

A SOCIAL SYSTEMS ANALYSIS OF THE PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT HYPOTHESIS

Adeleye O. J.

*Department of Educational Management,
University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria
adeleyewunmi@gmail.com*

Abstract

At the core of most organizational theories is the hypothesis that “normally the worker and the organization appear to be constantly at war”. This paper examined the pertinence and the veracity of this hypothesis using the social systems analysis popularly referred to as the theory of human behaviour in organizations developed by Jacob Gentzel’s and Egon Guba in 1957. The paper showed an understanding and appreciation of the critical question of fitness which poses, in many ways, one of the critical dilemmas of administration. It is not enough to know only the nature of the roles and of the expectations but it is also important to know the nature of the individuals inhabiting the roles and reacting to the expectations as well. While human needs may be described as great, the expectations of the organization can be perceived to be too much. There appears to always be a problem with the organization roles and expectation on the one hand and the satisfaction of personal needs on the other hand. Theoretically, the individual and the organization (Church, workplace, family) can be perceived to be “constantly at an endless war” due to roles and personality. It is obvious there are some needs you must suppress to satisfy the expectation or job demand. Thus, a worker either “kills” his personal needs to meet public expectation or completely forgo his job in order to satisfy his needs disposition. The paper posits that effective manager must ensure a balance between the organization and the worker to avoid tension such that the organization would not “kill” the worker and the worker will also not “exploit” the organization. The tenets of social behaviour requires that a person does things in the right, good and positive way always.

Key words: Social Systems, Personnel Management, Hypothesis, Organization.

Introduction

Contemporary theories of management tend to account for and help interpret the rapidly changing nature of today's organizational environments. Managing human complexity at the work place in an attempt to get the best out of the workers is a major challenge that management has faced from time immemorial. However, the understanding of management theories has provided the framework for better relationship in management of organizations or institutions. According to Reddin (1970) cited in Nwankwo (2014), nothing is more practical than a good theory properly applied since it acts like a formula which can be applied to solve any problem between management and staff of an organization. Management is confronted with the challenge of managing problems that keep emerging all the time in the course of an organization struggling to achieve its goals and objectives. These problems cannot be solved unless they are properly identified; analyzed and appropriate managerial remedies or strategies are implemented. These strategies are presented in management theories to help organizations minimize its conflict while maximizing its benefits, goals and objectives through trained managers. Thus, theory is a systematic and deductive way of reasoning and thinking about reality in order to describe and understand such reality (Nwankwo, 2014).

Theory helps to identify the facts, models, or laws about a phenomenon. In an attempt to represent reality adequately, theory helps to create the conditions, circumstances or principles under which a phenomenon occurs by deducing from observation. Theory looks at tiny details or issues about knowledge, facts, laws or models in order to make some kind of sense out of their occurrence. Thus, theory is an attempt to provide credible answers to some questions of philosophy in relation to essence, reality, truth, logic which form the basis for observable generalizations. Many people did not understand or regard the use of theory in management as important, they seem to believe that it may be alright in theory but won't work in practice. Thus, assuming the position of the self-styled practical managers that theory and practice were not compatible. However, Caldarci and Getzels (1975) warn on the contrary that: *"Theorizing is not the exclusive*

property of the laboratory or ivory tower. Everyone who makes choices and judgments implies a theory in the sense that there are reasons for his actions”.

Why the Worker and the Organization appear to be constantly at “war”

Deriving from the above, in discussing the veracity of the hypothesis that at the core of most organizational theory is the fact that the worker and the organization are constantly at war, it is pertinent to examine the social systems analysis popularly referred to as the theory of human behavior in organizations developed by Jacob Getzels and Egon Guba in 1957. These social systems theorists view administration and supervision as a social process that occurs within a social system. This is with a view to describing a socio-psychological theory of social behavior as having broad application to the area of administration and to illustrate the application of the theory to major issues in administration. These shall be considered under four major issues as follows:

- a) the problem of institutional and individual conflict;
- b) the problem of staff effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction;
- c) the nature of various leadership-followership styles; and
- d) the problem of morale.

The Problem of Institutional and Individual Conflict

The process of administration deals essentially with the conduct of social behavior in a hierarchical setting. Structurally, administration may be conceived as a series of superordinate -subordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles, personnel, and facilities to achieve the goals of the system. The term "social system" here is conceptual rather than descriptive; it must not be confused with "society" or "state" or as somehow applicable only to large aggregates of human interaction. Thus, within this framework, a given community may be considered a social system, with the school a particular organization within the more general social system; for another purpose the school itself, or even a single class within the school, may be considered a social system in its own right. The theoretical model proposed is applicable regardless of the level or the

size of the unit under consideration. Hence, the social system is conceived as involving two major classes of phenomena, which are at once conceptually independent and phenomenally interactive. There are, first, the institutions with certain roles and expectations that will fulfill the goals of the system. Second, inhabiting the system there are the individuals with certain personalities and need-dispositions, whose interactions comprise what generally is called "social behavior." Social behaviour may be apprehended as a function of the following major elements:

- a. institution, role, and expectation, which together constitute the nomothetic, or normative, dimension of activity in a social system; and
- b. individual, personality, and need-disposition, which together constitute the idiographic, or personal, dimension of activity in a social system.

To understand the nature of the observed behavior and to be able to predict and control it, there is the need to understand the nature and relationships of those elements. The term "institution" has received a variety of definitions, but for our purposes it is sufficient to point out that all social systems have certain imperative functions that come in time to be carried out in certain routine patterns. These functions such as governing, educating, policing, for example, may be said to have become "institutionalized," and the agencies established to carry out these institutionalized functions for the social system as a whole may be termed "institutions." These institutions have certain noteworthy characteristics.

- a. Institutions are purposive: they are established to carry out certain ends, and these ends serve as the criteria against which institutional practices are ultimately evaluated.
- b. Institutions are peopled: if institutions are to carry out their prescribed goals, human agents are required i.e. "actors".
- c. Institutions are structural: to carry out a specific purpose requires an organization, and organization implies component parts and some rules about how these parts should be interrelated.
- b. Institutions are normative: the fact that tasks for achieving the institutional goals are organized into roles implies that the roles

serve as "norms" for the behavior of the role incumbents or actors. The role expectations are obligatory upon the actor if he is to retain his legitimate place in the institution.

- c. Institutions are sanction-bearing: the existence of norms is of no consequence unless there is adherence to them. Accordingly, institutions must have at their disposal appropriate positive and negative sanctions for insuring compliance with the norms, at least within broad limits.

The most important subunit of the institution is the role. If the goals and purposes of the institution are known, the tasks to achieve the goals may be specified, and these may be organized into roles. Each role is assigned certain responsibilities and concomitant resources, including authority and facilities for implementing the given tasks. Most times, the organization of roles is most frequently set up before the selection of any real incumbents for the roles; i.e. people who will fill such roles. The danger here is that the real person may or may not exactly fit the given roles. This has given rise to the critical question of fitness which poses, in many ways, one of the critical dilemmas of administration.

An Analysis of the Institutional Dimension into the Component Elements of Role and Expectation

Roles are the structural elements defining the behavior of the role incumbents or actors. The following generalizations may be made about the nature of roles. Roles represent positions, offices, or statuses within the institution. The role itself may be described, in the words of Linton, as the "dynamic aspect" of such positions, offices, or statuses. Roles are defined in terms of role expectations. A role has certain normative rights and duties, which may be termed "role expectations." When the role incumbent puts these rights and duties into effect, he is said to be performing his role. The expectations define for the actor, whoever he may be, what he should do under various circumstances as long as he is the incumbent of the particular role. Roles are institutional givens. Since the role expectations may be formulated without reference to the particular individuals who will serve as the role incumbents, it is clear that the prescriptions do not depend on individual perception or even on typical behavior. Although the

expectations may be misperceived or even serve as points of departure for the actual role incumbents, their crucial significance as blueprints for what should be done is not thereby nullified. The behaviors associated with a role may be thought of as lying along a continuum from "required" to "prohibited."

Certain expectations are held to be crucial to the role, and the appropriate behaviors are absolutely required of the incumbent. Other behaviors are absolutely forbidden. Between these extremes lie certain other behaviors, some of which would be recommended and others perhaps mildly disapproved, but all of which would be considered permissible, at least in the ordinary case. It is this flexible feature of roles that makes it possible for role incumbents with different personalities to fulfill the same role and give it the stamp of their individual styles of behavior. Roles are complementary. Roles are interdependent in that each role derives its meaning from other related roles in the institution. In a sense, a role is not only a prescription for the role incumbent but also for incumbents of other roles within the organization, so that in a hierarchical setting the expectations for one role may, to some extent, form the sanctions for a second interlocking role. For example, the role of the school administrator and that of the teacher cannot really be defined or implemented except in relation to each other. This quality of complementariness fuses two or more roles into a coherent, interactive unit and makes it possible for to conceive of an institution as having a characteristic structure. Thus, it is sufficient to conceive of the role incumbents as only "actors," devoid of personal or other individualizing characteristics, as if all incumbents of the same role were exactly alike and implemented the given role in exactly the same way. But roles are filled by real, flesh-and-blood persons, and no two persons are exactly alike. An individual stamps the particular role he fills with the unique style of his own characteristic pattern of expressive behavior. Even in the case of the relatively inflexible roles of the principal and teacher, no two individuals can fulfill their roles in exactly the same way.

To understand the observed behavior of a school administrator and a teacher, it is not enough to know only the nature of the roles and of the expectations (although their behavior cannot be understood apart from these), but it is also important to know the nature of the individuals inhabiting the roles and reacting to the expectations as well.

That is, in addition to the nomothetic, or normative, aspects, we must also consider the idiographic, or individualizing, aspects of social behavior. Now, just as we were able to analyze the institutional dimension into the component elements of role and expectation, so we may analyze the individual dimension into the component elements of personality and need-disposition.

An Analyses of the Individual Dimension into the Component Elements of Personality and Need-disposition

The term "personality," like that of "institution," has been given a variety of meanings. For our purposes, "personality" may be defined as the dynamic organization within the individual of those need-dispositions that govern his unique reactions to the environment. The central analytic elements of personality are the need-dispositions which may be defined as individual "tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners and to expect certain consequences from these actions". Succinctly, "the conjoined word 'need-disposition' itself has a double connotation; on the one hand, it refers to a tendency to accomplish some end state; on the other, it refers to a disposition to do something with an object designed to accomplish the end state". Using the example of the principal and teacher, it is pertinent to make an essential distinction between the behavior of two individuals with a need-disposition for "submission" in the roles of the principal and the teacher and the behavior of two individuals with a need-disposition for "ascendance" in the same roles. In short, to understand the behavior of specific role incumbents in an institution, we must know both the role expectations and the need-dispositions. Indeed, needs and expectations may both be thought of as motives for behavior, the one deriving from personal propensities, the other from institutional requirements. What we call social behaviour may be conceived as ultimately deriving from the interaction between the two sets of motives. The general model is represented pictorially as indicated in Figure 1.

Nomothetic and Idiographic Dimensions of Social Behaviour

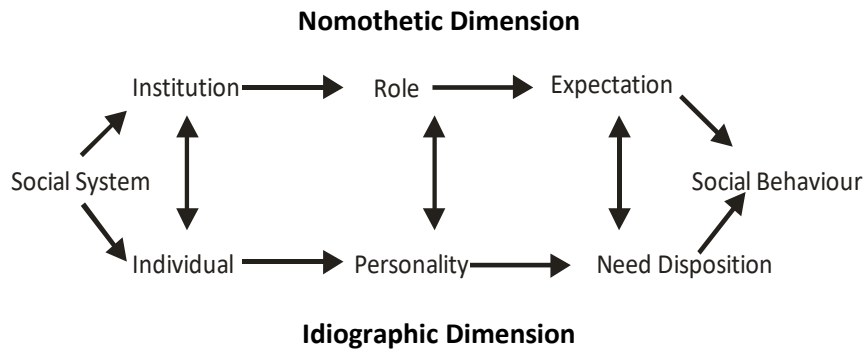


Fig. 1: General model showing the Nomothetic and the Idiographic dimensions of Social Behaviour.

Source: Nwankwo (2014; p. 41) used with permission.

The nomothetic axis is shown at the top of the diagram and consists of institution, role, and role expectations, each term being the analytic unit for the term next preceding it. Thus the social system is defined by its institutions; each institution, by its constituent roles; each role, by the expectations attaching to it. Similarly, the idiographic axis, shown at the lower portion of the diagram, consists of individual, personality, and need-dispositions, each term again serving as the analytic unit for the term next preceding it. A given act is conceived as deriving simultaneously from both the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions. That is to say, social behavior results as the individual attempts to cope with an environment composed of patterns of expectations for his behavior in ways consistent with his own independent pattern of needs. Thus we may write the general equation: $Y = f(A \times B)$, where:

Y = observed behavior;

A = institutional role defined by the expectations attaching to it, and

B = personality of the particular role incumbent defined by its need-dispositions.

The Interaction of Role and Personality in a Behavioral Act

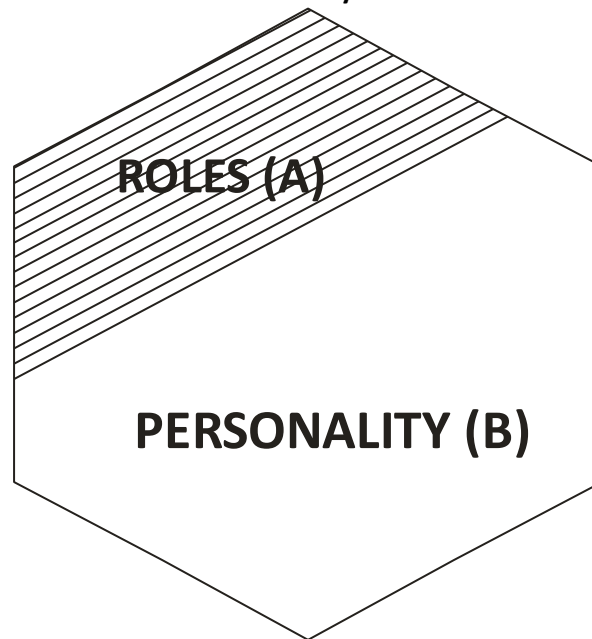


Fig. 2: The interaction of role and personality in a behavioral act
($Y = f [A \times B]$)

Source: Author

The portions of role and personality factors determining behaviour vary with the specific act, the specific role, and the specific personality involved. The nature of the interaction can be understood from another graphic representation shown as Figure 2. The factors entering into a given behavioral act may be conceived as occurring at a line cutting through the role and personality possibilities represented by the rectangle. At the left, the proportion of the act dictated by considerations of role expectations is relatively large, while the proportion of the act dictated by considerations of personality is relatively small. At the right, these proportions are reversed, and considerations of personality become greater than considerations of role expectations.

In these terms, for example, the behavior of our army private may be said to conform almost entirely to role demands (Line A), while the behavior of a free-lance artist derives almost entirely from personality dispositions (Line B). In either case, behavior, insofar as it is "social," remains a function of both role and personality although in different degrees. When role is maximized, behavior still retains some personal aspects because no role is ever so closely defined as to eliminate all individual latitude. When personality is maximized, social behavior still cannot be free from some role prescription. The individual who divorces himself entirely from such prescription ceases to communicate with his fellows and is said to be autistic.

The relevance of this general model for administrative theory and practice becomes apparent when it is seen that the administrative process inevitably deals with the fulfillment of both nomothetic role expectations and idiographic need-dispositions while the goals of a particular social system are being achieved. The unique task of administration, at least with respect to staff relations, is just this: to integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling.

Clarification of Issues

On the basis of the framework outlined above, there is the need for a reformulation of certain recurring administrative problems and clarification of the issues. Individual and institutional conflict: when an individual performs up to role expectations, we may say that he is adjusted to the role. Conversely, when an individual fulfils all his needs, we may speak of him as integrated. Ideally, the individual should be both adjusted and integrated, so that he may by one act fulfill both the nomothetic, or institutional, requirements and the idiographic, or personal, requirements. This would obviously be the case if institutional expectations and personal needs were absolutely congruent, for the individual would always will what was mandatory, and both his adjustment and his integration would be maximized. But absolute congruence of expectations and needs is seldom, if ever, found in practice, and as a consequence there is inevitably a greater or lesser amount of strain or conflict for the individual and the institution. In the present context this strain or conflict may be defined simply as the

"mutual interference of adjustive and integrative reactions." The model points to three primary sources of conflict in the administrative setting.

a) Role personality conflicts occur as a function of discrepancies between the pattern of expectations attaching to a given role and the pattern of need-dispositions characteristic of the incumbent of the role. Recall again our example of the individual with high need-dispositions for "ascendance" who is placed in the role of private. There is mutual interference between nomothetic expectations and idiographic dispositions, and the individual must choose whether he will fulfill individual needs or institutional requirements. If he chooses the latter, he is liable to unsatisfactory personal integration. If he chooses the former, he is liable to unsatisfactory role adjustment. In practice there is usually compromise, but, in any event, the nature of the forthcoming behavior is quite different when the expectations and the dispositions are discrepant than when they are congruent.

b) Role conflicts occur whenever a role incumbent is required to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusive, contradictory, or inconsistent, so that adjustment to one set of requirements makes adjustment to the other impossible or at least difficult. Role conflicts in this sense are situational givens and are independent of the personality of the role incumbent. They are evidence of disorganization in the nomothetic dimension and may arise in several ways:

- i. Disagreement within the referent group defining the role. For example, the principal of the school may be expected by some teachers to visit them regularly for constructive help and by others to trust them as professional personnel not in need of such super-vision.
- ii. Disagreement among several referent groups, each having a right to define expectations for the same role. For example, the university faculty member may be expected by his department head to emphasize teaching and service to students but by his academic dean to emphasize research and publication.
- iii. Contradiction in the expectations of two or more roles which an individual is occupying at the same time. For example, a teacher may be attempting to be both a devoted mother and a successful career woman.

c) Personality conflicts occur as a function of opposing needs and dispositions within the personality of the role incumbent. The effect of such personal disequilibrium is to keep the individual at odds with the institution either because he cannot maintain a stable relation with a given role or because, in terms of his autistic reactions, he habitually misperceives the expectations placed upon him. In any case, just as role conflict is a situational given, personality conflict is an individual given and is independent of any particular institutional setting. No matter what the situation, the role is, in a sense, detached by the individual from its institutional context and function and is used by him to work out personal and private needs and dispositions, however inappropriate these may be to the goals of the social system as a whole.

In figure 3, three types of conflict become unsuitable in the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions, or in the interaction between the two dimensions of the social system under study. Such incongruence is conceived as symptomatic of administrative failure and leads to loss in individual and institutional productivity.

Relation of Role Expectations and Personality Needs to Efficient, Effective, and Satisfying Behaviour

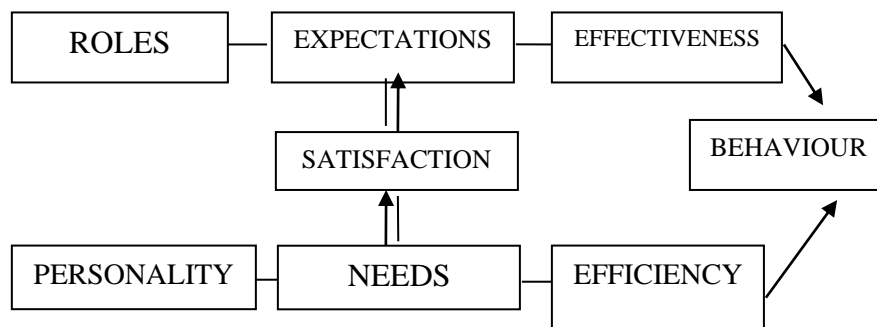


Fig. 3. Relation of Role Expectations and Personality Needs to Efficient, Effective, and Satisfying Behaviour.

Source: Author

2. Effectiveness, Efficiency, and Satisfaction

A primary concern in any organization is the effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction of the staff (the role incumbents). The administrative problems concerned with effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction have been confused for want of an appropriate frame of reference. The terms have often been used interchangeably, and the significant issues and fruitful distinctions that the concepts imply are obscured altogether. The model we are using makes possible clear-cut and heuristic distinctions between the terms so that a given role incumbent may, for example, be seen as effective without being efficient, and efficient without being effective, and satisfied without being either effective or efficient. We may recall our basic formulation of behavior in the administrative situation as a function of role expectations and personality dispositions. Effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction may be seen as relationships among these primary elements of the model. The relationships are shown in figure 3.

a) The criterion for effectiveness is typically the observed behavior of the individual being rated. However, Getzels and Guba argued that the standard cannot be the behavior itself but the behavior relative to some expectation held by the rater for the behavior. Two crucial consequences follow from this. The first is that the same behavior may be labeled "effective" at one time and "ineffective" at another time by the same person, depending on the expectations he applies to the behavior. The second is that the same behavior may be labeled "effective" and "ineffective" simultaneously as a result of different expectations held by different referent groups. In either case, judgments of effectiveness and ineffectiveness are incapable of interpretation unless both the expectations being applied and the behavior being observed are known. In the terms of our model, effectiveness is a function of the congruence of behavior with expectations, and it must be assessed as such.

b) Efficiency is a relationship between needs and behavior. To the extent that needs and expectations are discrepant, behavior may conform to one or the other or, what is more likely, to some compromise between the two. When behavior conforms to the needs dimension, it appears "natural," even pleasurable, and is forthcoming

with a minimum of strain or expenditure of psychic energy. In this sense, the behavior is efficient. When the behavior conforms to the expectations dimension and there is a gap between expectation and needs, behavior is "unnatural," even painful, and is forthcoming with a maximum of strain and expenditure of psychic energy. In this sense, the behavior is inefficient. In the terms of our model, we may say efficiency is a function of the congruence of behavior with need-dispositions.

c) When we consider satisfaction, we recognize that the administrator is faced with the dilemma of behaving in such a way as to produce maximal effectiveness or to produce maximal efficiency in the role incumbent. Usually he tries to maintain an appropriate balance between the alternatives. His dilemma would be resolved if the needs and the expectations could be made to coincide (selection and in-service training procedures are often directed toward just this goal). In that case, the behavior of the role incumbent would simultaneously meet situational expectations and personal needs. The relation of the individual to the organization would be ideal and presumably would produce maximum satisfaction for all concerned. In the terms of our model, satisfaction is a function of the congruence of institutional expectations with individual need-dispositions. It should be apparent that, when expectations and needs are not congruent, satisfaction is reduced below the theoretical maximum.

The term "satisfaction," as it is used here, is more or less synonymous with "contentment" and should not be taken to include such additional concepts as fundamental agreement with institutional objectives or the feeling that the institutional environment lives up to the incumbent's standards of technical or professional adequacy. These concepts involve certain additional factors, as, for example, the level of aspiration of the incumbent, which are too complex to be handled here. The individual may choose to maximize his effectiveness or to maximize his efficiency without necessarily being satisfied. We may summarize by suggesting that effectiveness is situational in origin and point of assessment, that efficiency is personal in origin and point of assessment, and that satisfaction is a function of the relationship between situation and person, the three concepts being entirely independent of one another in the present analysis.

3. Leadership-followership Styles

To lead is to engage in an act which initiates a structure in interaction with others, and that "to follow" is to engage in an act which maintains a structure initiated by another. The terms "leader" or "super-ordinate" and "follower" or "subordinate" in this usage are only relative; for the follower is not altogether passive in the relationship, and the leader is by no means always dominant. The nature of the relationship depends on the operating leadership-followership styles in the particular social system. In terms of the model above, the paper identified three distinct leadership-followership styles: the nomothetic, the idiographic, and the transactional. These styles are represented pictorially in Figure 4.

Three Leadership-Followership Styles

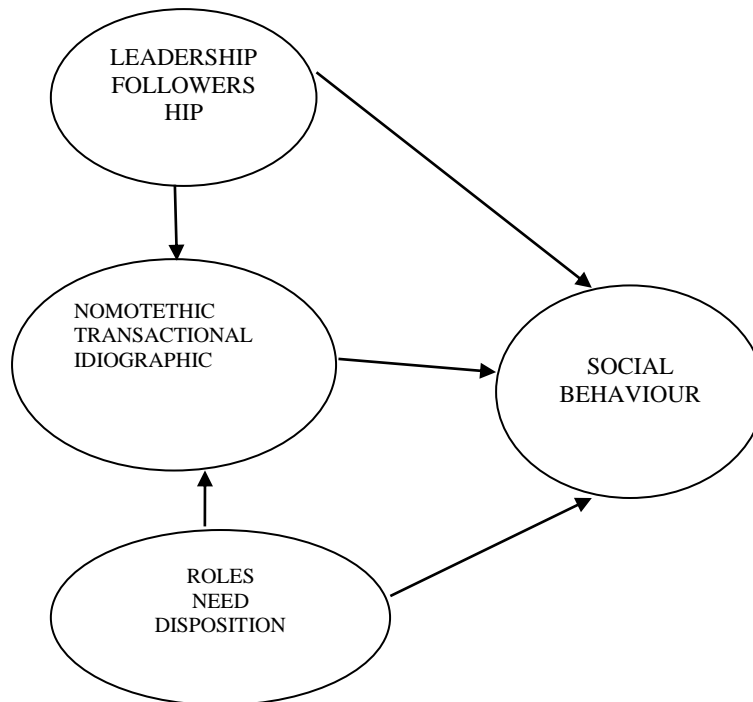


Fig. 4. Three Leadership-Followership Styles.

Source: Author

The model in Figure 4 shows both the leader and the follower are goal-oriented, and their behavior is directed toward achieving a common institutional purpose. The three styles of leadership-followership are three modes of achieving the same goal; they are not different images of the goal. It is important to examine the variations in the three leadership-followership styles with respect to several major elements of our model: the proportion of role and personality factors in the behavior; the nature of the predominant conflicts recognized and handled; and the relative weight given to effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction.

a) The nomothetic style emphasizes the nomothetic dimension of behavior and accordingly places emphasis on the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectation rather than on the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need-disposition. In the equation $Y = f(AXB)$, B is minimized, A is maximized. It is assumed that, given the institutional purpose, appropriate procedures can be discovered, perhaps through time and motion. These procedures are then incorporated in the role expectations, and every role incumbent is required to adhere, in minute detail, to the expectations. It then follows that, if roles are clearly defined and everyone is held responsible for doing what he is supposed to do, the desired outcomes would naturally ensue regardless of who the particular role incumbents might be, provided only that they have the necessary technical competence. In short, with the nomothetic style of leadership-followership, the most expeditious route to the goal is seen as residing in the nature of the institutional structure rather than in any particular persons. The obligation of the follower is to do things "by the book"; the obligation of the leader is to "write the book." The predominant conflict that is likely to be recognized is role conflict, since this is immediately related to the institution-role-expectation dimension of behavior. The standard of administrative excellence is institutional adjustment and effectiveness rather than individual integration and efficiency.

b) The idiographic style of leadership-followership emphasizes the idiographic dimension of behavior and accordingly places emphasis on the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need-disposition rather than on the requirements of the institution, the role,

and the expectation. In the equation $Y = f(A \times B)$, A is minimized, B is maximized. This does not mean that the idiographic style is any less goal-oriented than is the nomothetic style. It only shows that the most expeditious route to the goal is seen as residing in the people involved rather than in the nature of the institutional structure. The basic assumption is that the greatest accomplishment will occur, not from enforcing adherence to rigorously defined roles, but from making it possible for each person to contribute what is most relevant and meaningful to him. This point of view is obviously related to the particular individuals who fill the roles at a particular time, and expectations must be kept vague and informal. In effect, change the individual role incumbent, and you change with him the definition of the role. Normative prescriptions of the sort included in typical role expectations are seen as unnecessarily restrictive and as a hindrance rather than a guide to productive behavior. The best government is the one that governs least, or, better, not at all. The predominant conflict that is likely to be recognized is personality conflict, since this is immediately related to the individual-personality-needsdimension of behavior. The standard of administrative excellence is individual integration and efficiency rather than institutional adjustment and effectiveness.

c) The transactional style of leadership-followership, as might be expected, is intermediate between the other two and is, therefore, least amenable to "pure" or even clear-cut definition. Since the goals of the social system must be carried out, it is obviously necessary to make explicit the roles and expectations required to achieve the goals. And, since the roles and expectations will be implemented by flesh-and-blood people with needs to be met, the personalities and dispositions of these people must be taken into account. But the solution is not as simple as appears from just saying that one should hew to the middle course between expectations and needs, that is, between the nomothetic and the idiographic axes. Instead, the aim throughout is to acquire a thorough awareness of the limits and resources of both individual and institution within which administrative action may occur (that is, from the nomothetic to the idiographic extreme) and an intelligent application of the two as a particular problem may demand. In the equation $Y = f(A \times B)$, A and B are maximized or minimized as the

situation requires. Institutional roles are developed independently of the role incumbents, but they are adapted to the personalities of the individual incumbents. Expectations are defined as sharply as they can be but not so sharply as to prohibit appropriate behavior in terms of need-dispositions. Role conflicts, personality conflicts, and role-personality conflicts are recognized and handled. The standard of administrative excellence is individual integration and efficiency, satisfaction, and institutional adjustment and effectiveness.

Conclusion

There appears to always be a problem with the organization roles and expectation on the one hand and the satisfaction of personal needs on the other hand. Theoretically, the individual and the organization (Church, workplace, family) are "constantly at war" due to roles and personality clash for example, some Pastors role is that of a holy man but their personality may differ so much to the extent that they may love women, money or be materialistic. Also, a medical doctor who takes care of people's health and advises them against the ills of smoking may himself be a chain smoker. It is also possible for a lecturer who teaches a large class and always in touch with students and the public to be shy. Thus, the clash between one's expected role and personality seems to be an "endless war". From this background, it may be easy to understand and appreciate why some managers do fail which is due to the fact that their roles do not agree with their expectation.

Similarly, the expectation people hold of you may not agree with your need disposition. Every human being has need which must be met and in order to satisfy these individual needs, one is likely to fail at work. This is the reason many people appear to be in chains because they have to meet the expectation of people around them. For the purpose of this discourse, let us consider the example of President Obama of the United States of America. His need disposition is to smoke whereas his job expectation in the White House is that he cannot smoke. One can only imagine the level of role conflict he has gone through in the last few years to retain his job. It is obvious there are some needs you must suppress to satisfy the expectation or job demand. Social behaviour requires that a person does things in the right, good and positive way always. Thus, a worker either "kills" his

personal needs to meet public expectation or completely forgo his job in order to satisfy his needs disposition.

Recommendation

Educational managers are to ensure that resources are judiciously used since resources on their own cannot achieve organization goal. However, the greatest challenge of managers is how to reconcile efficiency with effectiveness. While human needs may be described as are great, the expectations of the organization can be perceived to be too much. Thus, school managers should endeavour to strike a balance between the organization and the worker to avoid tensionsuch that organization (i.e. the school and other human organization) would not "kill" the worker and the worker will also not exploit the system or organization.

References

- Coladarci, A. P. and Getzels, J. W. 1956. *The Use of Theory in Educational Administration*. Monograph No. 5. Stanford, California: School of Education, Stanford University.
- Getzels J. W. and Cuba, E. G. 1995. "Role, Role Conflict, and Effectiveness: An Empirical Study," *American Sociological Review*, XIX (April, 1954), 164-75;
- Getzels J. W. and Cuba, E. G. 1995., "The Structure of Roles and Role Conflict in the Teaching Situation," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIX (September, 1955), 30-40.
- Gtzels, J. W. 1952. "A Psycho-sociological Framework for the Study of Educational Administration," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXII (Fall, 1952), 235-46.
- Nwankwo J. I. 1982. *Educational Administration: Theory and Practice*. New Delhi, India. Vikas Publishing house PVT in association with Bisi Books (Nig.) Ltd.
- Nwankwo J. I. 2014. *Management in Education. Modern Approaches in Educational Management*. Ibadan: Giraffe Books.
- Parsons, T. and Shils, E. A. 1951. *Toward a General Theory of Action*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1951.
- Stouffer, S and Jackson, T.1951. "Role Conflict and Personality," *American Journal of Sociology*, LVI (March, 1951), 395-406;

Thompson, J. D. 1956. The relation of theory, research, and practice in administration "On Building an Administrative Science," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, I (June, 1956), 102-11.