood	Intimacy versus isolation Young people become able to commit themselves to another person, or they develop a sense of isolation and feel they have no one in the world but themselves.
Middle age	Generativity versus stagnation Adults are willing to have and care for children and to devote themselves to their work and the common good or they become self-centred and inactive
Old age	Integrity versus despair Older people enter a period of reflection, becoming assured that their lives have been meaningful and becoming ready to face death with acceptance and dignity or they are in despair for their unaccomplished goals, failures and ill-spent lives.

4.3.3: Personality Development

Sigmund Freud created the psychoanalytic theory, which emphasised the significance of early events and unconscious motivations in shaping a person's personality. As a kid grows, tensions brought on by unfulfilled innate desires and unpleasant experiences are suppressed into the unconscious, where they seek sublimated expression and affect conduct.

Periods	Activities and Achievements
The Oral stage 0-18 months	The youngster gets erogenous pleasure in the mouth area, the main erogenous zone. The kid receives essential satisfaction at this time by stimulating the mouth area through feeding, sucking, biting, and chewing when the teeth emerge and swallowing or spitting out the food if it is

	<p>unpleasant. A breastfed kid receives nutrition and physical touch from her mother, which helps the infant feel secure and confident. When a youngster is frustrated in the oral period, they are more likely to exhibit behavioural issues such as excessive finger sucking, smoking, chewing gum, and biting. Later-developed behavioural tendencies include being gullible, talking too much, greedy, and dependent.</p>
<p>The Anal Stage 18 months – 3 years</p>	<p>The anal area becomes the new satisfaction location throughout the second year of life. The act of expulsion, excrement, or withholding the deed pleasures the infant. The youngster is now dealing with discipline related to potty training for the first time. At this period, toilet training is vital. When disciplined excessively tightly, a youngster may develop compulsive neatness, cruelty, destructive tendencies, or become stubborn and frugal. Some kids try to fight back by holding in their poop and passing it at the worst possible moment, ruining things like pillows, bedsheets, clothes, etc. They could also become erratic, obstinate, and inflexible personalities. They often defy authority and are easily enraged.</p>
<p>The Phallic Stage 3 to 6 years</p>	<p>The phallus, a word for the penis, is whence this stage gets its name. A kid finds genital stimulation to be pleasurable. At this point, the youngster starts to masturbate. Masturbation-related fantasies create the conditions for a catastrophe. The youngster starts to experience fierce competitiveness for the parent of the same gender and develops a strong interest in the parent of the opposing sex. In the latter stages of personality development, this period is crucial. Freud referred to this response as being caused by the Electra complex in females and the Oedipal complex in boys. The daughter wants to possess her father and unseat her mother, while the boy wants to take possession of both his mother and father. The youngster is now nursing a little pride due to his penis, which is the root of his worry. The kid starts to identify with his father and represses his affection for his mother out of fear. The youngster is also terrified of her mother, whom she believes removed her former genitalia. The girl starts to identify with her mother and represses her affection for her father out of fear.</p>

<p>Latency Stage</p> <p>6 years to puberty (adolescence)</p>	<p>this time of relative tranquilly. In other words, there is lessened sexual interest. It's not that sexual desire has vanished; rather, it has been suppressed, and the child's social and physical surroundings, where peers and friends are more interested, is now where sexual urges are satisfied. Through these activities, the kid satisfies their desire for social interaction and develops social skills—the ability to relate to people and build positive personal and professional connections—which are crucial for moving on to later stages. This period corresponds to the elementary school years.</p>
<p>Genital stage</p> <p>From puberty on</p>	<p>Adolescence ends at this point when a person has fully developed sexual and reproductive organs and enters adulthood. At this point, the focus has switched to other people and developing a fulfilling sexual connection with the other sex, which is anticipated to lead to marriage. Therefore, according to Freud, a person's personality throughout life is determined by how well they resolve and move through various phases of development. According to Freud, the basis of later personality is already established by age 5, and subsequent phases build upon it.</p>

4.4. Conclusion

Knowing the many developmental phases from birth to death is essential to fully appreciate the changes in a person's physical, cognitive, and socioemotional development. Acknowledging these phases and encouraging people as they go through them is crucial since each stage offers different chances for growth and development. By comprehending the phases of development, we may more fully realise the complexity of human growth and provide the right treatments and support to foster healthy development across the lifetime. Finally, theoretical approaches to developmental psychology provide a framework for comprehending how people evolve and develop throughout their lifetimes. Each viewpoint provides distinctive insights into the biological, cognitive, social, and cultural aspects that affect development. By looking at various viewpoints, academics and practitioners may better understand the intricate processes that influence human development and use this understanding to encourage favourable outcomes for people at all stages of life.

Case Study Question

Utilising oneself as a case study, this analysis aims to elucidate the structure and progression of one's personality, beginning from the formative stages of early life. This essay underscores the significance of early childhood events and unconscious impulses in shaping an individual's current personality. Does it align with Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality Development?

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following is not a stage of development according to Erik Erikson's theory?
 - a) Trust vs. Mistrust
 - b) Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt
 - c) Industry vs. Inferiority
 - d) Perfection vs. Stagnation

2. According to Jean Piaget's theory, which stage of cognitive development occurs during infancy?
 - a) Sensorimotor
 - b) Preoperational
 - c) Concrete operational
 - d) Formal operational

3. Which of the following is not a physical change that occurs during adolescence?
 - a) Growth spurt
 - b) Development of secondary sex characteristics
 - c) Decrease in muscle mass
 - d) Increase in bone density

4. According to Erik Erikson's theory, which stage of development occurs during young adulthood?
 - a) Intimacy vs. Isolation
 - b) Generativity vs. Stagnation
 - c) Ego integrity vs. Despair
 - d) Identity vs. Role confusion

5. Which of the following is not a stage of moral development according to Lawrence Kohlberg's theory?
 - a) Preconventional
 - b) Conventional
 - c) Postconventional
 - d) Transconventional

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CHAPTER FIVE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY

5.1 Learning Objectives

Students should be able to:

- i. define the discipline of sociology;
- ii. explain different schools of thought in sociology; and
- iii. describe general concepts in sociology.

5.2 Introduction

Sociology is a social science that examines social structures, relationships between individuals, and human conduct. It is concerned with comprehending how people interact with one another and with how society is set up. However, sociology is a course that introduces students to the main ideas, theories, and techniques utilised in sociological research. The first systematic studies of the social world were conducted in the 19th century by social theorists, including Auguste Comte, Karl Marx, and Emile Durkheim. They aimed to comprehend the societal changes caused by urbanisation, industrialisation, and other social and economic upheavals.

With several theoretical vantage points and research methodologies, sociology has become a varied and complicated science. While some sociologists focus on social inequalities, others are curious about how culture and identity influence interpersonal interactions. Others concentrate on operating social structures, including the family, education, and religion. Socialisation, culture, social stratification, race and ethnicity, gender, and social institutions are concepts commonly covered in sociology courses. Key sociological ideas, including social roles, social norms, socialisation, and social structure, are presented to the students. Additionally, they study other theoretical stances, including functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interactionism.

The course will give students a general grasp of sociology and prepare them for future research in the field, aiding them in developing critical thinking abilities and a deeper understanding of the social environment in which they live.

5.3 Definition of Sociology

The word "sociology" was originally used by a social scientist, a Frenchman named Auguste Comte, who lived from 1798 to 1857. The word's initial component, socius, is of Latin origin

and means "society," "association," "togetherness," or "companionship." The root of the other term, logos, is Greek. It means to discuss or use a term. As a result, the etymological meaning of sociology is the study of society. It is just the study of society and culture, to put it simply (Doda, 2005).

Although the French social scientist August Comte coined "sociology," Emile Durkheim, Karl Marx, and Max Weber were more responsible for permanently establishing the field (Griffiths, 2015). Before moving on, let's notice that the terms "of society" and "culture" are fundamental to sociology. While each notion will be covered in more depth later, it seems appropriate to assist students in distinguishing between these two crucial concepts. The term "society" refers to the social environment around us, including all its structures, organisations, etc., and more particularly, to a collection of people living within a defined geographic area and sharing a shared way of life. Culture refers to a community's shared way of life (Doda, 2005).

Sociology examines social structures, including small and large groups, societies, and interpersonal relationships. Sociologists describe a society as a collection of people interacting with one another, residing in a certain geographical region, and having a similar culture. Sociologists study all facets and levels of society. While sociologists utilising macro-level analysis examine patterns within and between big groups and societies, sociologists working at the micro-level focus on tiny groups and individual interactions. Micro-level research, for instance, may examine communication customs in diverse groups, such as teens or businesspeople. A macro-level examination, on the other hand, may look into how language usage has altered over time or in social media platforms.

Furthermore, the scientific study of social conduct and human groupings is known as sociology. It mainly focuses on how social interactions affect people's attitudes and behaviours and how societies are created and altered. Sociology is a subject with a wide range of study; families, groups, businesses, computer networks, political parties, educational institutions, places of worship, and labour unions are all addressed. It addresses community, love, poverty, conformity, technology, prejudice, disease, and alienation. These definitions make it obvious that sociology concerns social connections and studies inter-personal and intra-personal relationships, society, and human interactions. It tries to understand social institutions, groups, and systems scientifically. These definitions also make it abundantly evident that there are several perspectives on sociology and that there is no consensus in this area.

5.3.1: Historical Background

The Industrial Revolution of the early 19th century was the major catalyst for the development of sociology. Although sociology originates in the writings of thinkers such as Ibn Khaldun, John Locke, Immanuel Kant, Thomas Hobbes, Plato, Aristotle, etc. Eventually, social theorists like August Comte, Karl Marx, Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, and Max Weber attempted to understand what keeps social groupings together and considered potential remedies to the erosion of social solidarity in response to changes in Industrial Revolution. In order to provide basic principles that might be utilised to describe the social world, they thus endeavoured to offer broad explanations of the social world. These people are recognised to be the fathers of sociology today.

5.3.2 Comte, Auguste (1798–1857)

The French author Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès (1748-1836) first used the word "sociology" in a work published in 1780. Auguste Comte (1798–1857) developed the phrase in 1838. Claude Henri de Rouvroy Comte de Saint-Simon (1760–1825), a social philosopher, was Comte's teacher after he abandoned his engineering studies. Both believed social scientists could investigate society using the same scientific techniques as natural scientists. Comte also thought that social scientists could contribute to society's advancement. He believed that sociologists could solve issues like inadequate education and poverty after researchers had found the rules of society (Pearce, 2020). Comte gave positivism as the term of the field of research for social patterns. He outlined his philosophical stance in his writings *The Course in Positive Philosophy* (1830–1842) and *A General View of Positivism* (1848). He felt that a new "positivist" period of history would begin due to employing scientific techniques to uncover the principles governing how society and people interact. Even though the discipline and its vocabulary have expanded, sociologists continue to feel that their work has a beneficial influence.

5.3.3 Harriet Martineau (1802–1876). The First Woman Sociologist

An author who wrote on different social science topics was Harriet Martineau. She was a pioneering observer of societal norms, especially those relating to women's rights, governance, religion, economy, and social class. In 1831, she started her literary career with a collection of short tales titled *Illustrations of Political Economy*, in which she attempted to educate common people about economic theory (Atere & Akinwale, 2006). In order to introduce sociology to English-speaking academics, Martineau was the first to translate Comte's work from French to

English (Gottfried, 2019). In two of her most well-known sociological books, *Society in America* (1837) and *Retrospect of Western Travel* (1838), she is also regarded for pioneering the first comprehensive, methodical, and comparative studies of social structures across international borders. Martineau said the free market system's flaws include how employees were mistreated and left in poverty. At the same time, corporate owners who grew wealthy were at odds with the people's proclaimed moral beliefs in the United States. She said the shortage of women's rights was incompatible with the notion that everyone was born equal. Martineau, like Mary Wollstonecraft, was often disregarded by the male-dominated academic sociology of her day.

5.3.4 Marx, Karl (1818–1883)

Karl Marx, a German philosopher and economist, lived from 1818 to 1883. He and Friedrich Engels (1820–1895) wrote the *Communist Manifesto* together in 1848. One of the most important political books in history is this one. Additionally, it gives Marx's alternative to Comte's suggested theory of society. Marx rejected Comte's positivism. He thought that conflicts between social classes over the means of production were the cause of how civilisations developed and changed (Gottfried, 2019). When he formulated his views, the Industrial Revolution and the emergence of capitalism resulted in significant economic gaps between factory owners and employees. Many countries saw the growth of capitalism, an economic system typified by private or corporate ownership of products and the means of production. Marx anticipated that the severe disparities of capitalism would ultimately lead to a workers' uprising. As a result, capitalism would disintegrate and be replaced by communism. Communism is an economic system in which nothing is privately or corporately held; instead, everything is collectively owned and divided. Marx thought that compared to capitalism, communism was a more just society.

5.3.5 Durkheim, Émile (1858–1917)

Emile Durkheim founded the first sociology Department in Europe at the University of Bordeaux in 1895 and published his *Rules of the Sociological Method* in the same year; Durkheim contributed to the development of sociology as a recognised academic field. Durkheim developed his thesis on how societies evolved from prehistoric states into capitalist, industrial societies in another significant book, *The Division of Labour in Society* (1893). According to Durkheim, people advance to their appropriate organisational levels based on merit. According to Durkheim, sociologists might examine impersonal "social facts" (Pearce,

2020). He also thought that by doing such research, it would be able to tell whether culture was "healthy" or "pathological." In contrast to pathological societies, which saw a breakdown in social standards between individuals and society, he considered healthy societies as stable.

5.3.6 Weber, Max (1864–1920)

In Germany, renowned sociologist Max Weber founded the Ludwig Maximilians University of Munich's Sociology Department in 1919. Weber published on various sociology-related subjects, including social influences affecting industrial employees and political transformation in Russia. His 1904 work, *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* is the one for which he is most remembered. The notion Weber presents in this book is still debatable. Some people think Weber stated that many Protestants' beliefs, particularly those of Calvinists—led to the development of capitalism. Others see it as asserting that capitalism and Protestantism have complementary philosophies (Griffiths, 2015). According to Weber, it is difficult, if not impossible, to effectively forecast group behaviour using conventional scientific approaches. They stated that it was necessary to consider how culture affects people's behaviour. Even the researchers said they should be conscious of how their cultural prejudices can affect their findings. Weber and Dilthey created the idea of *verstehen*, a German term that implies profoundly comprehending, to address this issue. When pursuing *verstehen*, outsiders strive to comprehend a social world a whole culture or a particular setting from an insider's perspective.

5.4 Different Schools of Thought in Sociology

Sociologists investigate social behaviours, relationships, and patterns to create a theory explaining how things function. A theory is a testable assertion that may be made about society in sociology as a strategy to explain various facets of social interactions (Akinwale, 2011). Émile Durkheim, for instance, was interested in researching the societal elements that influence suicide even though it is often thought of as an individual issue. He looked at social solidarity within a community and proposed that variations in suicide rates may be attributed to religious differences. Durkheim collected much information on Europeans who had committed suicide and discovered variations depending on religion. In Durkheim's culture, Protestants were more prone to suicide than Catholics, and his study affirms the use of theory in sociological research. The breadth of theories varies according to the size of the problems intended to explain. Micro-level theories focus on particular interactions between individuals or small groups, while macro-level theories address broad concerns and vast populations (Atere & Akinwale, 2005). Grand theories try to explain broad linkages and provide basic explanations for the formation

and evolution of civilisations. Since sociological theory continually changes, it should never be seen as finished. Although new sociological ideas contribute to and expand upon the work of their predecessors, classic sociological theories are still regarded as essential and relevant (Atere & Akinwale, 2005). In sociology, a few ideas known as paradigms provide broad viewpoints that aid in explaining a variety of social life's characteristics. A discipline uses paradigms, which are philosophical and theoretical frameworks, to develop its hypotheses, generalisations, and experimental data. The dominant paradigms in sociological thought include structural functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interactionism because they provide insightful explanations.

Table 5.1 Different Schools of Thought in Sociology

Sociological Paradigm	Level of Analysis	Focus
Structural Functionalism Theory	Macro or mid	The way each part of society functions together to contribute to the whole
Conflict Theory	Macro	The way inequalities contribute to social differences and perpetuate differences in power
Symbolic Interactionism	Micro	One-to-one interactions and communications

5.4.1 Structural Functionalism

Functionalism, or structural-functional theory, views society as a system of interconnected elements created to suit its members' social and biological requirements. Hebert Spencer (1820–1903), an English philosopher and biologist, saw parallels between society and the human body. He argued that just as the body's various organs cooperate to keep the body functioning, so too do the various components of society (Spencer 1898). This idea gave rise to functionalism. The social institutions or patterns of thought and activity aimed at addressing social needs, such as the government, education, family, healthcare, religion, and the economy, were the aspects of society Spencer was referring to. Another pioneering sociologist, Émile Durkheim, used Spencer's theory to describe how civilisations develop and endure across time. According to Durkheim (1893), society is a complex system of interconnected and interdependent pieces that cooperate to preserve stability, and common beliefs, languages, and symbols bind society. He thought that to analyse society, a sociologist had to go beyond people

to social truths like laws, morality, values, religious convictions, conventions, fashion, and rituals, all of which regulate social life. According to Alfred Radcliff-Brown (1881–1955), every recurring activity has a purpose when it contributes to the stability and continuity of social life (Radcliff-Brown 1952). Dynamic equilibrium is the term used by subsequent sociologists like Parsons (1961) to describe how all elements of a healthy society cooperate to preserve peace.

Criticism of Structural Functionalism

The structural-functional theory has been criticised for being unable to explain social change effectively. This theory's somewhat circular character is also problematic; we claim to know that repeating behavioural patterns have a role only because they are repeated, despite the assumption that they do (Gottfried, 2019). Furthermore, dysfunctions could persist even when they aren't fulfilling their intended purpose, which seems to go against the fundamental tenet of the theory. Functionalism is no longer seen as a relevant macro-level theory by many sociologists, although it still has some applications in certain mid-level investigations.

5.4.2 Conflict Theory

According to conflict theory, society is a struggle over scarce resources. This viewpoint is a macro-level strategy most frequently associated with the works of the German philosopher and sociologist Karl Marx (1818–1883). Marx believed that members of society come from various social classes and compete with one another for social, material, and political resources like food and housing, employment, education, and free time (Gottfried, 2019). Government, education, and religious institutions reflect this rivalry in its ingrained disparities and support the social structure based on inequality. Some people and groups can acquire and hold onto resources better than others, and these "winners" utilise their strength and clout to uphold social structures. Many theorists proposed variants on this fundamental topic. Ludwig Gumplowicz, a Polish-Austrian sociologist (1838–1909), developed Marx's views by claiming that conflict and conquest constitute the foundation of civilisations. In his view, nations were established and defined by a dominant group that had control over other groups due to racial and cultural disputes (Irving 2007). Max Weber, a sociologist from Germany, agreed with Marx but added that in addition to economic inequality, social and political inequality also contributes to conflict (Akinwale, 2009). Based on factors including education, colour, and gender, Weber observed that various groups were impacted differently. Class distinctions, social mobility rates, opinions of the legitimacy of those in authority, and responses to inequality were all

influenced. A German sociologist, Georg Simmel (1858–1918), thought conflict might strengthen and stabilise society. According to him, the emotional engagement of the participants, the level of unity among the opposing factions, and the specificity and confinement of the aims all affect how intense the conflict is. Simmel also shows how organisations strive to fortify internal unity, consolidate authority, and stifle debate. Conflict resolution may ease hatred and tension and open the door for future accords (Akinwale, 2009).

Criticism of Conflict Theory

As structural-functionalism came under fire for putting too much emphasis on society's stability, conflict theory has also come under fire for favouring conflict over acknowledging stability. Contrary to what conflict theory would have us believe, many social systems are quite stable or have developed gradually over time.

5.4.3 Symbolic Interactionist Theory

A micro-level theory called symbolic interactionism focuses on interpersonal interactions within a society. It is thought that communication, or the interchange of meaning via words and symbols, is how individuals make sense of their social environments. This approach views humans actively influencing the social environment rather than being acted upon, according to theorists Herman and Reynolds (1994). Despite the fact that he never published any of his work on the subject, George Herbert Mead (1863–1931) is regarded as the father of symbolic interactionism (Pearce, 2020). Herbert Blumer, a Mead student, coined the term "symbolic interactionism" and outlined these fundamental presuppositions: People interact with things based on the meanings that have been assigned to them; the meanings that have been assigned to things come from our interactions with others and society; and a person interprets the meanings of things when dealing with them in particular situations (Doda, 2005). If you love reading, for instance, a symbolic interactionist might suggest that you learned that books are suitable or necessary in the interactions you had with family, friends, school, or church; perhaps your family had a designated reading time every week, getting your library card was treated as a special occasion or bedtime stories were connected to cosiness and comfort.

Criticism of Symbolic Interactionist Theory

It is often questioned because it is difficult to stay impartial while doing research from this angle. Others object to the too-restricted emphasis on symbolic engagement. Naturally, supporters see this as one of its major advantages.

5.5 General Concepts in Sociology

The scientific study of social relationships, social conduct, and human society is known as sociology. Social stratification, culture, race and ethnicity, gender, social institutions, and social change are some of the many issues it covers. Here are some fundamental sociological concepts:

- i. **Social structure:** Patterned interactions between people and groups are referred to as social structure. It consists of social roles, expectations, and principles.
- ii. **Socialisation:** Individuals acquire society's conventions, values, and beliefs via socialisation. It is a lifetime process that starts in childhood and lasts the whole of a person's existence.
- iii. **Social inequality** is the uneven distribution of resources, opportunities, and rewards in society. Based on ethnicity, gender, class, and age are all possible.
- iv. **Culture:** A group or society's common ideas, values, practises, habits, and artefacts. It covers everything, from cuisine and fashion to language and religion.
- v. **Social institutions:** Social institutions are structured systems of thought and activity focusing on fundamental social requirements, including family, education, religion, and governance.
- vi. **Social change:** is the gradual transformation of social institutions, structures, and connections. It may be sped up or slowed down, and various things, including social movements, politics, and technological advancements, can influence it.
- vii. **Power:** The capacity to affect or regulate the actions of others is referred to as power. It may be based on resources, standing, or power.
- viii. **Deviance:** is a term that describes conduct that goes against societal standards and expectations. From petty violations like jaywalking to major crimes like murder, it may cover the whole spectrum.
- ix. **Social stratification:** This term describes the hierarchical organisation of people and organisations according to their money, rank, and power.
- x. **Globalisation:** describes how the world's civilisations, economy, and cultures are becoming more intertwined. Opportunities and difficulties have resulted, such as accelerated economic development and cultural variety, deteriorating environmental conditions, and social injustice.

5.6 Conclusion

The General Introduction to Sociology has presented a complete review of the sociological field, including its history and fundamental ideas. It sheds light on how important it is to study society and social conduct, as well as how sociologists use a variety of research methodologies in order to comprehend and evaluate social phenomena. In addition to this, the introduction highlights the importance of sociology in the context of tackling modern social concerns and difficulties. The chapter examined the historical background grounded on sociology from different scholars and progenitors. The chapter further discussed the various Schools Of Thought in Sociology and their criticisms. The final discussion covered some fundamental sociological concepts.

Illustrative and Practice Questions

1. Which of the following is not a key element of sociology?
 - a) Study of society
 - b) Focus on individual behaviour
 - c) Systematic approach
 - d) Scientific method
2. Who is considered the father of sociology?
 - a) Karl Marx
 - b) Max Weber
 - c) Emile Durkheim
 - d) Auguste Comte
3. Which of the following is not a theoretical perspective in sociology?
 - a) Conflict theory
 - b) Symbolic interactionism
 - c) Functionalism
 - d) Naturalism
4. What is the sociological imagination?
 - a) The ability to see the connection between personal troubles and social issues
 - b) The ability to understand complex mathematical equations
 - c) The ability to communicate effectively with others
 - d) The ability to think critically about scientific theories
5. Which of the following is not a social institution?

- a) Family
- b) Education
- c) Religion
- d) Sports

6. What is the difference between a manifest function and a latent function?

- a) A manifest function is intended and recognised, while a latent function is unintended and unrecognised.
- b) A manifest function is unintended and unrecognised, while a latent function is intended and recognised.
- c) A manifest function is intended and unrecognised, while a latent function is unintended and recognised.
- d) A manifest function is unintended and recognised, while a latent function is intended and unrecognised.

7. What is the difference between a hypothesis and a theory?

- a) A hypothesis is a tentative explanation, while a theory is a well-established explanation.
- b) A hypothesis is a well-established explanation, while a theory is a tentative explanation.
- c) A hypothesis is a prediction, while a theory is a fact.
- d) A hypothesis is a fact, while a theory is a prediction.

8. What is the difference between quantitative and qualitative research?

- a) Quantitative research uses numerical data, while qualitative research uses non-numerical data.
- b) Quantitative research uses non-numerical data, while qualitative research uses numerical data.
- c) Quantitative research is more subjective, while qualitative research is more objective.
- d) Quantitative research is more objective, while qualitative research is more subjective.

9. What is the difference between culture and society?

- a) Culture refers to the material objects created by a society, while society refers to the people who share a culture.

b) Culture refers to the beliefs, values, and practices of a society, while society refers to the physical environment in which people live.

c) Culture and society are interchangeable terms.

d) Culture refers to the social norms and expectations of a society, while society refers to the cultural artifacts created by people.

10. What is the difference between deviance and crime?

a) Deviance refers to any behaviour that violates social norms, while crime refers to behaviour that violates criminal law.

b) Deviance refers to behaviour that violates criminal law, while crime refers to any behaviour that violates social norms.

c) Deviance and crime are interchangeable terms.

d) Deviance refers to behaviour that is socially acceptable, while crime refers to behaviour that is socially unacceptable.

Theory Questions

1. Explain the difference between macro-level and micro-level sociology. Give an example of each.
2. What is the difference between functionalism and conflict theory? Give an example of each.
3. What is the difference between quantitative and qualitative research? When would you use each method?
4. Explain the concept of socialisation. How does it differ from biological development?
5. What is the difference between culture and society? How do they influence each other?

Case Study: The Social Media Platforms

Social media has become an integral part of modern society, with millions of people using platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram to connect with others, share information, and express their opinions. However, the impact of social media on society is a topic of much debate. Some argue that it has brought people closer together and facilitated communication,

while others believe that it has contributed to the spread of misinformation, cyberbullying, and other negative social phenomena.

1. What is social media, and how has it changed the way people interact with each other?
2. What are some of the positive effects of social media on society, and how have they impacted people's lives?
3. What are some of the negative effects of social media on society, and how have they impacted people's lives?
4. How can sociologists study the impact of social media on society, and what methods might they use to do so?
5. What are some potential solutions to the negative effects of social media on society, and how might they be implemented?

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CHAPTER SIX

APPLICATION OF SOCIOLOGY TO HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

6.1 Learning Objectives

At the end of this topic, students should be able to:

- i. Students should be able to explain the relationship between sociology and human resource management.

6.2 Introduction

The Group approach to Human Resource Management is a strategic strategy emphasising the value of a company's groups and teams. It acknowledges that workers collaborate to accomplish organisational goals and objectives in various groups and teams. This strategy focuses on controlling and improving these groups' performance to improve organisational effectiveness generally. The Group Approach to HRM strongly focuses on the value of communication, cooperation, and collaboration in accomplishing organisational objectives. It entails establishing a workplace culture that encourages team members to communicate honestly and openly. Meanwhile, this strategy gives staff members the tools, support, and training they need to function well as a team. The Group Approach to HRM is predicated on the idea that workers can do more as a team than they might as individuals. This strategy also acknowledges that working groups may be more creative, flexible, and responsive to changing business requirements.

6.3 Group

The word "group" is amorphous and may be used to describe a broad range of meetings, including those with just two people (think of a "group project" in school when you pair with another student), clubs, get-togethers of friends regularly, or teams of individuals who work together or have a common interest. The phrase refers to any group of at least two individuals who communicate often and feel their identities are somehow connected to the group (Lindenberg, 2015). Of course, there isn't always a group present when individuals congregate. For instance, a rally is often a one-time occasion, and joining a political party does not automatically entail social involvement.

Any group of people who get together for a shared interest or purpose is a social group. Some groups develop spontaneously, while others are established with a specific goal. A genuine group is more than a mere gathering of people, such as those standing in line or waiting at a bus stop, and demonstrates some social cohesiveness. Group members may share interests, values, beliefs, a common racial or social background, or family relationships. Any group brought together through social ties is considered a collection of people. A social group is considered to exist whenever two or more people interact and have an impact on one another. A social group is a collection of individuals who identify as group members, anticipate certain behaviours from fellow members that they do not expect from outsiders, and are seen by others as group members (Kruglanski, Pierro, Mannetti and De Grada, 2006).

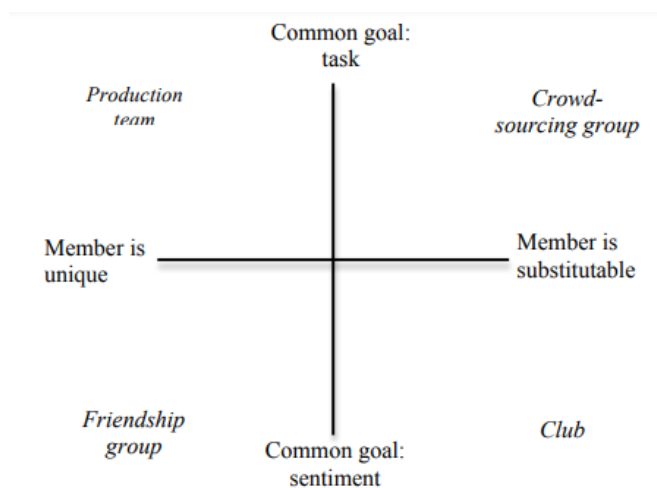


Fig. 6.1 Two-dimensional group space with prototypical kinds of group

People have wants that are addressed by belonging to a group, including the requirements for prestige (Kruglanski et al., 2006), significance, and belonging (Lindenberg, 2015). However, the sociological study of groups emphasises the communal elements of such demands more than why individuals join organisations. For instance, for sociologists, memory is primarily a social phenomenon, just as belonging is not an individual feeling but a joint outcome of interacting with people. As a result, all types of groups are considered the source of long-lasting or enduring collective phenomena (such as social embedding, social norms, motivational patterns, and status systems). These collective phenomena have an impact on how people behave and interact, including how they perform, handle conflict, are creative, are receptive to learning, etc. (See Fig. 6.1). Most sociological research focuses on relation 1, but some also address connection 2, and even some combine relations 1 and 2.

6.3.1 Group Formation

Group formation is concerned with the following: i) How the groups form ii) The structures and processes of the group iii) The group functions in different situations. There are five stages of group development: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning (Barreto et al., 2009).

Forming: There is considerable confusion and ambiguity at this point. During the orientation phase, known as "forming," group members get to know one another and exchange expectations for the organisation. The group comes together at this point, and individuals start to get to know one another and understand what is required of them.

Storming: The greatest degree of disagreement and dispute may be seen now. At this point, members mostly express their concerns and criticism. At this stage, disagreements over the group's objectives and interpersonal disputes manifest. At this point, resolving any issues and setting concrete objectives is crucial.

Norming: Norming is characterised by accepting individual variances and common expectations. Members are assigned duties, and the group chooses how to assess the progress. The group may build patterns for completing its task if it can settle its issues. Group members have definite expectations of one another, which they accept.

Performing happens after the group has grown up and developed a sense of unity. At this point, group members choose to use a logical procedure motivated by pertinent objectives rather than emotional concerns. The role, expectation, and norm-related issues are no longer of utmost significance. The team is productively concentrating on its job and achieving its objectives.

Adjourning: This suggests that when they are ready to depart, group members often experience emotions of closure and grief. The group reaches its last stage when it progressively disbands after fulfilling its original goals.

Therefore, a group is a gathering of people. The term "group" refers to two or more individuals engaging with one another, pursuing similar objectives, and acknowledging their shared membership. We may fulfil significant psychological and social requirements with the aid of groups. Different individuals carry out various jobs. A group may designate one individual as the leader, with others acting as followers. The members are connected in some way. Additionally, contact between group members is crucial for group activities.

6.3.2 Types of Groups

Primary and Secondary Groups: Groups may be roughly split into primary and secondary groups, according to sociologist Charles Horton Cooley (1864–1929) (Cooley 1909). In Cooley's opinion, primary groups are the most important in life. The main group is often rather small and consists of people interacting emotionally face-to-face over an extended period. This group fulfils expressive rather than pragmatic demands—emotional needs. The main group often comprises important people who affect how we socialise. The family is the prime illustration of a fundamental group. Secondary groups are often bigger and less intimate. They could also be time- and task-limited. The roles of these groups are more goal- or task-oriented than emotional, serving an instrumental purpose as opposed to an expressive one. A secondary group might be an office or a school. Neither the core nor secondary groupings are bound by strict definitions or boundaries. People may change groups at any time.

In-Groups and Out-Groups: Through inclusion and its polar opposite, exclusion, communities may become strong. Being a part of an exclusive or elite group gives us a heady sensation, while feeling excluded from or competing with a group may have a different driving effect. In order to understand this phenomenon, sociologist William Sumner (1840–1910) created the notions of in-group and out-group (Maimon & Kuhl, 2008). In a nutshell, an in-group is a group in which a person feels a strong sense of identification and belonging. Contrarily, an out-group is a group to which a person does not belong; often, we may feel contempt or rivalry towards an out-group. Examples of in-groups and out-groups include sports teams, unions, and sororities; individuals might be a part of any of these organisations or consider themselves outsiders. Both primary and secondary groups include both in-groups and out-groups.

Reference Groups: Primary and secondary groups may serve as reference groups or organisations that guide our attitudes and behaviours. The family we come from undoubtedly influences our behaviour and opinions (Maimon & Kuhl, 2008). For instance, throughout your youth, there were certainly moments when you opted not to do certain things with your friends in order to avoid disappointing or offending your parents. On the other hand, your buddies often served as your reference group throughout your adolescence, and it's likely that you dressed like them or did things with them, even against your parents' desires, just because of this. Some of the reference organisations we use are ones we aspire to membership in but do not know. For instance, a young kid may dress and act like an astronaut because they fantasise about being one. Even if they don't belong to the "cool" clique at school, some high school kids

will dress like its members, either to get in or just because they appreciate how its members look.

Social Networks: Nowadays, "networking," or using your relationships with individuals who have connections to others who might help you obtain a job, is often mentioned in the context of the job market. Although you may not personally know these "other people" who will eventually be able to assist you, you do know the ones who do. Your social connections are few or nonexistent, yet you might still get a job thanks to your network activity. Modern life, or the whole of interactions connecting us to other individuals and groups and, via them, to still other people and groups, is increasingly characterised by these social networks. Strong ties are involved in some of these interactions, whereas weak ones are in others (Granovetter, 1983). Networks of a magnitude that were unthinkable only ten years ago are now feasible on Facebook and other websites. Social networks are helpful for various purposes, such as obtaining a job, borrowing modest sums of money, and gaining advice. Who do you go to for guidance or to borrow \$5 or \$10 from? Undoubtedly, some individuals in your social networks—your friends, relatives, and so forth—are the solution.

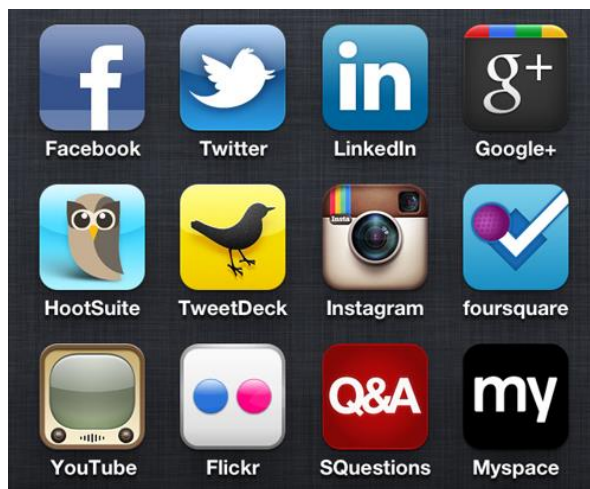


Fig. 6.2: Social Network

6.4 Human Resource Management

The idea of human resource management was already covered in the preceding chapter. Dessler (2013) defines HRM as the strategic strategy firms use to manage their human resources successfully. In order to recruit, develop, inspire, and keep personnel entails certain actions, policies, and procedures. However, important HRM components that Dessler (2013), Aliyu et al. (2017), and other HR experts place a strong focus on include:

- i. **Human resource planning (HRM):** entails predicting future staffing requirements for a company and creating plans to address those requirements. Planning for recruiting as well as succession and workforce assessments, are included.
- ii. **Staffing and Recruitment:** This component aims to find and hire the best candidates for open roles within the firm. It includes job analysis, applicant sourcing, interviews, and hiring choices.
- iii. **Training and Development:** HRM underlines the significance of giving people the information, abilities, and skills they need to do their jobs well. Training programmes, seminars, mentorship, and career development efforts are used to improve staff capacities.
- iv. **Performance Management:** Setting performance standards, giving feedback, and assessing employee performance are all part of HRM. Techniques used to monitor and increase staff productivity include performance reviews, goal-setting, and improvement plans.
- v. **Compensation and Benefits:** HRM is concerned with creating equitable and competitive pay structures that support an organisation's objectives and draw in, inspire, and keep outstanding individuals. This covers pay scales, incentives, bonuses, and benefit plans for workers.
- vi. **Employee Relations:** HRM is concerned with developing and maintaining a good working relationship between management and staff. It includes attending to employee issues, handling disputes, and promoting a positive workplace culture.
- vii. **Employee Engagement and Motivation:** HRM understands the value of encouraging and involving workers in their work in order to increase their commitment and job satisfaction. Work-life balance policies, recognition programmes, and employee participation initiatives are all used to support employee well-being.
- viii. **Legal and Ethical Considerations:** HRM ensures that employment rules and regulations and ethical workplace conduct are followed. This involves upholding employee rights, encouraging diversity and inclusion, and combating harassment and discrimination.

The success of an organisation depends on efficiently managing its people resources, as seen above. Organisations may develop a trained and motivated staff contributing to overall company objectives by coordinating HRM practises with strategic goals.

6.5 A Group Approach to Human Resource Management

An organisation's HR unit promotes cooperation, teamwork, and group decision-making using a group approach to human resource management (HRM). Improving HR practises, policies, and plans entails combining the knowledge and viewpoints of many HR specialists. This strategy acknowledges HR challenges' complexity and diverse nature and the need for various perspectives and expertise to handle them successfully. Some of the essential components of a group approach to HRM include the following:

- i. **Collaboration:** A group approach to HRM entails cooperation between various organisational departments and stakeholders. This cooperation ensures that HR policies and practises align with the organisation's objectives.
- ii. **Team-based HR Structure:** A group approach promotes a team-based structure where HR professionals collaborate as a single unit instead of a hierarchical HR department with a single HR manager. Each team member contributes unique expertise and abilities to HR responsibilities, such as recruiting, training, pay, or employee relations.
- iii. **Employee involvement:** This strategy acknowledges the value of incorporating staff members in the HRM procedure. Employee input on HR policies and practises is considered when making decisions.
- iv. **Cross-Functional cooperation:** The group method encourages HR professionals to collaborate closely with other departments, such as finance, operations, or marketing. It also fosters cooperation among various HR roles. This cooperation promotes a better understanding of the particular demands and difficulties various teams face while also assisting in aligning HR strategies with organisational objectives.
- v. **Training and development:** A collective approach to HRM emphasises the significance of training and development for all workers. This entails offering chances for workers to advance their knowledge and skills as well as continual training and assistance.
- vi. **Shared Decision-Making:** In a team approach, team members participate in decision-making. To obtain agreement on crucial HR issues, the group actively participates in conversations, brainstorming, and problem-solving rather than depending primarily on the HR manager or senior HR executives. With this strategy, the HR staff develops a feeling of responsibility and ownership.
- vii. **Knowledge Sharing and Learning:** A team-based approach to HRM promotes team members' ongoing learning and knowledge sharing. HR experts may exchange best

practises, market trends, and knowledge from their specialised fields. The HR team's aggregate knowledge is increased and this collaborative learning environment facilitates professional development.

- viii. **Flexibility and Adaptability:** HR teams can react to changing organisational demands and outside forces more quickly and effectively by using a collective approach. As corporate plans, market trends, or legal needs change, HR experts may rapidly analyse and modify HR policies, processes, and programmes by working together.
- ix. **Diversity and inclusion:** A team-based approach to human resources management acknowledges the value of these factors in the workplace. This entails developing a culture that supports and respects diversity and giving every employee a chance to contribute to the company's success.

While a team-based approach to HRM has many benefits, it also needs strong leadership, coordination, and communication among the HR team members. To guarantee the group functions well and avoid disputes or duplication of effort, clear roles and duties and a common vision and objectives are crucial. A group approach to HRM acknowledges that HR policies and practices entail input from all organisational stakeholders and are not only the responsibility of the HR department. This strategy may lead to a more motivated and engaged staff, eventually benefiting the firm.

6.6 Conclusion

Businesses need to use the group approach to human resource management since it is a helpful method for efficiently managing their personnel. This strategy strongly focuses on the necessity of cooperation, collaboration, and communication among workers, all of which can contribute to higher productivity, increased job satisfaction, and increased employee retention. Create a pleasant work atmosphere that encourages creativity, innovation, and progress by emphasizing the group as a whole rather than individual individuals. This will allow businesses to achieve their goals. On the other hand, it is essential to keep in mind that in order to assure the success of the group method, its implementation calls for meticulous preparation, strong leadership, and continual review. A viable method for firms that want to enhance their overall performance and achieve success over the long term is to take a collective approach to the management of their human resources.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following is not a characteristic of a group approach to human resource management?
 - a. Emphasis on individual performance
 - b. Collaboration and teamwork
 - c. Shared goals and objectives
 - d. Open communication and feedback

2. What is the primary benefit of a group approach to human resource management?
 - a. Increased individual performance
 - b. Improved communication & collaboration
 - c. Greater employee satisfaction
 - d. Reduced turnover rates

3. Which of the following is an example of a group approach to human resource management?
 - a. Performance evaluations based solely on individual performance
 - b. Team-based incentives and rewards
 - c. Strict adherence to job descriptions and roles
 - d. Limited communication and feedback between employees and management

4. How can a group approach to human resource management improve organisational culture?
 - a. By fostering a sense of teamwork and collaboration
 - b. By emphasising individual performance over group success
 - c. By limiting communication and feedback between employees and management
 - d. By creating a hierarchical structure with clear lines of authority

5. Which of the following is a potential drawback of a group approach to human resource management?
 - a. Reduced employee satisfaction and motivation
 - b. Increased turnover rates
 - c. Limited opportunities for individual recognition and advancement
 - d. Decreased collaboration and teamwork

6. How can a group approach to human resource management be implemented effectively?
- a. By providing clear goals and objectives for the group
 - b. By emphasising individual performance over group success
 - c. By limiting communication and feedback between employees and management
 - d. By creating a hierarchical structure with clear lines of authority
7. Which of the following is an example of a group-based incentive program?
- a. Individual bonuses based on performance evaluations
 - b. Team-based bonuses for achieving shared goals
 - c. Promotions based solely on individual performance
 - d. Limited opportunities for employee recognition and advancement
8. How can a group approach to human resource management improve employee retention?
- a. By fostering a sense of teamwork and collaboration
 - b. By emphasising individual performance over group success
 - c. By limiting communication and feedback between employees and management
 - d. By creating a hierarchical structure with clear lines of authority
9. What is the role of management in a group approach to human resource management?
- a. To provide clear goals and objectives for the group
 - b. To limit communication and feedback between employees
 - c. To emphasise individual performance over group success
 - d. To create a hierarchical structure with clear lines of authority
10. How can a group approach to human resource management improve organisational performance?
- a. By fostering a sense of teamwork and collaboration

- b. By emphasising individual performance over group success
- c. By limiting communication and feedback between employees and management
- d. By creating a hierarchical structure with clear lines of authority.

Practice Questions

- i) Briefly describe one reference group that influenced your attitudes or behaviour, and explain why it influenced you.
- ii) Briefly describe an example of when one of your social networks proved helpful to you (or describe an example of when a social network helped someone you know).
- iii) List at least five secondary groups to which you belong and previously belonged.

Case Study

You are the Human Resources Manager at a mid-sized manufacturing company. The company is experiencing significant growth and expansion, leading to the need for a group approach to human resource management. Discuss how you would implement and utilise a group approach to manage the human resources function in the organisation effectively. Identify specific strategies, processes, and potential challenges that may arise during the implementation phase, and provide recommendations for overcoming those challenges.

1. What are the benefits and challenges of implementing a group approach to human resource management in an organisation? Provide examples to support your answer.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

SOCIALISATION

7.1 Learning Objectives

Students should be able to:

- i. explain the concept of socialisation;
- ii. explain the aims of socialisation;
- iii. describe the agents of socialisation;
- iv. explain the process and types of socialisation;
- v. explain the relevance of organisational socialisation to organisational culture and human resource management.

7.2 Introduction

Socialisation as a process and idea is not new; its method and theory are antiquated and basic. A newborn kid learns society's values, beliefs, norms, and regulations or internalises the culture in which it is born mostly via an unconscious process. So, socialisation involves learning three crucial cognitive, emotional, and evaluative processes. In other words, socialisation entails the development of emotional ties with other members of society and understanding how things are brought about. Therefore, socialisation prepares a person to carry out their responsibilities in society. Different cultures have different socialisation agents. The family, particularly the closest relatives, is the first and most significant socialising agent in most situations. The intricacy of the other groupings, which function as socialising units in society, varies. Therefore, educational institutions play a more significant role as socialising agents in contemporary complex societies than clans and lineages in prehistoric civilisations. Everyone has to socialise because no one can live alone and because social relationships are essential and unavoidable. Since sociable creatures, in general, humans cannot rationally or practically survive in solitude or seclusion.

7.3 What is Socialization?

According to Clausen (1968), socialisation involves educating people on how to act according to the rules, values, and attitudes of the society in which they live. Aside from that, socialisation is the most significant learning process one may go through since it is how human children develop the abilities needed to operate as productive members of their community. In the view

of Hurrelmann (2009), socialisation is the process through which individuals learn to uphold society's standards, values, and duties. Not all social skills are imparted to a newborn infant at once. It goes from being simple to complicated. During the formative years of life (infancy and childhood), socialisation takes place in the "simple," "limited" social environment. The youngster has several things to learn and adapt to as this social environment grows.

Therefore, socialisation is how both children and adults pick up knowledge from others. Early in childhood, we learn from others, and most individuals continue to do so throughout their lives (barring any physical or mental impairments that impede or prevent learning). When we learn a new sport, artistic style, or musical approach from a playmate we admire, learning may sometimes be enjoyable. Sometimes social learning is difficult, such as when we are taught to drive slowly by being fined heavily for speeding. However, this process through which we internalise the social environment's values, rules, roles, and statuses is known as "socialisation." The process of socialisation, according to Macionis and Plummer (1998), "is the process by which social beings establish wider and more profound relationships with one another, in which they become more bound up with, and perceptive of, the personality of themselves and others, and build up the complex structure of the nearer and wider association."

In a nutshell, socialisation is the process that makes people capable of interacting with others. Reiterating that socialisation is culturally related, it is important to note that various cultures and individuals who belong to diverse ethnic, socioeconomic, gender, sexual, and religious groups experience socialisation in different ways. This difference should not and does not automatically need an evaluation. Because socialisation is the process of adopting a culture, so it will vary across all civilisations and subcultures. In no one culture or subculture is socialisation, as a process or a result, better or worse.

7.4 Aims of Socialisation

The main aim of socialisation is to understand how people socialise in the society in which they live. For example, human newborns learn the abilities needed to contribute to society via socialisation. Indeed, it is the most significant learning process a person may have. Humans need social interactions to learn about their culture and live, unlike many other animals whose behaviour is biologically predetermined. According to many experts, socialisation is a key factor in determining how both adults and children behave, think, and act throughout their lives (Grusec, 2011).

This is one of the reasons sociologists study socialisation to comprehend how people pick up and internalise their society's rules, values, beliefs, and actions. Because it aims to clarify how socialisation processes affect how people behave and identify and how these processes change across various cultural and social situations. Sociologists may also learn how social institutions and structures affect people and groups and how to oppose or modify them through researching socialisation. Socialisation research seeks to further knowledge of social change and human behaviour.

7.5 Agents of Socialisation

The socialisation process is not merely confined to the family. It comprises various organisations and institutions where individuals may learn about their society's culture. As was already established, the family serves as the major socialisation agent, with peer groups, schools, and the media as significant secondary agents. According to Grusec and Maayan (2010), "primary socialisation was implicitly regarded as occurring in the home and during early childhood. According to this viewpoint, parents, particularly mothers, are the key socialising agents. Later, secondary socialisation occurred and was influenced by media, educational institutions, and influential people (Grusec & Maayan, 2010).

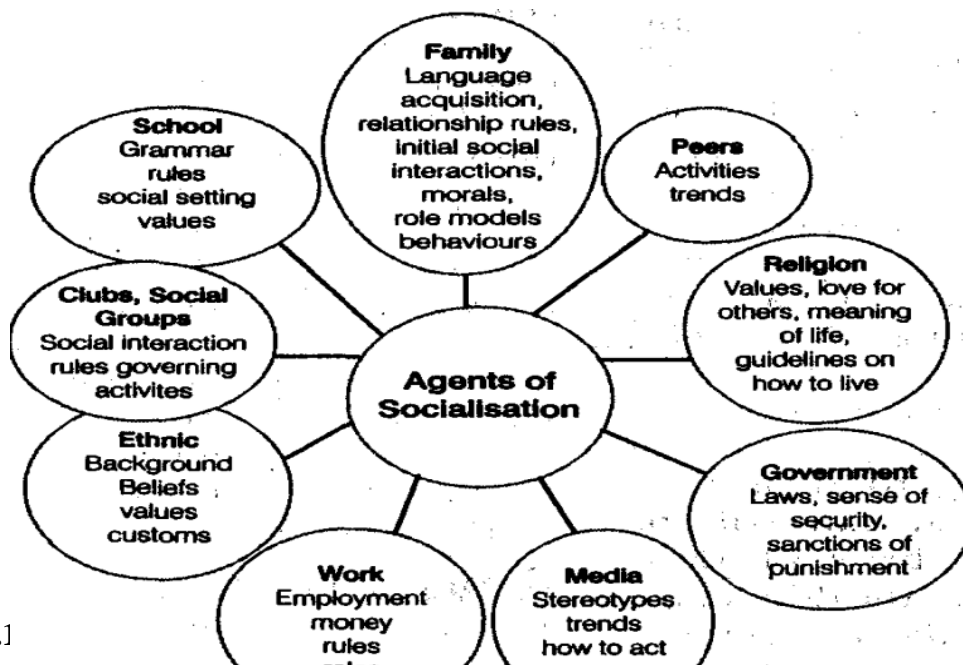


Fig. 7.1

7.5.1 Family

The most significant socialisation factors are parents and the family. The mother makes the child's initial attempts at social interaction inside the household. The home is the first place where socialisation in fundamental values like love and affection, politeness, and etiquette are

taught. In addition to the parents, grandparents, uncles, and aunts are crucial in helping the kids adjust to life in a large family (Bester, 2007). In the family, kids pick up language and hone their speaking skills. Children from diverse cultural origins tend to develop distinct values, attitudes, and views as they mature because of regional and socioeconomic disparities in the household into which one is born. The dynamics of the family, whether loving or chaotic, will have an impact on a child's development. For instance, Patterson Strachey and King (2015) contend that individuals who experience more residential movements or separations from main carers are more likely to struggle with the adjustment. For kids and teenagers, these factors might cause stress. These shifts may also be indicators of additional pressures since they are often linked to family upheavals like parent separation or divorce. Children and adolescents do better than those in more erratic home contexts when their families offer stable, supportive surroundings (Patterson et al., 2015). They also affirm that crucial resources for socialisation include things like "physical resources," "high-quality parenting," "a good family climate," "reasonable stability," and "supportive extra-familial social networks" (Bukowski, Dking & Richadson. 2015).

7.5.2 Peer Groups

In peer groups, friends who share the same age are often included. They see each other as equals and feel mutual understanding and collaboration. Peer groups first develop in the children's home neighbourhood or housing complex. When kids are young, they often establish friends with kids of the same gender. Peer groups thus have a big impact on gender socialisation. Children's peer groups diversify after they begin school. When a child joins a peer group, it's common to observe them spending more time with their friends than with their family. Peer groups continue to impact people throughout their lives in settings including the neighbourhood, educational institutions, the workplace, and more. According to Bukowski et al. (2015), peer interactions may play a significant role in a child's everyday life, beginning in the preschool years, when many kids spend their days in childcare facilities. Bukowski et al. (2015) state, "These experiences can sometimes be sources of companionship, stimulation, information, help, rewards, security, joy, but also sometimes of frustration and harm." Peer pressure is only one of the many harmful aspects of peer socialisation; it has been linked to deviant behaviours like addictions (like drinking and smoking).

7.5.3 School

It is well recognised that a child's first formal agent of socialisation, which moulds their beliefs and attitudes, is the school. Children learn to behave appropriately at school, follow the norms of discipline, and work hard to retain the things taught there. The youngsters are supposed to respect their instructors' authority and pay attention to them. Children might occasionally benefit or suffer because of teachers' responses. In addition to officially instructing the kid in reading, writing, and maths, the school also aids in developing critical thinking skills. In general, schools aid in a child's entire growth and the spread of culture in society. In this situation, the teacher's position becomes crucial. According to Frnes, the teacher often acts as a child's secondary socialiser. However, the instructor may be a major role model for many people. Therefore, the distinction between primary and secondary socialisation becomes hazy. Although schools and the teaching of their curricula are generally considered a part of secondary socialisation, the author continues, "in the knowledge-based economies, the fundamental numerical and alphabetical skills provided by the schools could also be defined as belonging to primary socialisation."

7.5.4 Mass Media

The term "mass media" refers to a variety of channels of communication, such as radio, television, newspapers, magazines, media portals, websites, and the like. According to Bukowski et al. (2015), children nowadays have access to many new learning possibilities, expanding their diverse experiences. As a result, socialisation is no longer mainly or secondarily reliant on the impacts of family, peers, or other similar institutions. However, Patterson et al. (2015) argue that the media give our modern social realities and myths a visual and narrative expression. Modern social media provide an example of how the medium shapes the message. He uses Facebook as an example of how the design of the social media platform "encourages various presentations of taste, identity, and popularity assessment, structuring both the form and content of the communication" (Bukowski et al. 2015).

7.5.5 Language

Depending on the language and circumstances present at any particular moment, people will socialise in various ways. Depending on the particular language and culture they are exposed to where they reside, people develop social skills differently. The swapping of codes is one instance of this. Children of immigrants learn to act by the languages they use in their daily life here: different languages at home and in peer groups (mostly in school settings).

7.5.6 Religion

Religion has had a significant role in civilisation. The role of religion as a unifying force in ancient culture. Even if religion is no longer as significant in contemporary culture, it shapes our views and way of life. Every family engages in some religious observance periodically. The little youngster witnesses his parents attending religious rituals at the temple. He hears religious sermons, which might affect how he lives and how his thoughts are formed.

7.6 Types of Socialisation

1. **Primary socialisation:** A kid is first socialised when taught the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours suitable for people who belong to a certain culture. Imagine, for instance, if a youngster saw their mother having a prejudiced view of a minority group. In such instances, the youngster could continue to have this viewpoint about minority groups and believe this action is appropriate.
2. **Secondary Socialisation:** In a broader community, secondary socialisation refers to learning the proper behaviours as a member of a smaller group. It often affects adults and teens and entails fewer changes than primary socialisation, such as starting a new job or moving to a different area.
3. **Developmental socialisation:** The process of picking up behaviours in a social setting or enhancing your social abilities is known as developmental socialisation.
4. **Resocialisation:** Resocialisation is the process of giving up old behavioural habits and embracing new ones due to a life shift. This happens at every stage of a person's life (Adetola & Adejare, 2020). Resocialisation may be a trying process for the person involved since they must learn and be exposed to standards and values that are drastically out of their comfort zone. A young person leaving home to join the military or a religious convert internalising the doctrine and practises of a new religion are two examples that come to mind.
5. **Organisational Socialisation:** The process through which an employee acquires the information and skills required to fulfil their organisational function. New employees learn about the organisation's history, beliefs, vocabulary, culture, and processes as they acclimate to the workplace. How new hires may use their talents and abilities in the workplace depends on the information they have about their future working conditions. The pace of the workers' socialisation depends on how aggressively they are seeking information.

6. **Group Socialisation:** The idea that a person's peer groups, rather than their parents, have an adult effect on their personality and conduct is known as group socialisation. Teenagers spend more time with their friends than with their parents. Peer groups have a stronger correlation with personality development than parental figures. For instance, twin brothers with the same genetic composition will have distinct personalities due to their diverse social circles rather than necessarily how their parents reared them.
7. **Gender Socialisation:** Henslin (1999) underlined that "learning of culturally defined gender roles is an important part of socialisation" and that gender roles significantly influence socialisation. Learning behaviours and attitudes that are seen to be suitable for a certain sex is referred to as gender socialisation. Females learn to be females, while guys learn to be boys. This "learning" is accomplished by a variety of socialization mechanisms. The family significantly influences establishing gender norms, as do friends, school, the workplace, and the media.
8. **Racial socialization:** is "the developmental processes by which children acquire the behaviours, perceptions, values, and attitudes of an ethnic group and come to see themselves and others as members of the group."

7.7 Process of Socialisation

The process of socialisation is how both children and adults pick up knowledge from others. Early in childhood, we learn from others, and most individuals continue to do so throughout their lives (barring any physical or mental impairments that impede or prevent learning). When we learn a new sport, artistic style, or musical approach from a buddy we admire, learning may sometimes be enjoyable. Sometimes social learning is difficult, such as when we are taught to drive slowly by being fined heavily for speeding. The four fundamental phases of socialisation are childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and age 65 and above. People often start learning and developing significant and practical abilities at each stage of life. As these talents continue to grow, they transfer over and help us prepare for the next phases of life. A person's development and opportunities are limited if they don't go through the crucial socialisation phases and connect with the socialisation agents.

7.7.1 Childhood

The most crucial period of socialisation is childhood. Primary socialisation, during which young infants develop their personalities, physical abilities, cognitive abilities, linguistic abilities, and most importantly their self-concept, is the initial phase of human development.

Later in childhood, they are exposed to roles, values, and standards. The foundation for socialisation for the remainder of one's life is primary socialisation. Without early acquisition and development of these abilities, a person is less likely to acquire them and, as a result, will lack the resources necessary to participate actively in society. The family serves as the primary socialization force throughout childhood. The family's caring environment is essential for healthy cognitive, emotional, and physical development. Acquiring and improving basic motor skills, like eating and tying shoes, is possible via interaction with one's family (Adetola & Adejare, 2020).

7.7.2 Adolescence

The next socialisation stage is adolescence, which builds on lessons learned in childhood while also preparing us for the socialisation that will occur in maturity. The major change that occurs throughout adolescence is learning to live independently of one's parents. This abrupt transformation is known as anticipatory socialisation, a process in which teenagers learn about and become ready for roles they may play as adults (Hurrelmann, 2009). Common anticipatory and teenage socialisation instances are influenced by the functions of two socialisation agents: peers and schools. The social problems of the school are one of the most crucial things families strive to prepare their kids for throughout childhood. Schools impart and reinforce society's culture, values, norms, ideals, and general information. For instance, despite recent advancements in choice, females tend to be persuaded to enrol in home economics courses, whereas guys often choose technology or retail.

7.7.3 Adulthood

Adulthood is the third phase of the socialisation process. Given their anticipatory experiences from the previous two phases, individuals are likely to be completely prepared for what they will confront in life at this point. Even while anticipatory socialisation exists to prepare us for our most probable future societal roles, we still need to go beyond that and join the "real world." We will most likely get a position requiring us to go beyond professional and anticipatory socialisation. By giving us the information and cultural context necessary to succeed in our work situations, this process gets us ready for the workforce. The penultimate ordinal agent of socialisation is the workplace. Most individuals have spent much of their day at work for many years. Depending on their employment, people are socialised in various ways at work. For instance, the professional socialisation one might experience as a businessman differs greatly from that of a construction worker. Each job's dress code straightforwardly differs from the

other. The businessman is supposed to wear a suit, but the construction worker is expected to be in jeans and a T-shirt.

7.7.4 Age 65 and above

Around the age of 65, many individuals in our culture start their retirement careers; this transition into retirement is also known as quitting a job or an important social function. This socialisation stage is significantly less significant to the person since it does not prepare them for the next phase of their lives. Retirees often engage in activities to pass the time during this period.

7.8 Relevance of Organisational Socialisation to Organisational Culture and HRM

The process through which new workers are exposed to an organisation's culture, values, conventions, and expectations is known as organisational socialisation. It is a crucial component of organisational culture and human resource management because it influences how workers behave and see the company.

The common ideas, beliefs, and practises that characterise how things are done in a company are referred to as organisational culture. The culture of an enterprise is significantly shaped and reinforced through organisational socialisation. New hires are introduced to the organisation's culture and principles as well as how they should conduct themselves and interact with coworkers via socialisation. Employees are better able to develop a feeling of shared identity and purpose, which is crucial for forging a strong corporate culture (Hurrelmann, 2009).

The management of the personnel inside a company is the focus of human resource management (HRM). Organisational socialisation is a crucial component of HRM since it ensures that new hires are successfully incorporated into the company. This entails giving them the instruction, assistance, and tools they need to do their jobs well as well as assisting them in growing a feeling of loyalty and devotion to the company. Effective socialisation may also aid in improving employee retention, a major HRM issue, and lower turnover (Clausen, 1968).

Thus, socialisation inside the workplace is essential to corporate culture and human resource planning. It promotes the organisation's culture and values, shapes how workers behave and see the company, and ensures that new hires are successfully incorporated. Organisations may establish a good and encouraging work environment that promotes employee engagement, productivity, and retention by recognising the significance of organisational socialisation.

7.9 Conclusion

Socialisation is an essential process that moulds people's attitudes, behaviours, and beliefs. It is a continuous process that starts at birth and lasts throughout a person's life. Numerous factors, including family, friends, schools, the media, and religion, have a role in socialisation. These forces significantly shape people's personalities, values, and social standards. A feeling of identity and belonging within a community is created via socialisation. It aids people in comprehending and adjusting to the social expectations and conventions of their culture. As a result, the sociological idea of socialisation is crucial for understanding how people integrate into society and how society influences them. The purpose of socialisation, different forms of socialisation, and how organisational socialisation relates to organisational culture and human resource management have all been covered in this article.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following is NOT a primary agent of socialisation?
 - a) Family
 - b) School
 - c) Media
 - d) Friends

2. Which of the following is an example of secondary socialisation?
 - a) Learning how to speak your native language as a child
 - b) Learning how to drive a car as a teenager
 - c) Learning how to cook from your grandmother as an adult
 - d) Learning how to swim as a child

3. Which of the following is an example of anticipatory socialisation?
 - a) A child learning how to behave in school before starting kindergarten
 - b) A teenager learning how to dress and act professionally before starting a job
 - c) A young adult learning how to be a parent before having children
 - d) an older adult learning how to use technology before buying a computer

4. Which of the following is an example of resocialisation?

- a) A child learning how to share toys with others
- b) A teenager learning how to drive a car
- c) A soldier learning how to follow orders in the military
- d) An adult learning how to use a new computer program at work

5. Which of the following is an example of a hidden curriculum in schools?

- a) Teaching students how to read and write
- b) Teaching students how to solve math problems
- c) Teaching students how to behave in a classroom setting
- d) Teaching students about cultural norms and values

6. Which of the following is an example of a gender role?

- a) Women should be the primary caregivers for children
- b) Men should be the primary breadwinners for their families
- c) Women should wear dresses and skirts
- d) Men should be physically strong and assertive

7. Which of the following is an example of a social norm?

- a) Saying "please" and "thank you" when receiving something
- b) Eating with your mouth closed
- c) Wearing a suit and tie to a job interview
- d) All of the above

8. Which of the following is an example of a social institution?

- a) Family
- b) Religion
- c) Education
- d) All of the above

9. Which of the following is an example of a cultural universal?

- a) Marriage
- b) Language

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CHAPTER EIGHT

CULTURE

8.1 Learning Objectives

Students should be able to define culture, organisational culture, and cultural intelligence

- i. describe the fundamentals of culture;
- ii. explain the elements of organisational culture;
- iii. describe the types of organisational culture;
- iv. explain the importance of organisational culture to a successful business strategy.

8.2 Introduction

The ideas, values, conventions, symbols, languages, and practises that influence people's conduct and social interactions within a society called “culture”, which is an essential and dynamic notion in sociology. Culture is a vital component of human civilisation and is crucial in forming our identities, forming our perceptions, and directing our behaviour. Sociologists try to comprehend how culture creates social structures, institutions, and systems of meaning by examining the complex interactions between people and their cultural environment. Culture isn't only a society's creative and intellectual representation in sociology. However, it covers the complete range of conventions, practises, and information passed down from generation to generation. It offers a structure for socialisation, influencing people's behaviour, attitudes, and values as they figure out how to move through and make sense of their social environments.

Sociologists look at culture from a comparative angle, comparing and contrasting different cultural systems and investigating how cultures develop and change. They examine the connections between culture and other social phenomena, including social institutions, power, and inequality. They also examine how language, education, media, and technology transmit and preserve culture. We will dig further into the numerous theoretical stances, research approaches, and fundamental ideas used by sociologists to comprehend the multidimensional nature of culture and its role in forming human societies as we examine culture in sociology.

8.3 Definition of Culture

The term "culture" describes the manner of life of a group or the general population. It covers their manner of dressing, marital traditions, language, family life, job schedules, participation in religious rituals, and leisure activities (Andersen & Taylor, 2019). Cultural sociology is one

of the most important and well-liked subfields of the American Sociological Association. The sociology of culture emerged from the fusion of sociology, as it was shaped by early theorists like Marx, Durkheim, and Weber, and the growing specialisation of anthropology, where researchers pioneered ethnographic approaches for revealing and analysing various diversity of cultures throughout the world (Giddens, 1991).

Inglehart (1997) defined culture as a complex collection of "knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society." Oyserman et al. (2002) buttressed this definition: "Culture is a set of rules or standards that, when applied by members of a society, produce behaviour that falls within a range of variance the members consider proper and acceptable."

A society is a network of ties that binds people together. All societies are interconnected because each society's individuals are arranged in distinct, culturally organised social interactions. Societies are necessary for all cultures to exist. Society also needs culture to function. We wouldn't be 'human' in the way that we often use the word if it weren't for culture. We wouldn't be able to communicate with one another, we wouldn't be self-conscious, and our capacity for thought and reason would be severely constrained (Oyserman et al. 2002).

8.4 Fundamentals of Culture

Jameson (1991) asserts that culture has four fundamental traits. The first thing we can say about culture is that it is something that all members of a certain community have in common. Culture may be compared to a collection of markers that each individual displays to the world in order to identify himself. It distinguishes us and demonstrates our differences.

- i. **Symbols:** Symbols are pictures that convey a specific meaning of something that members of the same culture can quickly identify (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Culture is linked to symbols like an image, a revered item, rituals, texts, and artefacts to maintain its flow. It relies on individuals abiding by culturally particular rules and regulations. That specific community has learned it and ingrained it into themselves. None of these images, however, should be mistaken for the culture itself. They could be the entrance to cultural processes, but their significance only comes from how a network of individuals utilises them.
- ii. **Language:** a set of symbols that enables individual communication (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). While diverse civilisations have unique sign systems, language is a

universal symbol. Language is a symbolic medium for human communication and the dissemination of culture. While some languages solely use spoken language and nonverbal cues, others use written symbols for written communication. Many languages have the same fundamental components, yet societies often speak just one language.

- iii. **Values:** Broad standards for social behaviour are provided by culturally defined notions of desirability, goodness, beauty, and many other concepts (Leung Bhagat, Buchan., Erez & Gibson 2005). Another fundamental component of culture is valued, which comprises evaluations of what is right or wrong and desirable or unpleasant.
- iv. **Beliefs:** People believe certain statements to be true (Leung et al. 2005). Different rituals, established practises, and ceremonies are also found in different cultures and are often used to mark changes in the life cycle. As a result, rituals serve as a reflection of and means of transmission for a culture's values and other components. College and university commencement exercises are well-known instances of ancient customs. Rituals often serve as a means of expressing one's gender identity. For instance, to celebrate their passage into maturity, females all across the globe participate in a variety of initiation rites. Girls participate in the chisungu, a month-long initiation ritual among the Bemba people of Zambia, where they acquire songs, dances, and code words exclusive to women (Maybury-Lewis, 1998). A girl's first menstrual cycle is also commemorated in certain cultures with specific rites. Since a girl's first period is private in the United States, such celebrations are nonexistent. Other cultures, however, celebrate the first period with presents, entertainment, and food (Leung et al. 2005). Boys participate in initiation rituals, some of which include circumcision. However, the methods used for circumcision and the rites that accompany them vary greatly. Boys who are circumcised in the United States often go through a brief operation in the hospital. If their parents are devout Jews, the circumcision will be carried out by a religious leader known as a moyel as part of a religious ritual.
- v. **Norms:** The norms and standards that govern how a society expects its members to behave. Mores and folkways are the two categories of norms. Mores have commonly followed the rules with significant moral implications. Folkways are conventions for commonplace, informal communication (Leung et al. 2005). Formal and informal norms are two categories into which norms are often subdivided. Formal norms, also known as mores and rules, relate to the moral principles deemed to be most significant

in any given culture. Informal norms are rules of conduct that are less significant but impact our behaviour.

8.5 Types of Culture

Culture may be broadly divided into the following types (Gudykunst et al. 1996): 1) High culture 2) Low culture. 3) Popular culture. 4) Folk culture.

1. **High culture:** The Victorian poet-critic Gudykunst et al. (1996) is credited with coining the phrase "high culture" in English with his publication *Culture and Anarchy* (1869). He saw 'high culture' as a force that promoted moral and political virtue. In his definition of "high culture," which he described as the "study of perfection," he argued that this meant to "know the best that has been said and thought in the world."
2. **Low culture:** This derogatory word, which is used to describe various forms of popular culture, is seen to be the antithesis of "high culture." According to certain culture theorists, 'High' and 'low' cultures are both subcultures. There is often little difference between the two in the post-Modern period.
3. **Popular culture:** When employed in law and politics in the fourteenth century, the term "popular" meant "low," "base," "vulgar," and "of the common people." Not until the latter half of the eighteenth century did the term imply what it does now, which is "widespread" and "well-liked." This kind of culture, sometimes called pop culture, as the name implies, is connected to all the common or popular activities (together with the symbols representing them).
4. **Folk culture:** Folk culture is a community's or society's heritage and traditions, as shown in the way of living there. Folk culture has a strong sense of community and is often passed down orally from generation to generation.

8.6 Organisational Culture

From a cultural perspective, Deal and Kennedy's (1982) work, among others, forms the foundation of organisational culture. This viewpoint contends that organisational effectiveness depends more on organisational culture than structure, policy, or politics. As a result, the emphasis shifted from national cultures to the company's culture. The idea that organisational culture provides a nonmechanistic, adaptable, and creative way to understand how companies work has sparked interest in organisational culture from the perspective of human resource management and success (Oyserman et al. 2002).

The unwritten standards that guide group and individual conduct and attitudes are known as organisational culture. The company's structure, the methods and procedures used to carry out work, employee conduct and attitudes, the organisation's values and traditions, and the management and leadership philosophies used all affect organisational culture. A structure that distinguishes an organisation from others is organisational culture, which has a shared meaning among its constituents. Organisational culture is a crucial subject in any firm. Organisational culture and staff communication are crucial for performance. Organisational cultures reflect the working environment, employee conduct, etc. Organisational culture is a key factor in determining how well a company performs; every enterprise has a unique social structure. The workplace culture has a significant role in defining the organisation's brand and setting it apart from its competitors.

8.6.1 Approaches to Understanding Organisational Culture

Numerous management theorists have investigated organisational culture and tried categorising various forms of culture. The methods below show how complicated organisational cultures may be while also helping to analyse and understand them. Observers should be aware that a company's culture may be seen from various perspectives and that its traits can be represented in several overlapping dimensions.

Geertz (1973) thought that culture was the hardest aspect of an organisation to alter and that it might outlive founders, leaders, products, and services. According to Schein's approach, which examines culture from the perspective of the observer, there are three levels of organisational culture:

Artefacts: Organisational characteristics that may be seen by a non-initiated observer, such as buildings, offices, interior design, furniture, clothing, and how individuals interact with one other and outsiders to the company in a visible way.

Espoused values: the members of an organisation's claimed culture. Useful examples include company mottos, mission statements, and other operational creeds.

Underlying fundamental assumptions: implicit and not consciously acknowledged in routine interactions among organisational members. Even those with the knowledge to comprehend this deepest level of organisational culture might get acclimated to its characteristics, confirming its invisibility.

Geert Hofstede is widely recognised for his research on the cultural forces at various national and regional levels that impact organisational behaviour (Geertz, 1973). Additionally, he

worked with Bob Waisfisz to create an organisational culture model with six elements based on empirical study. Which are:

Goal-oriented vs. means-oriented: the degree to which the means (the "how") or the objectives (the "what") of carrying out job activities are given priority. This could influence how one feels about taking chances or making discretionary efforts.

Internally driven vs externally driven: In contrast to internally driven cultures, which may display greater beliefs, externally driven cultures will be more pragmatic and prioritise satisfying client needs.

Easygoing vs strict: Stricter cultures rely heavily on control and discipline, whilst more relaxed societies tend to value spontaneity.

Local vs. professional: the degree to which individuals identify with their immediate colleagues and adhere to this environment's standards or identify with a larger group of individuals and practises depending on their job.

Open system vs closed system: The degree to which immigrants are embraced and the changes they bring are appreciated depends on whether a system is open or closed.

Employee-oriented vs work-oriented: The degree to which the needs of the employee come before those of the job, or the opposite, is employee-oriented vs. work-oriented.

Handy (1991) links organisational structure to organisational culture. He describes:

Power Culture: Control and communication come from the core, where a few people hold the majority of the power. Power cultures are less bureaucratic and have fewer regulations, so decisions may be made quickly.

Role Culture: Power is distributed according to a well-established system. Such firms generally establish hierarchical bureaucracies where a person's position determines their power level, and there are few opportunities for expert power.

Task Culture: Teams are organised to address specific challenges, and power is derived from knowledge.

Person Culture: Everyone in this place thinks they are better than the organisation. Because the idea of an organisation implies that a collection of people with similar ideologies work together to achieve shared objectives, it may be challenging for this kind of organisation to survive. However, with this culture, looser networks or contractual agreements could prosper.

In 1992, Kevan Scholes and Gerry Johnson created the Cultural Web (Leung et al. 2005). It depicts an organisation's implicit beliefs that aid management in concentrating on the crucial aspects of culture and their bearing on important strategic challenges. In order to increase performance and competitive advantage, this may help identify change facilitators and blockers. The Cultural Web contains six inter-related elements:

Stories: the past and present events and people talked about inside and outside the company.

Rituals and routines: the daily behaviour and actions of people that signal acceptable behaviour.

Symbols: the visual representations of the company, including logos, office decor and formal or informal dress codes.

Organisational structure: includes structures defined by the organisation chart and the unwritten lines of power and influence that indicate whose contributions are most valued.

Control systems: the ways that the organisation is controlled, including financial systems, quality systems, and rewards.

Power structures: Power in the company may lie, for example, with one or two executives, a group of executives or a department, or it may be more evenly distributed in a 'flat' organisational structure. These people influence decisions, operations, and strategic direction the most.

8.7 Cultural Intelligence

Understanding, relating to, and adapting to persons from various cultural backgrounds is called cultural intelligence or cultural quotient (CQ). It gauges a person's capacity to operate and flourish in various cultural contexts. Cultural savvy combines information, abilities, and attitudes, enabling people to interact politely and productively with others from different cultural backgrounds (Gudykunst et al. 1996).

Cultural intelligence involves several key components:

1. **Cultural knowledge:** This entails being aware of various cultural customs, values, beliefs, and practices. It entails gaining knowledge of many cultures' social dynamics, history, languages, and customs.

2. **Cultural awareness:** Being aware of one's cultural prejudices and presumptions entails admitting them. It entails having an open mind, being responsive to many viewpoints, and being aware of cultural variations.
3. **Cultural Adaptation:** To modify one's behaviours, communication style, and expectations to fit into various cultural situations is referred to as cultural adaptation. This entails being adaptable, mindful of others' cultural practises, and attentive to them.
4. **Cultural communication:** Clear and appropriate message delivery in various cultural contexts is essential for effective cross-cultural communication. It necessitates awareness of cultural quirks, modifying language and communication approaches, and recognising nonverbal clues.
5. **Cultural empathy:** Cultural empathy is the ability to comprehend and value the feelings, opinions, and experiences of people from other cultures. It calls for fostering empathy and establishing bridges across cultural divides.

In today's globalised environment, cultural intelligence is considered essential. It is appreciated in many fields where people often contact others from varied cultural origins, including international commerce, diplomacy, education, and healthcare. Individuals may improve their capacity to cooperate, form connections, and resolve issues in various cultural contexts by cultivating cultural intelligence.

8.8 Hofstede's cultural values

The framework provided by Hofstede's cultural values explains how culture affects its members' values and how these values connect to conduct. The work of Hofstede is a significant source in cross-cultural psychology, global management, and cross-cultural communication (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede performed a sizable study (1967–1973) that looked at value variations across IBM's various business units. Data from 117,000 workers in 50 nations and 3 regions were gathered. Hofstede first discovered four value dimensions (Individualist/Collectivist, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity/Femininity) using factor analysis, a statistical technique.

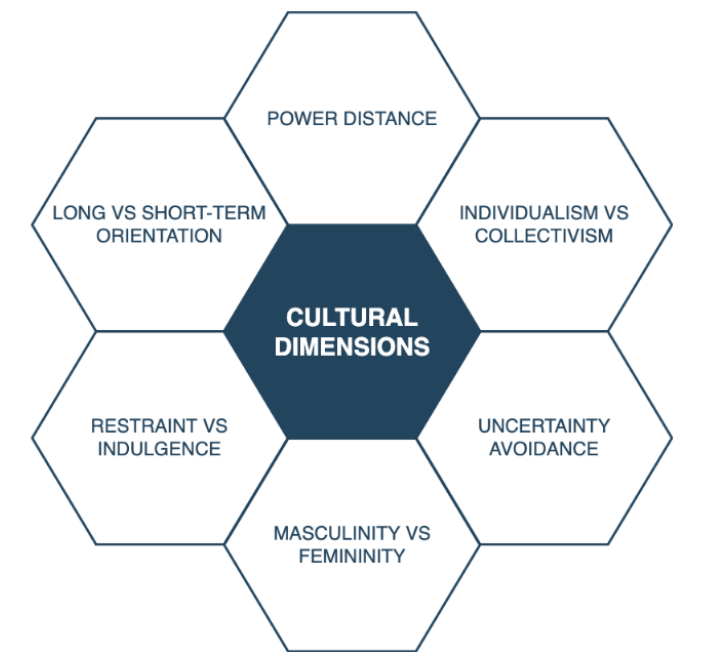


Fig. 8.8.1 Cultural Dimensions

Source: Hofstede 1980

1. **Masculinity and Femininity (task orientation/person orientation):** This is referring to how genders differ in their emotional duties. Competitiveness, aggressiveness, monetary achievement, ambition, and power are valued in masculine societies. Relationships, quality of life, and more care for disadvantaged groups (such as the homeless, people with disabilities, and refugees) are valued more highly in female cultures. In contrast to feminine cultures, where women and men share the same values that place an emphasis on humility and care, gender roles in masculine cultures are dramatically different and considerably less flexible. While countries with low levels of masculinity allow for far wider overlap in the social and professional activities of men and women, masculine cultures are also more prone to have strong beliefs about what constitutes men's labour than women's employment.
2. **Uncertainty Avoidance (UA):** This speaks to a society's tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty. It illustrates how much a society's citizens try to manage their anxiety by reducing uncertainty. How frightening change is to a culture is another, simpler way to think about UA. People in cultures with high UA are more likely to be emotional, attempt to reduce the unexpected and odd conditions, and follow thoroughly thought out norms, laws, and regulations. Low UA cultures strive to have as few rules as

possible and embrace and feel comfortable with unstructured settings or changing surroundings. These civilisations' inhabitants are often more accepting to change. It doesn't bother students from nations with low levels of uncertainty avoidance when a teacher states, "I don't know."

3. **Power Distance (strength of social hierarchy):** In organisations and organisations (like a family), PD describes how much the less powerful individuals accept and anticipate that power is allocated unequally. According to Hofstede, all cultures experience some inequality, although some societies experience it more than others. People in cultures with significant power distance accept hierarchies where everyone is included without good reason. Low power distance societies strive for a fair allocation of electricity. Cultures that value minimal power distance anticipate and embrace more democratic or consultative interactions; this is what is meant by egalitarianism.
4. **Individualist and Collectivism:** This refers to how fully group members are integrated. Individualistic cultures prioritise individual rights and personal interests, particularly emphasising those of the close family. Individualistic societies allow individuals to pick their affiliations and organisations, as well as to switch between them. However, in collectivist society, friendship and loyalty are valued highly. In collectivist cultures, people belong to fewer groups and are more strongly characterised by their affiliation with certain groupings. In individualistic society, communication is more direct; in collectivist ones, it is more indirect.
5. **Long-Term (LT) and Short-Term (ST):** This identifies a society's temporal horizon and the extent to which societies promote postponing satisfaction of members' material, social, and emotional needs: Future-focused, pragmatic values that are motivated by benefits like tenacity, thrift, and adaptability are given higher weight by LT. Short-term values emphasise urgent demands, rapid outcomes, and reckless expenditure, often in reaction to societal or ecological pressure. They are tied to the past and the present (not the future).
6. **Restraint vs Indulgence:** This refers to how a society allows or restrains gratification of basic human desires related to enjoying life and having fun. Societies with high indulgence scores tend to be more open and accepting of personal enjoyment and pleasure, while societies with high restraint scores tend to be more conservative and value self-control and restraint. In societies with high indulgence scores, people are more likely to express themselves freely, pursue their passions, and enjoy life to the

fullest. These societies tend to be more tolerant of diversity and unconventional lifestyles, and people are more likely to take risks and seek new experiences.

8.9 Relationship between organisational culture and successful business strategies

The success of the business strategy is greatly shaped and influenced by organisational culture. It includes the organisation's ideals, assumptions, attitudes, and actions. A strong and good organisational culture may substantially contribute to accomplishing strategic goals when aligned with the company's business strategy. The following are some connections between effective business strategy and organisational culture (Andersen & Taylor, 2019):

Goals and values align: An effective organisational culture ensures staff members are aware of and committed to the organisation's purpose, vision, and values. Employees are more inclined to work towards the strategic objectives with dedication and zeal when the culture aligns with them. An atmosphere that is conducive to successfully executing company plans is created by this alignment, which also provides a feeling of shared purpose.

Employee motivation and engagement: A healthy company culture supports Employee motivation and engagement. Employees are likelier to provide their best effort when they feel appreciated, empowered and acknowledged for their achievements. This drive results in greater productivity and creativity, essential for effective corporate strategy.

Collaboration and communication: An effective company culture encourages honest and open communication. Information, concepts, and feedback are shared among workers at all levels through effective communication practises and channels. Collaboration and information sharing among workers improve problem-solving, judgement, and the execution of corporate plans.

Flexibility and agility: In today's fast-paced corporate climate, flexibility and agility are essential. Adaptability is fostered by an organisational culture that welcomes change, stimulates experimentation, and supports learning. Such a culture enables organisations to successfully execute strategic goals by allowing them to adjust to market dynamics, changes in client preferences, and new possibilities.

Customer-centric focus: In a culture that places a high value on knowing and anticipating the requirements of its customers. When an organisation's culture and business plan are in sync, workers prioritise providing value to consumers. This

customer-centric approach directs decision-making and creates goods, services, and experiences that connect with consumers, giving businesses a competitive edge.

Innovation and taking risks: Successful company strategies may be implemented in an environment that values creativity and taking risks. A culture of innovation is fostered by allowing workers to experiment with novel concepts, take measured risks, and learn from mistakes. Strategic activities requiring inventive problem-solving, creating brand-new goods or services, and pursuing market possibilities are supported by an innovative culture.

It is crucial to remember that a poor or misaligned corporate culture might hamper the execution of business plans. As a result, executives must acknowledge how culture affects strategic success and actively foster a culture that supports the mission and vision of the company.

8.10 Conclusion

Sociologists use the notion of culture to explain how human conduct, attitudes, and beliefs are shaped. It is a complex and ever-changing phenomenon encompassing many facets of human existence, such as language, art, religion, conventions, and traditions. Culture is dynamic and changes over time due to various circumstances, including globalisation, technical advancements, and social upheaval. In sociology, understanding culture is essential because it enables us to appreciate the variety, complexity, and workings of human communities. By studying culture, we can learn more about how people interact, communicate, and interpret their surroundings. The study of culture is crucial for comprehending the intricacies of social life since culture is ultimately a crucial part of human society.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of culture?
a. Learned b. Innate c. Shared d. Symbolic
2. Which of the following is an example of material culture?
a. Language b. Beliefs c. Clothing d. Values
3. Which of the following is an example of non-material culture?
a. Food b. Music c. Technology d. Art
4. Which of the following is an example of a cultural universal?

- a. Marriage b. Democracy c. Capitalism d. Socialism

5. Which of the following is an example of a cultural relativism?

- a. All cultures are equal b. All cultures are the same
c. All cultures are different d. All cultures are superior

6. Which of the following is an example of ethnocentrism?

- a. Believing that your culture is the best b. Believing that all cultures are equal
c. Believing that all cultures are the same d. Believing that all cultures are inferior

7. Which of the following is an example of cultural diffusion?

- a. The spread of Christianity b. The spread of democracy
c. The spread of capitalism d. The spread of socialism

8. Which of the following is an example of cultural assimilation?

- a. The forced adoption of a new culture b. The voluntary adoption of a new culture
c. The rejection of a new culture d. The preservation of one's own culture

9. Which of the following is an example of cultural pluralism?

- a. The forced adoption of a new culture
b. The voluntary adoption of a new culture
c. The rejection of a new culture
d. The coexistence of multiple cultures

10. Which of the following is an example of cultural shock?

- a. Feeling uncomfortable in a new environment
b. Feeling comfortable in a new environment
c. Feeling indifferent in a new environment
d. Feeling excited in a new environment

Theory Questions

1. What are some examples of cultural differences that could impact communication and collaboration in a global team? How can these differences be addressed to ensure effective teamwork?
2. What is culture, and how does it shape our understanding of the world around us?
3. How do cultural practices and beliefs influence social behaviour and interactions?
4. What are some of the key components of culture, and how do they differ across different societies and communities?
5. How do cultural norms and values impact social institutions such as family, education, and religion?
6. How do cultural differences contribute to conflicts and misunderstandings between different groups of people?
7. How do sociologists study culture, and what methods do they use to analyse cultural phenomena?
8. What are some of the challenges and limitations of studying culture, and how can researchers overcome these obstacles?
9. How has globalisation impacted cultural diversity and how cultures interact with one another?
10. How do cultural stereotypes and prejudices affect our perceptions of different groups of people, and what can be done to combat these biases?
11. How can a better understanding of culture help us to create more inclusive and equitable societies?

Case Study

Cultural Diversity and its Impact on Nigerian Society

Nigeria, located in West Africa, is known for its rich cultural heritage and diversity. With over 250 ethnic groups, each with unique traditions, customs, and languages, Nigeria represents a tapestry of cultural identities. The cultural diversity in Nigeria has played a significant role in shaping the nation's social fabric. One of the major ethnic groups in Nigeria is the Yoruba, residing predominantly in the country's southwestern region. The Yoruba people have a distinct cultural identity characterised by their language, art, music, religion, and festivals. Their vibrant festivals, such as the Olojo and Osun Osogbo Festivals, showcase their deep-rooted traditions and beliefs.

In contrast, the Hausa-Fulani people, residing primarily in the northern part of Nigeria, have a different cultural background. Islamic traditions influence their culture, and Hausa is the dominant language spoken in the region. Traditional ceremonies like the Durbar Festival and the Argungu Fishing Festival are celebrated with great pomp and grandeur. The Igbo people in the southeastern region have unique cultural practices. They are known for their entrepreneurial spirit and rich artistic traditions, including masquerades, storytelling, and traditional dances. The New Yam Festival (Iri Ji) is an essential cultural event the Igbo people celebrate. Despite the diverse cultural backgrounds, Nigerians share commonalities contributing to their national identity. Nigerian cuisine is popular, including jollof rice, pounded yam, and egusi soup. Nigerian music, particularly Afrobeat, has also gained international recognition and has become a unifying force among Nigerians.

1. Discuss the significance of cultural diversity in Nigeria and its impact on the nation's social fabric.
2. Analyse the role of festivals in preserving and promoting cultural traditions in Nigeria, using examples from the case study.
3. Explain how cultural diversity in Nigeria contributes to the country's national identity.
4. Assess the influence of Nigerian cuisine and music in fostering unity among Nigerians, considering their diverse cultural backgrounds.

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CHAPTER NINE

SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS –STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS

9.1 Learning Objectives

Students should be able to describe the following social institutions and their relevance to human development:

- i. Economic Institution;
- ii. Political Institution;
- iii. Educational Institution;
- iv. Religious Institution;
- v. Family Institution;
- vi. Human Groups.

9.2 Introduction

Social institutions are the established connections and behavioural patterns that are acknowledged and approved by the whole society. These organisations were developed to satisfy society's fundamental requirements and operate as a platform for interpersonal communication. They are organised systems that carry out certain tasks and are crucial to society's effective operation. The key social institutions are family, education, religion, government, and the economy. Each institution has a distinct layout and set of roles intended to serve the requirements of society. For instance, whereas the school institution offers a structure for imparting information and skills, the family institution provides a framework for raising children and passing on cultural values. Societal institutions are also in charge of preserving societal stability and order. They provide a framework for interpersonal communication and aid in behaviour control. They also offer people a feeling of identification and community throughout society. Social institutions are thus necessary for society to operate. They satisfy fundamental needs, provide a framework for social interaction, and sustain societal stability.

9.3 Concept of Social Institution

An institution is a system of social cohesion that controls how a group behaves within a particular society. Institutions are known for having a social purpose and stability that encourages people to succeed in their goals and daily lives. Every civilisation has a set of institutionalised social norms. These entities, roughly called social institutions, differ from any

political organisation. On the other hand, social institutions are structured system of interpersonal interactions that uphold norms and conventions and serves certain fundamental societal requirements (Doda, 2005). It may be characterised as a set of standards, beliefs, statuses, and responsibilities created to support a significant social purpose. Two (2) components are essential to social institutions that might be studied separately (Griffiths, 2015): a. Persons interacting with one another. It studies how people interact to make, maintain, or change social connections (a micro-sociology); and b. Interaction patterns emerge when encounters become routine, regularised, or capitalised. It alludes to studying social interaction patterns and how they combine to form societies (a macro-sociology).

From another perspective, "social institution" describes intricate social structures that reproduce themselves, such as political institutions like states, families, and human languages and economic institutions like businesses and legal frameworks (Pearce, 2020). It is described by Turner (2006) as "a complex of positions, roles, norms, and values lodged in particular types of social structures and organising relatively stable patterns of human activity concerning fundamental problems in producing life-sustaining resources, in reproducing individuals, and in sustaining viable societal structures within a given environment." A social institution is a grouping of several folkways, mores, and conventions that carry out various tasks for the benefit of society (Clausen, 1968). "Social institutions" refers to the social framework and mechanisms that enable human society to plan, coordinate, and carry out the wide range of tasks necessary to meet its members' needs.

9.4 Economic Institution

Economic institutions meet the necessities of life. Every society establishes economic institutions to organise product and service production, distribution, exchange, and consumption (Bukowski, Dking & Richadson, 2015). Producing, distributing, and consuming commodities and services are all aspects of economic organisation. Because of usage and necessity, people are motivated to generate commodities and services. They make items because they are native to the tribe or are culturally valued. Despite the disagreements surrounding economic conduct, two key aspects stand out: (1) the universality of production, distribution, and consumption; and (2) the structuring of goods.

A nation's political, legal, economic, and social structures will impact its pace of economic expansion. Determining which institutions matter and in what ways is significantly more challenging. This problem has considerable practical significance. Countries can change their

institutional structures as needed to boost their economies. But unless they can identify the positive features of certain institutions, their only choice is to import in large quantities the institutional frameworks of a different, more prosperous nation. Over the years, economies have taken on a variety of shapes. Depending on a country's position during the pre-industrial, industrial, and post-industrial periods has even impacted how an economy might be improved. Pre-industrial economics is a component of a culture that emphasises hunting and gathering. Industrial economies rely on non-conventional forms of energy and equipment. Fast food, transportation, and technology are all features of post-industrial economies that depend on the availability of resources.

In a capitalist economy, the primary driver of economic activity is the accumulation of profits, and most of the means of production are privately owned. How governments control private property and economic activity varies throughout capitalist economic systems. The government heavily regulates economic connections under modern capitalism. When one company dominates a market, there is a monopoly. Industry dominance enables the company to dominate a commodity to successfully set the product's price, quality, and availability. A market with an oligopoly has a limited number of vendors. A few corporations in several US sectors control the market and keep new businesses out.

A society's means of production and distribution are jointly-owned under socialism instead of privately owned. The primary goal of economic systems is to satisfy people's needs, not to maximise profits. Theoretically, socialist nations employ the collective resources of the populace to fund essential services like housing, education, and health care for each person and family. The level to which private ownership is accepted varies between socialist economic regimes.

9.5 Political Institution

Politics is the social institution through which certain individuals and groups obtain and wield power. Today, politics exist in every civilisation in the form of a state or government. Politics are examined in connection to other elements, such as the economy, education, or media via political sociology (Gottfried, 2019). Every civilisation has a set of organisational rules, authoritative people, and jobs and responsibilities. Laws may be either written or spoken. While some civilisations are relatively loosely arranged, others are closely interwoven. Institutions that deal with a society's formal authority structure, use of force, and interactions with other societies and political entities. An essential political institution in contemporary cultures, the

state serves as the mechanism for governing a certain region. Politics gives individuals in positions of power influence and authority. Unfortunately, corruption and the misuse of authority or power frequently result from politics. The misuse of power by those in leadership positions will likely be disguised by falsely claiming to be in charge (Gottfried, 2019).

A civilisation needs laws and regulations to maintain peace and order in order to exist and endure. Every civilisation needs a central authority, usually the government, whose job is to keep things peaceful within the community and with outsiders. Traditional governance systems have also existed in primitive communities, albeit they may not have been as advanced as contemporary ones. A political organisation is a subset that uses properly sanctioned machinery to maintain social order within a certain region. The institution that successfully maintains order is the state (Grusec, 2011).

The word "political system" refers to an accepted set of guidelines for carrying out and achieving a group's objectives. In order to preserve established processes for distributing valuable resources, for determining who gets what, when, and how each community must have a political system. Therefore, a political system is a cultural universal, much like religion and the family, and it is a social institution in every community.

9.5.1 Types of Government

A monarchy is a system of governance in which the only representative of the royal family—typically the king, queen, or other hereditary ruler—rules the country. Most kings and queens are ceremonial figures with little authority (Macionis, 2017). Few people rule under a kind of government known as an oligarchy. It is a very old-fashioned form of government that was extremely successful in ancient Greece and Egypt. Today, military control is a common manifestation of oligarchy.

In a dictatorship, the law-making and law-enforcing authority is essentially vested in a single person. Dictators often use coercion, which includes torture and killing, to obtain and maintain power. Often, dictatorships get so completely in control of the populace's lives that they are said to be totalitarian. Totalitarianism entails practically unrestricted state observation and control over every facet of a society's social and political life. Political scholars Carl Friedrich and Zbigniew Brzezinski have outlined six fundamental characteristics that characterise totalitarian states: (1) widespread ideology; (2) one-party regimes; (3) control of weapons; (4) terror; (5) control of the media; and (6) control of the economy.

Democracy translates to "government by the people." Of course, having a government made up entirely of the population in big, populated countries is unrealistic. As a result, representative democracy a kind of participation is used to preserve democracies.

There are a few ideal kinds of authority, which is a lawful display of power. According to Max Weber, there are three types of authority: conventional, charismatic, and rational-legal. Traditional authority is defined as a long-standing practise that erodes over time. A leader's exceptional traits and achievements define charismatic authority, which is often unstable and only effective in the short term. Last, rational-legal power is the common authority established by law and belongs to the office rather than the individual (North, 1990).

9.6 Educational Institution

The two primary purposes are transmitting a society's cultural legacy to successive generations and the socialisation of new community members. The educational institution is the social organisation involved with formal knowledge transfer. It is one of our oldest and most well-known institutions (Giddens, 2006). The systematic, formal transfer of information, skills, and other aspects of culture via education is a kind of socialisation. Schools, like other institutions, are built on cultural concepts like the accuracy of grades, the importance of timeliness, competitiveness, and social standards. An entity that offers education or training to students or learners is called an educational institution. It may be any educational institution, including a school, college, university, vocational school, or other. Giving students the information, skills, and resources they need to succeed in their chosen course of study or vocation is the main objective of an educational institution. Public or private educational institutions provide a range of courses in academic, vocational, technical, and professional fields. They could also provide extracurricular activities like clubs, sports, and cultural events to enrich the educational process and foster individual development. By offering chances for personal and professional growth, educational institutions play a crucial part in determining how people and society will evolve.

Some of the fundamental tasks that the educational system performs include:

- i. Parental function: It assumes the parental function of socialisation and works to instill in its pupils the prevailing cultural norms, values, and beliefs.
- ii. Preventing crime: The educational system teaches pupils the value of deferring to authoritative figures. As a result, as adolescents grow up, they are more inclined to respect governmental rules and those in positions of power, including the police.

- iii. Knowledge and skills: The educational system equips people with the knowledge and skills they need to advance in society. This facilitates individuals obtaining occupations that benefit society.

9.7 Religious Institution

By providing individuals with a feeling of order, purpose, and direction and by influencing and sustaining the prevailing ideals of society, religion is the most active form of social control, even more so than social and public regulation (Pearce, 2020). Religions include worldviews, notions of divine order and goodness, supernatural creatures and abilities, rites, and ceremonies. The fact that religion is often not seen as being in a distinct realm but rather as a component of society makes "conversion" challenging because of the culture's "religious" character. This category includes ideas like personhood, identity, and allegiance. Institutions in politics and religion often interact. There may be "religious" cultural identity rites involved. From our cultural legacy, we may learn a lot. Our religious beliefs also help define us as a family and a community. Our religious beliefs and practises have an impact on us. People who practise the same faith as you inspire feelings of brotherhood and togetherness.

Additionally, it exudes a sense of security. Our birth often establishes our faith. Whatever religious practises we adhere to, it's crucial to remember that everybody shares some fundamental truths and principles. Religion teaches us to be honest, not steal or defraud anybody, love our fellow humans, be tolerant, be kind to others, and other virtues. Our faith informs how we live. If we adhere to the principles above, we will positively impact every aspect of life. We must learn to use religion constructively. One should accept others who practise different faiths while continuing to practise their own.

9.8 Family Institution Human Groups

The family institution essentially serves two major functions for society as a whole: one is the controlled and socially acceptable reproduction of humanity (producing new members), and the other is the care of the newborn babies during their infancy and early years as well as the satisfaction of human emotional needs and drives. Bukowski et al. (2015) state that a family is "a group of people who are related to one another by bonds of blood, marriage, or adoption and who live together, form an economic unit, and bear and raise children." Families serve many other crucial objectives, such as giving affection and moral support, in addition to the ones mentioned above. Family relationships may be further divided into two groups when studied (Macionis, 2017):

- i. Family of procreation as well as the family of orientation.
- ii. The families into which a person is born are their orientational families. An individual develops their interpersonal communication skills in these organisations. Then all their newly created family members eventually build a family via procreation. A partner and kids, as an illustration. Most parent-child relationships are formally constituted via marriage. The joining of two willing adults is called marriage. This cooperation develops in various nations throughout the globe and is based on how each community describes its social standards. Monogamy is the only recognised kind of marriage in the US. There can only be one guy and one lady engaged in this romance. In contrast, polygamy is a legal form of matrimony in other nations, including the Middle East. Polygamy permits several marriages without leading to social exclusion in society. What is considered acceptable in culture affects the marriage trends in that location. Kathleen (2006).

There are many diverse perspectives on the significance of family and the function of its members within sociology. According to the functionalist viewpoint, these groups are crucial to preserving society's social stability. Families, however, "are sources of social inequality and conflict over values, goals, access to resources and power" (Macionis, 2017), claims the conflict and feminist viewpoints. They are just there to cause difficulties and unhappiness. The symbolic interactionist point of view is the third. According to them, the primary function of a family is to provide support so that members may grow closer and discover many things they have in common. Last, the postmodernist viewpoint acknowledges the variety of families while asserting that "as people have pursued individual freedom, they have been less inclined to accept the structural constraints imposed on them by institutions." (Giddens, 2006, pp. 56)

9.9 Conclusion

Social institutions are a crucial component of society since they provide our everyday life shape and order. They perform various tasks, including managing conduct, interacting with others, and preserving social order. The main social institutions that impact our lives and our ideas and values are the family, education, religion, government, and economics. To understand how society works and how people interact within it, one must be familiar with the structure and functioning of these institutions. By looking at social institutions, we may better grasp society's intricacies and how each institution influences our lives.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following is not a social institution?
a) Family b) Education c) Government d) Technology
2. What is the primary function of the family as a social institution?
a) To provide education b) To provide healthcare
c) To provide socialisation d) To provide entertainment
3. What is the role of religion in society?
a) To provide entertainment b) To provide education
c) To provide social control d) To provide healthcare
4. What is the primary function of the education system as a social institution?
a) To provide healthcare b) To provide socialisation
c) To provide entertainment d) To provide transportation
5. What is the role of the government in society?
a) To provide education b) To provide healthcare
c) To provide social control d) To provide transportation

Theory Questions:

1. Define social institution and provide examples.
2. What are the functions of the family as a social institution?
3. Explain the role of religion in society.
4. What is the primary function of the education system as a social institution?
5. Discuss the role of the government in society.

Case Study: Social Institutions – Structure and Functions

Gambari Community is a small rural town with approximately 5,000 residents. The community is known for its strong sense of social cohesion and interconnectedness. It is composed of various social institutions that play a crucial role in maintaining the community's stability and well-being. Let's explore three key social institutions in Gambari Community and their structure and functions:

1. **Family Institution:** The family institution in Gambari Community is characterised by a traditional nuclear family structure. Most households consist of married couples and their children. The family is considered the primary unit of socialisation, responsible for transmitting cultural values, norms, and traditions from one generation to the next. The family members provide emotional support, nurture, and care for each other. In Gambari Community, families also participate in community events, such as festivals and volunteer activities, strengthening the social fabric.
2. **Educational Institution:** The educational institution in Gambari Community comprises a local public school. The school serves as a central hub for educational activities and plays a vital role in shaping the community's future. It follows a hierarchical structure, with teachers, principals, and administrative staff working together to provide quality education to students. The functions of the educational institution include imparting knowledge, teaching essential skills, fostering socialisation among students, and preparing them for future roles in society. Additionally, the school acts as a gathering place for parents, facilitating interaction and collaboration between families and educators.
3. **Religious Institution:** Religious institutions in Gambari Community are predominantly represented by various churches. These institutions provide a space for residents to practice their faith, seek spiritual guidance, and engage in religious rituals and ceremonies. The structure of religious institutions typically includes religious leaders, such as priests or ministers, and congregational members. The functions of religious institutions encompass offering moral guidance, promoting community solidarity, organising religious events, and providing support networks for individuals in times of need. They also contribute to community development by organising charitable activities, such as food drives and fundraisers for social causes.

Questions:

1. Describe the structure of the family institution in Gambari Community and its functions.
2. Discuss the structure and functions of the educational institution in Gambari Community.
3. Explain the structure and functions of religious institutions in Gambari Community.

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CHAPTER TEN

ELEMENTS OF POLITICS

10.1 Learning Objectives

Students should be able to:

- i. define and explain the terms politics, sovereignty, public administration, parliamentarians, constitutionalism, Constitution;
- ii. describe the concepts of fiscal federalism, separation of power and political parties;
- iii. describe the Pre-colonial Nigerian systems of Government and the colonial Administration in Nigeria.

10.2 Introduction

Politics is a broad, diverse subject that includes many different components. Politics is about how power is used, and resources are distributed in a society. It entails the study of political structures, governmental organisations, and the conduct of people and groups within them. Political parties, elections, interest groups, public opinion, and the media are some of the components of politics. Anyone who wants to navigate politics and make wise judgements regarding government and policy must understand these components. Each of these components will be thoroughly discussed, and their contributions to the political landscape of contemporary nations will be examined in this chapter.

10.3 Politics

Politics is a broad area with many facets, including the ideas, practises, and activities related to the rule of law and social organisation (Akinwumi, 2018). It encompasses power dynamics, decision-making procedures, and the creation and application of laws that influence how societies and countries operate. Politics primarily focuses on the interactions and connections between people, organisations, institutions, and governments. Understanding these political fundamentals lays the groundwork for political system analysis and participation. It makes it possible for people to understand the dynamics of power, the function of institutions, and the influences on political decision-making. Individuals may influence their communities' and countries' policies and courses by becoming involved with these factors. The practise and study of politics is defined by many important factors (Akinwumi, 2018):

1. **Power:** Politics is really about power. It alludes to the capacity to exert influence and control over people and therefore mould their actions and judgements. Power may be used for various purposes, such as economic, political, military, or social.
2. **Government:** The formal institutions and structure through which political power is exercised is the government. It offers the structure for developing and carrying out laws, rules, and regulations. Many types of governments exist, including democracies, monarchies, and dictatorships.
3. **Leadership:** In politics, leadership is essential. People in positions of power and influence within political systems are known as leaders. They direct and influence policy choices, provide a vision for their region or country, and enlist support for their objectives.
4. **Ideologies:** Political thinking and conduct are governed by ideologies, systems of ideas, values, and principles. They provide conceptual frameworks for forming political objectives and interpreting the world. Ideologies like liberalism, conservatism, socialism, and nationalism are examples.
5. **Public Opinion:** The aggregate views, attitudes, and preferences of a society or a subset of it are referred to as public opinion. It can affect political procedures, including elections, decision-making, and public debate. Political participation requires an understanding of public opinion and the ability to react to it.
6. **Institutions:** The official and informal mechanisms that direct and control political behaviour are called political institutions. They consist of bureaucracy, courts, political parties, interest groups, and legislative bodies. Institutions give the guidelines and controls that govern how political processes are carried out.
7. **Making policies:** Making policies entails determining and resolving social issues via the creation and application of laws. It includes investigation, evaluation, compromise, and judgement. Economic, social welfare, foreign policy, and environmental concerns are only a few topics policies may cover.
8. **Conflict and cooperation:** Conflicts of interest and divergent viewpoints are frequent features of politics. These disputes may develop between people, communities, or countries. Politics also include collaboration and compromise to settle disputes, accomplish shared objectives, and establish common ground.

10.4 Basic Theories of Politics

Political theory coexists with other areas of political study, including comparative politics, international relations, and American politics, in that it is a subdivision of the discipline of political science. However, political theory differs from the other subfields in another way since it is the oldest and most basic method of political analysis. This philosophical investigation into political significance exposes the most basic issues of the human experience. Political theory, therefore, is not merely a part of political science that exists alongside other branches; it is the root from which all other disciplines of political research spring (Lipset, 1959). In fact, basic inquiries and ideas that cut to the core of political theory seem to lurk underneath the practise of inquiry in the other subfields of political science.

The study of politics covers various ideas and viewpoints on how authority is used, choices are made, and resources are distributed in society. These ideas serve as an example of the broad range of viewpoints found in political science. They provide several analytical frameworks through which researchers and observers may examine political occurrences and advance our knowledge of authority, rule of law, and social structure. Here are several fundamental political theories that provide various conceptual frameworks for comprehending political systems (Lipset, 1959; Mansbridge, 2003):

10.4.1 Pluralism

The presence of several conflicting groups and interests within a community is highlighted by pluralism. It implies that decision-making results from discussion and compromise among different parties, and that power is distributed across diverse organisations and people. Pluralism emphasises the value of participation and the range of players' capacity to shape political results.

10.4.2 Liberalism

The values of individual liberty, equality, and limited government involvement are the foundation of liberalism. It promotes the defence of constitutional rights, political liberties, and the rule of law. Liberal thinkers strongly emphasise the role that free markets, democratic institutions, and civil rights play in producing a fair and affluent society.

10.4.3 Conservatism

The conservative political viewpoint values tradition, authority, and stability. Conservative thinkers favour gradual change over drastic alterations, emphasising preserving current social

structures and practises. They emphasise the value of community, law, and individual accountability.

10.4.4 Marxism

Karl Marx created the socio-economic and political ideology known as marxism. The antagonism between the bourgeoisie (the capitalist class) and the proletariat (the working class) is highlighted as it analyses the dynamics of capitalist society. Marxists believe that economic interactions affect social and political structures and that in order to create a society without classes, the proletariat must destroy the bourgeoisie.

10.4.5 Feminism

A theoretical viewpoint called feminism emphasises gender inequity and works to combat and eradicate prejudice against women. Feminist ideas examine social norms, power dynamics, and how gender affects society and politics. They seek to establish gender parity in opportunities, social policy, and political representation.

10.4.6 Realism

A philosophy of international relations known as realism sees nations as the main players in world politics. Realists strongly emphasise the advancement of national interests and the use of force to maintain the safety and viability of the state. They contend that competition, conflict, and the lack of a centralised authority are characteristics of the international system.

10.4.7 Constructivism

Constructivism strongly emphasises how concepts, standards, and social constructs influence politics. It implies that common identities, values, and beliefs impact political results. Constructivists emphasise how socialisation and the creation of meaning play a part in political processes.

10.4.8 Anarchism

A society built on free collaboration and mutual help is what anarchism calls for in its opposition to the hierarchical rule. Anarchists advocate for direct democracy, and decentralised decision-making, and deny the state's legitimacy.

10.5 Sovereignty

A state or other governing body's absolute authority and power inside its boundaries is called sovereignty. Without interference from other forces, it has the only right to exercise sovereignty

over its territory, population, and internal affairs. Politics and law are both included in sovereignty (Schattschneider, 1960). Politically speaking, it denotes a government's capacity to rule its people without using force from outside sources. Legally, sovereignty refers to other sovereign nations' acknowledgement of a state as a unique and independent entity. Historical, political, and legal advancements have all altered the notion of sovereignty. According to the conventional Westphalian concept, sovereignty was equated with the monarch's unquestionable authority over their region. But as democratic ideals have grown in popularity and nation-states have emerged, sovereignty has become more perceived as belonging to the people. The idea of popular sovereignty, which the people have ultimate power, is often emphasised in contemporary notions of sovereignty.

Depending on the circumstances, sovereignty may be restricted or shared. Certain powers may be transferred from individual nations to a collective body due to international treaties and accords, such as those forming supranational organisations like the European Union. In these situations, governments voluntarily cede some of their sovereignty in order to work together and accomplish shared objectives. The concept of sovereignty is fundamental to international relations and is crucial in defining the obligations and rights of nations (Ojo, 2015). Territorial integrity, diplomatic recognition, and non-interference in the internal affairs of other governments are all based on this idea. However, in a world becoming more linked, sovereignty may also be contested, especially in areas like human rights, global governance, and striking a balance between national sovereignty and interstate cooperation.

10.5.1 Social Contract Theory

Hobbes (1651) was the first to develop the Social Contract thesis. He starts by saying that everyone has innate power and intellect. Nobody is so intelligent or powerful that they cannot be outwitted or defeated by another person (or maybe a few). Everyone thinks she can have everything she wants because of this belief. People always act in their own best interests, as well. Every person competes with one another for the resources they want. In order to describe men's original condition, the social contract theory created the term "state of nature." In order to get away from nature, man established a social contract.

The argument suggests that people would be continually at war with one another in their natural state (before the government), competing and fighting for resources that aren't abundant enough for everyone to have what they desire. This is the natural state of man when life is "solitary, poor, ugly, brutish, and brief," and people live in "constant fear and the threat of violent death."

According to Hobbes (1651), if there were no laws to restrain them, people would act selfishly and do whatever it took to exist.

Based on their individual views, these three social contract theorists contend that there was a time when humanity existed or could have done so without the state and its institutions. Aliyu (2021) claims that social contract theories may explain this by positing the possibility of two life patterns: one before and one after the creation of the state. The following issues are raised as a consequence of this state's citizens' voluntary agreement: (1) What was the state's pre-existence status like? (2) If the establishment of the state was based on an agreement, what were those terms? (3) Who is in control Between the creator and the subject creature? The responses of Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau may be analysed to show that, although the first point deals with the state of nature, the second and third deal with the conditions of the contract and the nature of sovereignty, respectively.

	Prisoner B remains silent	Prisoner B betrays prisoner A
Prisoner A remains silent	Prisoner A: 1 year Prisoner B: 1 year	Prisoner A: 10 years Prisoner B: Goes free
Prisoner A betrays prisoner B	Prisoner A: Goes free Prisoner B: 10 years	Prisoner A: 5 years Prisoner B: 5 years

Source: Aliyu (2021)

Figure 10.1 An Illustration of Social Contract Theory

Prisoner A betrays the other prisoner, as shown in Figure 10.1. (B). Instead of serving a year in jail, prisoner A will be released if prisoner B keeps silent (for remaining silent). If prisoner B betrays prisoner A, however, prisoner A will only be sentenced to 5 years rather than 10 years if he keeps silent. In any case, it is beneficial for prisoner A to betray prisoner B. The same is true for prisoner B.

Overall, the social contract theory has received considerable criticism even if it has helped conceptualise democratic norms in contemporary state systems and understanding the nature of governance. The social contract idea's legality is also under doubt. A legally sound contract

is said to need the existence of a sanctioning authority and their approval before the contract's execution. He contends that it is untrue that prior to agreeing to establish political institutions based on a shared desire to bring about order and security, individuals lived in a "state of nature." The cultural change is thus believed to have been from one status to another. As a result, a person's status in early civilisation was determined by their membership in a social group. At several levels of social organisation, such as family, clan, and tribe, customs governed how men lived. It was argued that this process, rather than a freely contracting individual's decision, is how law, sovereignty, and political institutions came to be.

10.5.2 Types of Government

Around the globe, there are several forms of governmental structures. There are many variants and hybrid forms in addition to the ones shown here. The efficacy and style of governance may change greatly within each kind, and it's crucial to remember that various nations may have distinctive political structures that don't cleanly fit into these categories (Ekeh, 2013).

- a) **Democracy:** In a democracy, the people are in charge of making choices, either directly or via representatives they elect to act on their behalf. The United States, India, and Germany are a few examples.
- b) **A monarchy:** is a political system in which a single person, generally a king or queen, maintains absolute power and where authority is traditionally passed down via families. Monarchies may be absolute, in which the monarch has unrestrained authority, or constitutional, in which a constitution constrains the monarch's powers. Japan, Saudi Arabia, and the United Kingdom are a few examples.
- c) **Republic:** A republic is a system of governance in which the nation is run as a "public matter" and is not ruled by a king or queen. Typically, elected leaders who represent the people hold positions of power. Republics include, for instance, the United States, France, and Italy.
- d) **Power:** is held by a single person or a few people under a dictatorship, often attained and sustained via force. With little to no input from the populace, the dictator has enormous power over the government and society. Kim Jong-un's North Korea serves as an illustration of a dictatorship.
- e) **Theocracy:** A theocracy is a kind of government in which religious leaders are in charge and bases their laws and rules on religious precepts. Iran is a prime example of a theocracy, with its Supreme Leader and Council of Guardians.

- f) **Oligarchy:** An oligarchy is a political or economic system in which a small number of people, often from the ruling class, retain all the sway and control of the nation. Since this group makes most of the decisions, there may be inequity and little representation of the larger population. Some nations, like Zimbabwe and Russia, have been labelled as oligarchies.
- g) **Anarchy:** An absence of administration or a lack of a centralised power is referred to as anarchy. It is characterised by a society devoid of a framework of hierarchical authority in which people enjoy the greatest degree of freedom and self-government. Generally speaking, anarchy is seen as a theoretical idea rather than a workable system of long-term government.

10.5.3 Parliamentarianism

A political system known as parliamentarians holds the executive branch of government responsible to the parliament. In this representational democracy, the parliament has considerable authority and influence over decisions (Aluko, 2016). In a parliamentary system, the head of government is often the prime minister, while the head of state is typically a ceremonial figurehead like a monarch or a president with restricted responsibilities. The prime minister is responsible for leading the government and achieving its objectives. They are elected from the majority party or coalition in parliament. Parliamentarianism's salient characteristics are:

- a) **The division of powers:** The legislative and executive branches are distinct yet interdependent. The legislative branch gives the executive branch its power, and members of the executive, such as the prime minister and cabinet ministers, often also serve in parliament.
- b) **Supply and confidence:** The government's capacity to rule rests on its ability to keep the support of the majority in parliament. The prime minister may resign or early elections may be called if the government loses a vote of no confidence.
- c) Governments are held jointly and severally liable for their choices and acts under the concept of collective accountability. A government minister is expected to either quit or openly endorse a decision or policy with which they disagree. During question periods, members of parliament have the chance to inquire about the policies and activities of government ministries. This enables the legislative branch to monitor and hold the executive branch responsible.

- d) **Flexibility and responsiveness:** Parliamentary systems often provide speedier decision-making and policy adjustments compared to presidential systems. New elections may be called to reflect evolving circumstances or popular mood, and the government can be reorganised or dismissed as required.

Many nations, including the UK, Canada, Australia, Germany, India, and others, actively practise parliamentarianism. It offers a balance of power between the legislative and executive branches and creates procedures for representation and accountability. However, depending on each nation's unique constitutional framework and political traditions, parliamentary systems' precise form and operation might differ from one nation to the next.

10.5.4 Fiscal Federalism

The allocation of budgetary authority and responsibility among several governmental tiers under a federal structure is referred to as fiscal federalism (Falola & Heaton, 2018). Governmental power is divided between a central or federal government and regional or state governments under a federal system, such as the one used in the United States, Canada, or Germany. According to fiscal federalism, national and local governments can impose taxes, use public money, and enact economic regulations within their respective spheres of influence. The precise distribution of budgetary authority may differ depending on each nation's political system and constitutional structure. Fiscal federalism is based on several essential ideas and methods, including:

- i. **Revenue Assignment:** Find out which government level can impose and collect specific taxes. For instance, state or local governments may be in charge of sales tax or property tax, while the federal government may be in charge of income tax and corporation tax.
- ii. **Intergovernmental transfers:** These are monetary payments made by the national government to local governments to promote equity, redistribute wealth, or advance certain policy goals. Transfers may be made unconditionally (for any purpose) or subject to conditions (for a particular purpose).
- iii. **Expenditure Assignment:** Spending responsibility distribution across governmental levels is referred to as expenditure assignment. Defence and foreign policy are two instances when the central government is often solely responsible for public spending. Other sectors, like education, health care, or transportation, may be shared or reserved for one person alone.

- iv. **Fiscal federalism:** may aid in the stabilisation of the national economy during times of economic turbulence. The central government may conduct countercyclical measures to assist promote or constrain the economy using its fiscal powers, such as taxing and expenditure.

The subsidiarity concept contends that choices must be made at the lowest level of government that can resolve the problem successfully. It indicates that duties need to be assigned to local or regional governments unless there is an urgent need for federal action. Fiscal federalism aims to find a balance between national planning and local control. It maintains national cohesiveness and the provision of necessary public goods and services while allowing regional governments to exercise some degree of budgetary independence and decision-making authority (Falola & Heaton, 2018). Depending on the political, economic, and cultural setting of a nation, the precise architecture of fiscal federalism might differ significantly.

10.5.5 Public Administration

Implementing and managing governmental policies, programmes, and services is called public administration. It covers the actions of public servants who run the regular business of government departments and agencies. A significant part of the public sector, public administration, is essential to providing public services and ensuring that the government runs smoothly. The study of public administration covers various tasks, such as planning budgets, managing human resources, handling public finances, analysing public policy, and evaluating programmes (Akinola, 2019). In order to ensure that government services and programmes are provided effectively, efficiently, and by the requirements and expectations of the general public, public administrators are in charge of monitoring these operations. Political science, economics, and law are all strongly tied to public administration. In order to comprehend and handle problems with governance, public policy, and the provision of public services, it uses ideas and concepts from these disciplines. Public administrators often work for non-profit organisations, international institutions, and governments at all levels, including municipal, state, and federal (Akinola, 2019).

The fundamental tenets of public administration are openness, responsibility, effectiveness, efficiency, equality, and responsiveness. When making decisions and implementing policies, public administrators should behave in the public interest and the best interests of the people they serve. They manage public resources, ensure everyone is treated fairly, and react to the public's shifting needs and expectations. Examining public management's ideas practises, and

difficulties is a key component of studying public administration. It covers various issues, including strategic planning, public sector reforms, organisational behaviour, public policy analysis, leadership, and public finance. Universities and educational institutions all around the globe offer public administration courses and degrees, educating students for work in government, nonprofits, and the public sector (Agbese, 2017).

10.5.6 Constitutionalism and the Constitution

A written constitution and the application of the law are essential components of the political philosophy or ideology known as constitutionalism. It is predicated on the notion that governmental authority ought to be restrained and that personal freedoms and rights need to be safeguarded. A constitution is a foundational document that creates a government's structure and lays forth a society's core values and guidelines. It outlines the connection between the government and its people, specifies the rights and freedoms of individuals, and lays out the organisation and authority of the several parts of government. Different constitutions might exist based on the nation and its political structure. While some constitutions are more thorough and rigorous than others, others are quite short and flexible. There are both written and unwritten constitutions. A written constitution is a formal, usually codified, legally binding document. In contrast, an unwritten constitution establishes the foundation of governance via a mix of laws, legal precedents, and judicial judgements.

Constitutions perform many crucial functions:

- i. **Limiting government power:** A constitution outlines the government's duties and authority, ensuring it stays within its bounds. It establishes restrictions on what the government may do and offers safeguards against the misuse of authority.
- ii. **Protecting individual rights and liberties:** Bills of rights or similar clauses are often included in constitutions and protect people with certain basic freedoms and rights, such as the right to freedom of expression, religion, and assembly. The government is prohibited from violating these rights.
- iii. **Providing stability and predictability:** A constitution offers a solid foundation for government, outlining the procedures for obtaining and using political power. It lays forth the guidelines for elections, term limits for elected officials, and the methods for passing and enforcing laws.

- iv. **Justice and conflict resolution:** Constitutions often include clauses that address how disagreements and conflicts within the political system should be resolved. They set up an independent court to interpret and administer the law to ensure fairness and justice.

Constitutions may contribute to social cohesiveness and the development a sense of national identity. They might include clauses that acknowledge the rights and interests of various societal groups and set up procedures for their involvement in the political process.

The Constitution and constitutionalism go hand in hand. The underlying political concept of constitutionalism emphasises the significance of a constitution in setting the boundaries of government authority, safeguarding individual rights, and upholding the rule of law. The Constitution provides a legal foundation for putting constitutionalism into practice, which embodies constitutional ideas. Constitutional protection of individual rights and freedoms and democratic government are based on constitutionalism.

10.5.7 Separation of Power

A key tenet of democratic forms of administration is the separation of powers. In order to avoid the concentration of power in the hands of one person or group, it refers to the distribution of governmental authority among many departments or groups. Establishing a system of checks and balances that protects individual rights, deters the misuse of authority, and encourages good governance is the goal of this division. The political philosopher Montesquieu, who put forward the theory in his work "The Spirit of the Laws" in 1748, is credited with developing the idea of separation of powers. According to Montesquieu, the legislative, executive, and judicial departments of government should each have their own distinct set of authority (Momoh, 2017).

- i. The legislative branch is in charge of passing legislation. It usually comprises a parliament, congress, or other comparable organisation of elected officials that discuss and make laws.
- ii. The executive branch is in charge of putting legislation into action and enforcing them. The president, prime minister, or equivalent executive often serves as its leader and implements the government's policies and decisions.
- iii. The judicial branch is in charge of interpreting legislation and verifying its legality. The courts and judges hear cases, apply the law to particular circumstances, and issue rulings.

- iv. The division of powers creates a system of checks and balances by allowing each component to carry out certain duties separately.

These checks and balances serve several objectives:

- a. Tyranny may be avoided by dividing power across many departments, which helps guard against misuse of authority and the concentration of power in the hands of one person or group.
- b. Each branch has the power to restrain the activities of the others, preventing any one branch from becoming too dominating. For instance, the executive branch may reject or selectively enforce legislation passed by the legislative branch. The judicial branch can assess whether legislation and executive acts are constitutional.
- c. Individual Rights Defence: By preventing the government from going beyond its legal bounds, the division of powers helps safeguard individual rights. The judiciary plays a critical part in preserving fundamental rights by interpreting the law and ensuring it adheres to constitutional principles.

It's crucial to remember that there is often some overlap and interaction between the parts of government, despite the separation of powers not being an exact split. The division of powers may take many forms and operate differently depending on the country and its political system, but the fundamental idea is always the same.

10.5.8 Political parties

Political parties are formalised associations of people with comparable political beliefs, objectives, and passions. They are key players in democratic regimes because they represent many viewpoints and vie for political influence. In order to execute their goals and impact the government of a nation or area, political parties often work to garner support from the general public through elections. A few well-known political parties from different nations are listed below:

- i. Democratic Party: One of the two main political parties in the United States, the Democratic Party is often linked to liberal and progressive principles.
- ii. Republican Party (United States): The country's second-largest political party, often linked to conservative and right-leaning ideologies.
- iii. Conservative Party: The biggest center-right party in the United Kingdom, the Conservative Party, supports traditional values and free markets.

- iv. Labour Party: The biggest center-left party in the United Kingdom, the Labour Party has always represented working-class concerns and promoted social justice.
- v. The Social Democratic Party (Germany) is a left-leaning political organisation that backs labour rights, social welfare initiatives, and environmental preservation.
- vi. The Communist Party of China is the country's official government and is committed to maintaining the leadership of the party as well as socialism with Chinese features.
- vii. Indian National Congress (India): A secular, socially just, and economically progressive center-left party in India having roots in the nation's independence struggle.
- viii. African National Congress (South Africa): Since the end of apartheid, this country's governing party has prioritised social democracy, national harmony, and the empowerment of disadvantaged people.
- ix. The All Progressives Congress (APC) is a 2013-founded center-right political party. It was formed as a result of the union of many opposition groups to take on the current governing party. Muhammadu Buhari, the APC candidate, won the presidency of Nigeria in the general elections held in 2015. The party prioritises themes including good government, security, and the fight against corruption.
- x. People's Democratic Party (PDP): From 1999 to 2015, Nigeria's government was headed by this center-left political party. Established in 1998, it has been a significant political force in Nigeria. The PDP is an advocate for racial and socioeconomic equality, as well as the empowerment of weaker communities. It strongly emphasises topics like reducing poverty, advancing education and healthcare, and building infrastructure.
- xi. The All Progressives Grand Alliance (APGA) is a local party with its headquarters in Nigeria's southeast. It was established in 2002 and has had some success in local state elections.
- xii. The Social Democratic Party (SDP) is a center-left political organisation that prioritises social democracy and the fair distribution of wealth. It was first established in the 1990s and re-established in 2017.
- xiii. The Labour Party (LP) is a left-leaning political organisation that prioritises social justice and workers' rights. It was established in 2002 and has some participation in state legislatures.
- xiv. Young Progressive Party (YPP): Founded in 2017, the YPP is a relatively young political organisation. It aspires to revitalise Nigerian politics and encourage young involvement in government.

There are also numerous minor parties; these are only a few examples. The APC and PDP have recently been the most well-known and effective parties in Nigeria's multi-party system.

10.5.9 Pre-colonial Nigerian Systems of Government

Nigeria was home to various indigenous communities with distinct types of government before the entrance of European colonial forces. Although these political structures differed across nations and ethnic groups, they typically had several characteristics in common. Here are a few noteworthy pre-colonial Nigerian political structures (Tilly, 2007; Osaghae, 2016):

- i. **Kingdoms and Monarchies:** Many Nigerian communities were structured as kingdoms or monarchies, where a king or traditional leader held political authority. These leaders exercised considerable power and often received support from a council of chiefs or elders. Examples include the Hausa city-states of Kano, Katsina, and Zazzau, the Oyo Empire, and the Benin Kingdom.
- ii. **Chiefdoms:** In Nigeria, several different ethnic groups had chiefdoms. Chiefs who oversaw certain communities or regions served as their leaders. Chiefs were in charge of upholding social order, resolving conflicts, and speaking for their communities. They were often hereditary leaders. The chiefdoms of the Igbo, Yoruba, and Tiv cultures were well-known.
- iii. **Republics:** Some Nigerian communities had republican forms of governance, in which authority was shared by a council or a group of people. The decision-making process in these republics often included deliberations and member consensus. The Igbo republics of Nri and Arochukwu are two examples.
- iv. **Acephalous Societies:** A few Nigerian societies used decentralised political systems. These acephalous civilisations often featured communal decision-making structures and were based on familial relationships. Examples of such acephalous social structures are the Igala and Efik societies.
- v. **Tribal Councils and Assemblies:** Many ethnic groups used tribal councils or assemblies to bring together community members to debate concerns, make decisions, and settle conflicts. Voting or consensus was often used to arrive at decisions.

It is essential to remember that these systems changed through time rather than being static or permanent. Within and across various ethnic groups, they showed differences and adaptations and were affected by things like culture, customs, and historical changes.

10.5.10 Colonial Administration in Nigeria

The term "colonial administration" in Nigeria refers to the time from the late 19th century to Nigeria's independence in 1960 when Britain governed the country. During this period, Nigeria was split into many administrative areas, and the British colonial authority imposed many distinct policies and institutions. With the construction of commercial stations along the Niger River and the subsequent acquisition of areas, the British colonisation of Nigeria got underway in the late 19th century. Nigeria was formally declared a British protectorate in 1900, and the British colonial government seized power in the area.

Indirect rule, which sought to administer the nation via the already-existing traditional powers, was a hallmark of the colonial government in Nigeria. The British used local chiefs and rulers to communicate between the colonial government and the Nigerian populace. Different regions used different forms of indirect control, with some being directly governed by British officers. In Nigeria, the British put in place a hierarchical administrative system. The nation was split into regions, further subdivided into provinces, districts, and local entities. British officials were in charge of monitoring the governance and application of policies at every level of government. The colonial government significantly influenced Nigeria's political, economic, and social environment. Politically, the British brought a form of government that strongly emphasised control and centralisation. They retained their power by enacting laws and regulations that benefited British interests.

The British colonial government concentrated on using Nigeria's natural resources economically, notably its palm oil, rubber, and tin reserves. They established plantations and mines, which often resulted in the eviction of local populations and labour exploitation. The British colonial government established Western healthcare, infrastructure, and educational institutions. They built hospitals, schools, and transportation systems, all of which had beneficial and detrimental consequences on Nigerian society. On the one hand, these advancements helped modernise society and widen access to healthcare and education. Conversely, they also interfered with established social institutions and promoted cultural blending.

Nigeria saw the emergence of several groups and revolutions that opposed British colonial control. The Nigerian nationalist movement, which gained traction in the early 20th century and tried to oppose British authority and seek independence, was the most significant. Nigerians were propelled towards independence by leaders like Herbert Macaulay, Nnamdi

Azikiwe, and Obafemi Awolowo. On October 1, 1960, Nigeria finally won its independence from Britain, ending colonial rule. However, the effects of colonial authority are still felt today and continue to influence Nigeria's political, economic, and social dynamics.

10.6 Conclusion

The components of politics are complex and include a variety of facets. Power, authority, governance, decision-making, and the settlement of conflicts are all involved in these activities. It is essential for those who want to engage in the political process in any capacity—whether as voters, activists, or elected officials—to have a solid understanding of these components. We may better grasp how societies operate and how we might strive to make good changes by exploring the many components of politics and learning more about how we can effect change. In the end, the components of politics are necessary for constructing a fair, equal society that meets all its members' requirements.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

MCQ Questions:

1. Which of the following is not an element of politics?
a) Power b) Authority c) Justice d) Religion
2. Which element of politics refers to the ability to influence or control the behaviour of others?
a) Power b) Authority c) Legitimacy d) Sovereignty
3. Which element of politics refers to the right to exercise power?
a) Power b) Authority c) Legitimacy d) Sovereignty
4. Which element of politics refers to the belief that a government has the right to rule?
a) Power b) Authority c) Legitimacy d) Sovereignty
5. Which element of politics refers to the ability of a government to make and enforce laws within its territory?
a) Power b) Authority c) Legitimacy d) Sovereignty

Theory Questions

1. Explain the concept of power in politics.
2. Discuss the difference between power and authority in politics.
3. What is legitimacy in politics? How is it established?
4. Explain the concept of sovereignty in politics.
5. Discuss the role of justice in politics.

Case Study

Political Campaign Financing

a. Investigate a high-profile political campaign and examine the role of campaign financing. Assess the influence of financial contributions on the campaign's strategies, messaging, and ultimate success. Discuss the implications of extensive campaign financing on the democratic process.

Media Bias in Political Reporting

a. Examine a specific instance where media bias significantly shaped public opinion during a political event or campaign. Evaluate the consequences of media bias on public discourse and political outcomes. Discuss potential strategies to address this issue.

Power Dynamics in Legislative Decision-Making

a. Investigate a controversial legislative decision or policy change and analyse the power dynamics within the legislative body. Assess the role of various stakeholders in shaping the outcome, including legislators, interest groups, and party leadership. Discuss the implications for democratic governance.

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Recommendation for further reading

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CHAPTER ELEVEN

PSYCHOLOGY AND HUMAN ELEMENTS MANAGEMENT DURING EMERGENCIES AND GLOBAL CHALLENGES

11.1 Learning Objectives

Students should be able to:

- i. define the concept of attitude;
- ii. explain the component of attitude;
- iii. describe the process of attitude change;
- iv. explain the application of psychological principles to people management in crises such as War, Flooding, health and natural disasters.

11.2 Introduction

One of the most defining characteristics that sets individuals apart from one another and enable them to be distinctive in their manner is attitude. Each individual may have a variety of conflicting attitudes, each of which may reveal something different about how that person behaved at a certain moment. Evaluative positive or negative remarks about things, people, or events are called attitudes. They are a reflection of our feelings. Saying "I like my job" is one way I may describe how I feel about my employment. If nothing is done to modify views, they will endure, claims Aliyu (2020). They may occur anywhere on a continuum ranging from very good to unfavourable. Regarding an item, a person's attitudes are determined by their emotions (affect) and beliefs. The workers' attitudes and behaviours are crucial to the growth process. Employees that can favourably respond to the organisation's strong performance are necessary in a competitive environment. A person's attitude is a potent instrument that influences their actions. Managers might try to forecast employee conduct by using information about employee attitudes.

11.3 Concept of Attitude

When it comes to a certain item, person, group, or circumstance, an individual's behaviours, thoughts, and emotions are influenced by their attitude. According to Aliyu and Isiaka (2019), attitudes are evaluative and may be either good, negative, or neutral. For instance, social factors, cognitive processes, and personal experiences all contribute to the formation of attitudes. They could be influenced by our values, beliefs, feelings, and experiences from the

past (Robbins & Judge, 2009). In addition to acting as a framework for comprehending and interpreting the environment, attitudes also direct action and satiate psychological needs (Robbins & Judge, 2009). Although they are not fixed, attitudes may be rather consistent throughout time. They are susceptible to numerous processes that might lead to change, including persuasion, social influence, cognitive dissonance, and firsthand knowledge. Strength, accessibility, and context dependency all differ across attitudes. Understanding attitudes is crucial in disciplines like psychology, marketing, sociology, and communication since they considerably impact how people behave and make decisions.

11.4 Components of Attitude

Typically, attitudes have three (3) components (Robbins & Judge, 2013); cognition, affect and behaviour.

- a) **Cognitive Component:** A person's views, thoughts, and understanding concerning the subject of their attitude are referred to as their cognitive component. For instance, if a person has a pro-environmental conservation attitude, their cognitive component could also have views about protecting natural resources.
- b) **Affective Component:** This part of attitudes deals with their emotional or subjective nature. It displays the person's affective or emotional response to the subject of their attitude. Using the same example, a person who has a pro-environmental outlook may feel happiness, worry, or pleasure while partaking in activities that aid conservation efforts.
- c) **Behavioural Component:** This part focuses on how the person behaves or intends to behave towards the subject of their attitude. Their attitude shows the person's propensity to act or behave in a certain manner. Someone with a positive outlook may actively engage in recycling programmes, cut down on their energy use, or support ecologically beneficial regulations in the case of environmental conservation.

"My pay is low" expresses the cognitive aspect of an attitude, which is a description or conviction about the way things are. It prepares the ground for an attitude's emotive component, which is more important. The phrase "I am angry over how little I am paid" reflects affect, which is an attitude's emotional or feeling component. Lastly, may result in a change in behaviours. Continuing with the previous example, the behavioural component of an attitude refers to the desire to act in a certain manner towards someone or something. For instance, "I am going to look for another job that pays better."

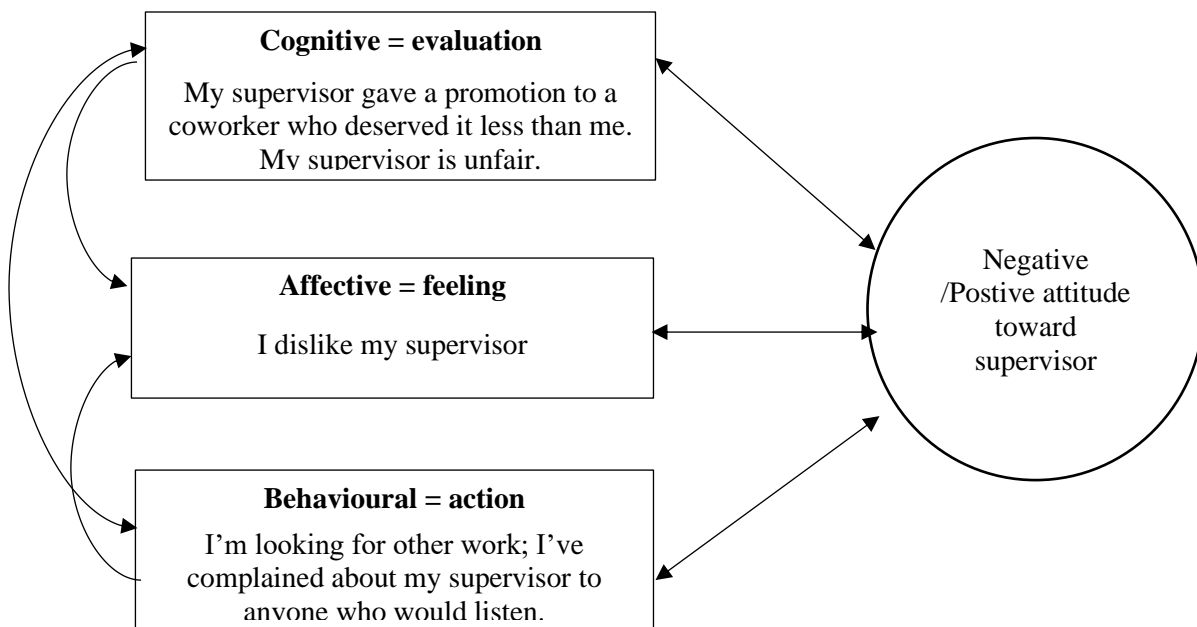


Fig. 11.1: Components of Attitude

Source: Adapted from Robbins and Judge (2013). Organisational Behaviour.

The relationship between the three elements of an attitude is shown in Figure 11.1. In one instance, a worker didn't get a promotion that he believed he deserved; a coworker did. The employee's attitude towards his boss is shown by the fact that he feels he deserves the promotion (cognition), despises him much (affect), and is actively seeking employment elsewhere (behaviour). Although we often assume that cognition creates the impact that affects conduct, as we've observed, these elements are sometimes difficult to disentangle.

According to Schultz et al. (2003), there are reasons why managers should be concerned with employee attitude. Employee attitudes are crucial because they may impact productivity, satisfaction, and job outcomes, including performance, turnover, and absenteeism. Numerous crucial elements of organisational behaviour, such as job performance, are correlated with employee attitudes. Nevertheless, Aliyu et al.'s (2020) study shows that employee attitude still receives little academic attention. However, positive attitudes should develop when employees are satisfied with their jobs and have access to opportunities for advancement and recognition (DuBrin, 2005).

11.5 Functions of Attitudes

Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) cited in Isiaka et al. (2016) distinguished that attitude serves four (4) important functions:

- i. **Adjustment Function:** Attitude often aids individuals in adjusting to their workplace. When treated properly, workers are more likely to have a favourable opinion of management and the business. Additionally, when workers are reprimanded and get meagre pay raises, they are more prone to have ill feelings towards management and the company. Employees may use this mindset as a springboard for future actions and adapting to their surroundings.
- ii. **The Ego Defence Function:** Attitude aids individuals in defending their self-image; for instance, an older boss whose decisions are consistently overruled by younger junior managers may believe that the latter are inexperienced and immature. The elder boss won't accept mistakes and will instead attempt to preserve their ego by blaming the third person, despite the fact that the younger subordinate may be correct in their challenge of choice.
- iii. **Value Expression Function:** an attitude that gives individuals a foundation to communicate their values. For instance, a manager who passionately supports the concept of work ethics may often express this belief in their approach towards certain employees and work practises.
- iv. **The knowledge function:** Attitudes support norms and frames of preferences that enable individuals to arrange and understand their environment. For instance, a union organiser can have a bad opinion of management. Although facts may not support this attitude, it does enable the person to connect to management.

11.5 Process of Attitude Change

Sometimes, attitude change is difficult to accomplish because of certain barriers. The barriers are two (2) in number that prevent employees from changing their attitude, as observed by (Anyim et al., 2018);

1. **Prior Commitment** occurs when employees feel committed to a particular course of action and are unwilling to change.
2. **Insufficient information:** sometimes, employees do not see any reason to change their attitude because they don't have the available information to change them.

The ways or means of changing attitudes are as follows (Aliyu, 2020);

- i. **Providing new information:** sometimes, this information will change a person's belief and, in the process, their attitude.
- ii. **Use of fear:** some researchers affirmed that fear could cause some employees to change their attitude. However, the degree of fear seems to be important to the final outcomes. The degree of fear is as follows; (a) low level degree (b) moderate level degree, and (c) high level degree. Gunu (2015) observed that from the 3 levels of fear mentioned, the only level that could change attitude is "moderate level"
- iii. **Resolving the discrepancy:** attitude can be changed by resolving the discrepancy between attitude and behaviour. For instance, research has shown that, when job applicants have more than one letter of employment, and the applicants are forced to make a choice, they often feel that their final choice may have been mistaken. The cognitive dissonance theory says that employees/people will actively try to reduce dissonance by attitude and behaviour change. Thus, when employees/people take new jobs and begin working, they also start to have negative feelings toward the firm that was not chosen and positive feelings toward the chosen company.
- iv. **Influence of friends or peers:** persuasion is another way to change attitude. It is important to remember that when a matter is of personal interest of people, they are likely to reject extreme discrepancies between their current behaviour and that of others.
- v. **The co-opting approach:** the last way in which attitude change takes place is by co-opting, which means taking employees who are satisfied with the situation and getting them involved in improving things.

11.6 Theories of attitude and attitude change

Attitude change theories aim to explain how and why attitudes are formed, maintained, and altered. The following are the prominent theories of attitude and attitude change:

11.6.1 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

According to this hypothesis, put out by Leon Festinger, people have an inbuilt need to keep their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviour in line. People feel cognitive dissonance, an uncomfortable psychological condition when there is a contradiction or disagreement between these factors. People may adjust their attitudes to match their actions to lessen this dissonance or look for evidence confirming their preexisting views.

11.6.2 Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

The ELM, created by Richard E. Petty and John Cacioppo, describes how attitudes may change depending on how much detail or examination people give to persuasive arguments. The centre and peripheral routes are two ways the ELM claims attitudes may be altered. The peripheral route depends on surface-level indicators like the source's attractiveness or reliability, while the core route methodically assesses the arguments and evidence offered in the message. The path taken is determined by the person's drive and capacity for information processing.

11.6.3 Cognitive Social Theory

Albert Bandura's theory underlines the importance of social impact and observational learning in creating and modifying attitudes. According to social cognitive theory, people pick up attitudes by watching other people and the outcomes they encounter. When people are exposed to compelling messages that contradict or challenge their preexisting beliefs, attitudes start to change. The theory also underlines the significance of self-efficacy, or a person's confidence to exhibit the necessary behaviours linked with a certain attitude.

11.6.4 Theory of Planned Behaviour

According to Icek Ajzen's theory, attitudes are controlled by three key variables: perceived behavioural control, subjective norms, and attitudes. A person's attitudes are their favourable or negative assessments of an activity. The social pressure and perceived expectations of others about the conduct are reflected in subjective norms. An individual's perception of their capacity to carry out the conduct is referred to as perceived behavioural control. This theory contends that changing these three variables may alter attitudes, which can affect behavioural intentions and subsequent conduct.

These ideas provide light on the mechanisms and elements influencing the development and modification of attitudes. It's crucial to remember that attitude change may be complicated and impacted by various personal and environmental circumstances and that several theories may be appropriate in particular situations.

11.7 Application of psychological principles to people management in crises such as War, Flooding, health and natural disasters

Applying psychological principles to people management in crises such as war, flooding, health crises, and natural disasters is crucial for effectively addressing the psychological and

emotional needs of individuals affected. The following are some of the key principles and strategies that can be employed:

- i. **Psychological First Aid:** When someone is experiencing a crisis, psychological first aid is offering them quick, helpful, and empathetic care. It involves guaranteeing safety, meeting basic needs, offering emotional support, and putting them in touch with the right services.
- ii. **Trauma-Informed Care:** It's crucial to recognise the effects of trauma and use a trauma-informed strategy. This method acknowledges the possible psychological, emotional, and behavioural effects of going through a crisis. In interpersonal relationships, it highlights security, trust, freedom of choice, cooperation, and empowerment.
- iii. **Information Dissemination and Communication:** In times of crisis, rapid, accurate, and clear communication is essential. It aids in lowering tension, ambiguity, and bewilderment. By providing trustworthy information about the circumstance, accessible options, and support services, people might feel more empowered and in charge of their lives.
- iv. **Emotional Support and Empathy:** Setting a supportive tone by exhibiting empathy, active listening, and understanding. Individuals' emotional experiences may be validated and acknowledged, which helps ease their discomfort and promote resilience.
- v. **Community and Social Support:** Promoting social ties and community support is crucial for those who are going through a crisis. A feeling of belonging may be fostered and rehabilitation aided by encouraging social cohesiveness, establishing peer support groups, and planning community-based activities.
- vi. **Stress and Coping Mechanisms:** People may better control their emotions and build resilience by learning about stress responses and receiving coping mechanisms. Deep breathing, awareness, relaxation techniques, and participating in worthwhile activities are all effective methods.
- vii. **Psychological Assessment and Treatment:** It is crucial to identify those who may need further help. Screening methods may aid in identifying persons suffering from severe psychological discomfort. Mental health practitioners may provide counselling, psychoeducation, and evidence-based therapies to treat psychological issues.
- viii. **Resilience-Building:** Crisis management requires the promotion of resilience. boosting adaptive coping mechanisms, elevating self-efficacy, presenting chances for

people to showcase their talents, and boosting problem-solving abilities are all components of building resilience.

- ix. **Addressing Long-Term Needs for Mental Health:** It is vital to understand that the psychological effects of crises may last long after they have passed. Creating long-term support programmes, securing accessibility to mental health care, and fostering continuing social and community support are crucial.

It is significant to stress that cooperation between stakeholders in the community, humanitarian groups, and mental health specialists should be included in implementing these ideas and tactics. Cultural sensitivity and diversity awareness should also be considered when implementing these concepts to various groups impacted by crises.

11.8 Conclusion

Management is essential in psychology and human factors in times of crisis and when the world faces problems. In order to provide appropriate assistance and remedies, it is crucial to comprehend the psychological effects of catastrophes on people and communities. Effective human components management ensures a company can adapt to changing conditions and react to crises and global issues. The COVID-19 pandemic has emphasised the significance of these elements and shown the need for a coordinated and collaborative approach to responding to global concerns. By stressing psychology and human aspects of management, we may better prepare for and react to catastrophes and global issues. We can also encourage resilience and well-being in people and communities.

Illustrative and Practice Questions (Both MCQ & Theory)

1. Which of the following best defines employee attitude?
 - a) The skills and knowledge possessed by an employee
 - b) The emotional state of an employee at work
 - c) The physical abilities of an employee
 - d) The job title and responsibilities of an employee

2. Which of the following is NOT an example of a positive employee attitude?
 - a) Being enthusiastic and motivated about work
 - b) Displaying a willingness to learn and adapt

- c) Engaging in workplace gossip and rumours
 - d) Demonstrating a sense of teamwork and collaboration
3. True or False: Employee attitude can significantly impact job satisfaction and performance.
 4. Which of the following factors can influence employee attitude?
 - a) Leadership style and organisational culture
 - b) Employee's educational background
 - c) Physical work environment only
 - d) Job title and salary
 5. Which of the following is an example of a negative employee attitude?
 - a) Taking initiative and being proactive
 - b) Demonstrating a sense of entitlement and complacency
 - c) Respecting co-workers and valuing diversity
 - d) Seeking continuous professional development

Theory-Based Questions:

1. Define employee attitude and explain its importance in the workplace.
2. Discuss the factors that can influence employee attitude and provide examples for each.
3. How can a positive employee attitude contribute to individual and organisational success?
4. Describe strategies that organisations can implement to foster a positive employee attitude.
5. Explain the potential consequences of negative employee attitudes on team dynamics and overall productivity.

Case Study: Employee Attitude Toward Work

CIPM Corporation is a multinational company operating in the technology sector. The company has recently been experiencing a decline in employee productivity and overall satisfaction. As part of a strategic initiative, the Human Resources department has decided to conduct a case study to examine the factors influencing employee attitudes toward work. The

study aims to identify potential issues affecting employee motivation and job satisfaction and propose effective solutions to address these challenges.

Question: As a member of the HR team responsible for conducting the case study, outline the key steps you would take to examine employee attitude toward work and propose solutions to improve motivation and job satisfaction within XYZ Corporation. Provide a detailed plan with relevant considerations.

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