
Theoretical Perspectives on Human Behavior & The Social Environment Sector

Dania, Afe Victor (OD., MPH)
Varvic Integrated Eye Clinic Ltd
37 Ujoelen Road, Ekpoma, Edo State, Nigeria
E-mail: afedania2014@yahoo.com
Phone: +2348037933933

ABSTRACT

Human behavior is complex and the social work profession is broad, numerous theories are utilized for social work practice at the micro-meso-macro levels. These theories focus on human growth and development, psychological, social functioning, and social service delivery. Some theories emphasize social and economic justice. All theories are value-laden and come out of a socio-historical context. People are the most critical resource a business has, and effective utilization of employee capability is the focus of the concentration in Organizational Behavior/Human Resources Management. Evaluating the needs of an organization, finding people to fill those needs, and providing an optimum environment conducive to high levels of motivation and performance are all aspects of that needs to function in a business. Being current with the latest research, policies and thinking is an integral part of the concentration. Special attention is given in this concentration to issues of diversity management and effective team development skills. Professional management practices would enhance staff satisfaction, improve quality, patient satisfaction, and public perception of services. This in turn would generate demand which could be met by providing a low-cost service through optimum use of available limited resources. Ultimately, eye care organizations will become part of vision 2020 by ensuring long-term sustainability.

Keywords: Evaluation, professional, perception and optima.

Journal Reference Format:

Dania, A.V. (2017): Theoretical Perspectives on Human Behavior & The Social Environment Sector. Humanities, Management, Arts, Education & the Social Sciences Journal. Vol. 6. No. 4, Pp 86-120
Article DOI: [dx.doi.org/10.22624/AIMS/HUMANITIES/V5N1P11](https://doi.org/10.22624/AIMS/HUMANITIES/V5N1P11)

1. INTRODUCTION

Since human behavior is complex and the social work profession is broad, numerous theories are utilized for social work practice at the micro-meso-macro levels. These theories focus on human growth and development, psychological and social functioning, and social service delivery. Some theories emphasize social and economic justice. All theories are value-laden and come out of a socio-historical context. Thus, all theories should be critiqued with attention paid to their cross-cultural applicability.

1.1 Definitions:

- **Theory** - interrelated sets of concepts and propositions, organized into a deductive system to explain relationships about certain aspects of the world (e.g., the theories listed below).
- **Perspective** - An emphasis or point of view; concepts at an earlier level of development (e.g., a "strengths perspective") or at a broader and higher level of abstraction (ex: a "humanistic perspective" or a "developmental perspective").
- **Paradigm** - An archetype or mode of thought; a general way of seeing the world (e.g., "modernism" or "post-modernism").
- **Practice Model** - A guide for practitioner interaction that operationalizes theory; includes concrete actions and techniques (note: some theories have more well-developed practice models than others).

- **Dimension** - A feature that can be focused on individually or separately, but can only be understood in relation to other features (as in "dimensions of human behavior" or a "multi-dimensional approach" to human behavior).

2. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1 Human Behaviour Theories

The Human Behavior School The Human Behavior Perspective assumes that work is accomplished through people and emphasizes cooperation, participation, satisfaction, and interpersonal skills. Major Human Behavior Theories Principles of Coordination: Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) 1 Best known for her true principles of organizations based on a stable foundation for the steady, ordered progress of human well-being. 1 Characterized conflict as potentially constructive and described collective responsibility and integration as supportive of business excellence. Four Active Principles: 1. Coordination by direct contact of the responsible people concerned 2. Coordination in the early stages 3. Coordination as a reciprocal relation of all the features in a situation 4. Coordination as a continuing process.

Major Human Behavior Theories! The Hawthorne Effect: Elton Mayo (1880-1949) 1 When the famous Hawthorne studies began, Mayo was experimenting with the alteration of physical working conditions to increase productivity. T They became aware that other unexpected factors were interacting with physical factors to influence work output. Output increased not matter how the physical variables were changed. Mayo and his colleagues came to understand that a powerful and previously unrecognized influence in the experimental setting was the attention the researchers were paying to the workers. As a result of the Hawthorne research, production could no longer be viewed as solely dependent on formal job and organizational design. This effect, widely know as the Hawthorne effect, was the first documentation in industrial psychological research of the importance of human interaction and morale for productivity.

Major Human Behavior Theories Theory X and Theory Y: Douglas McGregor (1906-1964) 1 McGregor's description of management assumptions about workers. Theory X characterizes assumptions underlying Scientific Management theory, and Theory Y is associated with assumptions common to Human Behavior perspectives. Theory X managers assume workers dislike work and will avoid responsible labor. Theory Y managers believe that workers can be self-directed and self-controlled.

McGregor has been criticized for what some have called a polarized either/or approach to human nature. McGregor has responded that Theory X and Theory Y are assumptions that may be better understood a s ranges of behaviors from X to Y. Theory X and Theory Major Human Behavior Theories! Participative Management: Rensis Likert (1903-1981) 1 Likert's theory of employee-centered management based on effectively functioning groups linked together structural! y throughout the organization

2.2 Likert's Linking Pin Concept

Taylor had interpreted variability in performance as a need to establish specific procedures and production standards; Likert's interpretation called for an increase in participation by organizational members at all levels. Likert's (1960) attitude toward communication was clear when he stated: "Communication is essential to the functioning of an organization. It is viewed widely as one of the most important processes of management." Likert's research also revealed that productivity was high in groups in which the supervisor and subordinate shared reasonable accurate perceptions of each other. Likert concluded from this finding that good communication and high performance go together.

2.3 Leadership & Human Behavior

As a leader, you need to interact with your followers, peers, seniors, and others, whose support you need in order to accomplish your goals. To gain their support, you must be able to understand and motivate them. To understand and motivate people, you must know human nature. Human nature is the common qualities of all human beings.

People behave according to certain principles of human nature. Human needs are an important part of human nature. Values, beliefs, and customs differ from country to country and even within group to group, but in general, all people have a few basic needs. As a leader you must understand these needs because they can be powerful motivators.

2.4 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Unlike others researchers in the earlier days of psychology, Abraham Maslow's based his theory of human needs on creative people who used all their talents, potential, and capabilities (Bootzin, Loftus, Zajonc, Hall, 1983). His methodology differed from most other psychological researchers at the time in that these researchers mainly observed mentally unhealthy people. Maslow (1970) felt that human needs were arranged in a hierarchical order that could be divided into two major groups: basic needs and metaneeds (higher order needs):

Basic Needs are physiological, such as food, water, and sleep; and psychological, such as affection, security, and self-esteem. These basic needs are also called "deficiency needs" because if they are not met by an individual, then that person will strive to make up the deficiency.

Metaneeds or being needs (growth needs). These include justice, goodness, beauty, order, unity, etc. Basic needs normally take priority over these Meta needs. For example, a person who lacks food or water will not normally attend to justice or beauty needs. These needs are normally listed in a hierarchical order in the form of a pyramid to show that the basic needs (bottom ones) must be met before the higher order needs:

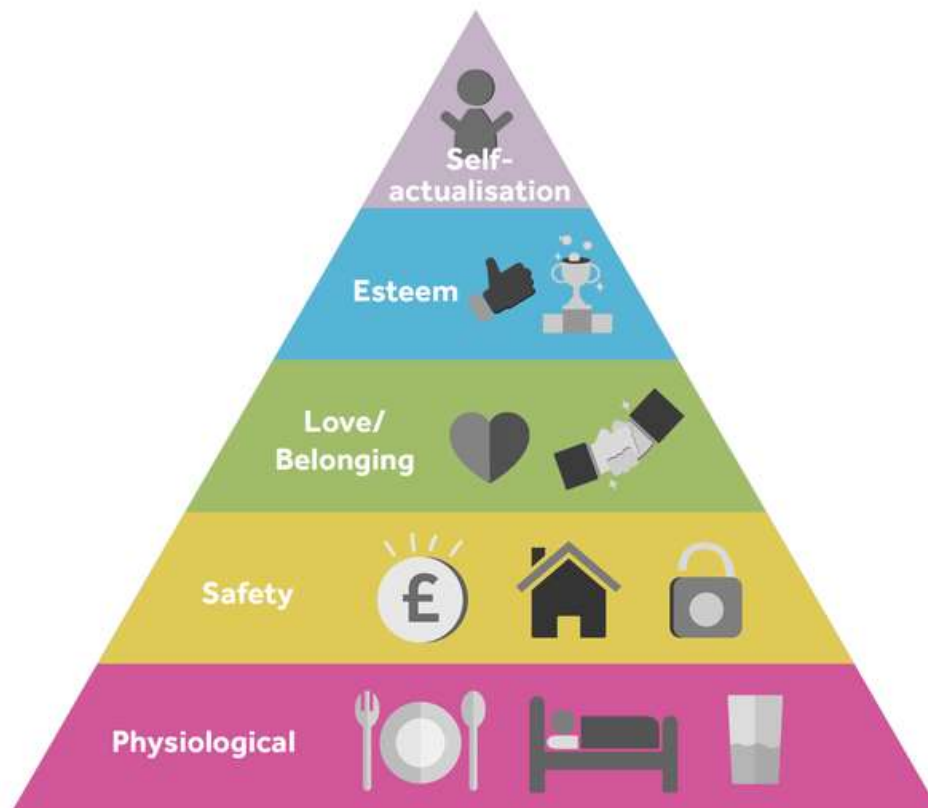


Fig 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs early years

1. Physiological – food, water, shelter, sex.
2. Safety – feel free from immediate danger.
3. Belongingness and love – belong to a group, close friends to confide with.
4. Esteem – feeling of moving up in world, recognition, few doubts about self.
5. Self-actualization – know exactly who you are, where you are going, and what you want to accomplish. A state of well-being.

Maslow posited that people want and are forever striving to meet various goals. Because the lower level needs are more immediate and urgent, then they come into play as the source and direction of a person's goal if they are not satisfied. A need higher in the hierarchy will become a motive of behavior as long as the needs below it have been satisfied. Unsatisfied lower needs will dominate unsatisfied higher needs and must be satisfied before the person can climb up the hierarchy. Knowing where a person is located on the pyramid will aid you in determining effective motivators. For example, motivating a middle-class person (who is in range 4 of the hierarchy) with a certificate will have a far greater impact than using the same motivator to effect a minimum wage person from the ghetto who is desperately struggling to meet the first couple of needs.

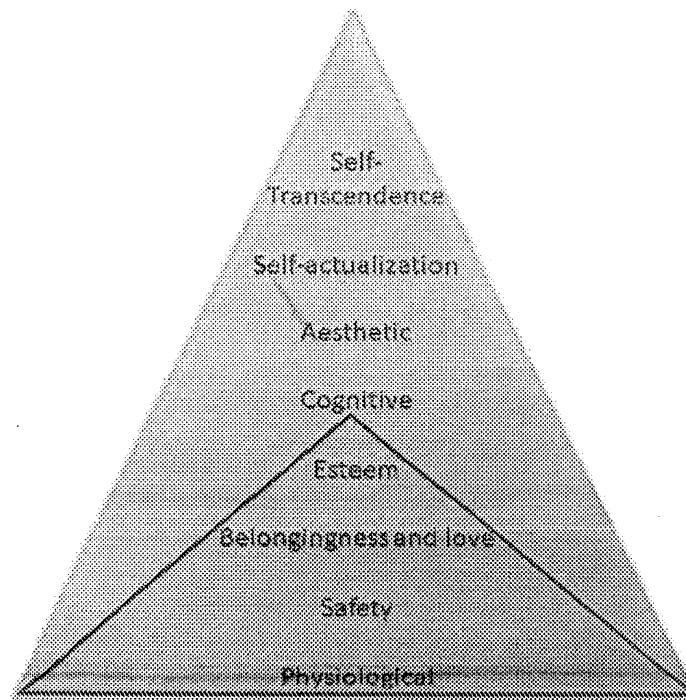
It should be noted that almost no one stays in one particular hierarchy for an extended period. We constantly strive to move up, while at the same time various forces outside our control try to push us down. Those on top get pushed down for short time periods, i.e., death of a loved-one or an idea that does not work, while those on the bottom get pushed up, i.e., come across a small prize. Our goal as leaders therefore is to help people obtain the skills and knowledge that will push them up the hierarchy on a more permanent basis. People who have their basic needs met become much better workers as they are able to concentrate on fulfilling the visions put forth to them, rather than consistently struggling to make ends meet. Criticisms and Strengths.

The above statements may be considered generalizations. Maslow's theory has often been criticized because we can find exceptions to it, such as the military, police, firefighters, etc. who will risk their safety for the well-being of others or parents who will sacrifice their basic needs for their children. However, there are very few theories that are not flawed in that once we start drilling down to individualistic levels, then the theory or generalization often starts to fall apart. For example, even Newton's theory of physics, which later became laws, fell apart once we were able to drill down to the atomic level. A recent study (Tay, Diener, 2011) discovered that as hypothesized by Maslow (1954), people tend to achieve basic and safety needs before other needs. However, fulfilling the various needs has relatively independent effects on a person's Subjective Well-Being. Thus rather than being a pyramid with the basic human needs arranged in a hierarchical order, it is more like a box with the basic human needs scattered within and depending on the situation and/or environment, different needs rise to the top to compensate for the deficient needs.

Maslow's theory remains a classic because rather than looking at psychology as strictly the study of the mentally ill, his theory was based upon healthy persons. And being one of the first humanistic ones, it has its share of flaws.

2.5 Expansion of the Pyramid

In Maslow's (1971) later years, he became more interested in the higher order or meta needs and tried to further distinguish them. Maslow theorized that the ultimate goal of life is self-actualization, which is almost never fully attained but rather is something we try to always strive for. He later theorized that this level does not stop, it goes on to self-transcendence, which carries us to the spiritual level, e.g. Gandhi, Mother Theresa, Dalai Lama, or even poets, such as Robert Frost. Maslow's self-transcendence level recognizes the human need for ethics, creativity, compassion and spirituality. Without this spiritual or transgenic sense, we are simply animals or machines. This expansion of the higher order needs is shown here:



Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs - later, years

Note that the four meta needs (above the inner pyramid) can be pursued in any order, depending upon a person's wants or circumstances, as long as the basic needs have all been met:

1. Physiological - food, water, shelter, sex.
2. Safety - feel free from immediate danger.
3. Belongingness and love - belong to a group, close friends to confide with.
4. Esteem - feeling of moving up in world, recognition, few doubts about self.
5. Cognitive - to be free of the good opinion of others - learning for learning alone, contribute knowledge.
6. Aesthetic - to do things not simply for the outcome but because it's the reason you are here on earth - at peace, more curious about the inner workings of all things.
7. Self-actualization - know exactly who you are, where you are going, and what you want to accomplish. A state of well-being.
8. Self-transcendence -- a transgenic (see Note below) level that emphasizes visionary intuition, altruism, and unity consciousness.

Note: Transgenic means a higher, psychic, or spiritual state of development. The trans is related to transcendence, while the ego is based on Freud's work. We go from preEGOic levels to EGOic levels to transEGOic. The EGO in all three terms are used in the Jungian sense of consciousness as opposed to the unconscious. Ego equates with the personality.

In addition just as in his earlier model, we may be in a state of flux - we shift between levels (Maslow, 1968). For example there may be peak experiences for temporary self-actualization and self-transcendence. These are our spiritual or creative moments. Characteristics of self-actualizing people:

- Have better perceptions of reality and are comfortable with it.
- Accept themselves and their own natures.
- Lack of artificiality.
- They focus on problems outside themselves and are concerned with basic issues and eternal questions.
- They like privacy and tend to be detached.
- Rely on their own development and continued growth.
- Appreciate the basic pleasures of life (e.g. do not take blessings for granted).
- Have a deep feeling of kinship with others.
- Are deeply democratic and are not really aware of differences.
- Have strong ethical and moral standards.
- Are original, inventive, less constricted and fresher than others

2.6 Going Beyond Maslow

While the research of Maslow's theory has undergone limited empirical scrutiny, it still remains quite popular due to its simplicity and being the start of the movement away from a totally behaviorist/reductionistic/mechanistic approach to a more humanistic one. In addition, a lot of concerns are directed at his methodology in that he picked a small number of people that he declared self-actualizing and came to the conclusion about self-actualization. However, he understood this and thought of his work as simply a method of pointing the way, rather than being the final say. In addition, he hoped that others would take up the cause and complete what he had begun.

Which brings us to the next models. Other researchers have taken up his cause and furthered refined the model, mostly in the area of organizations and work. Herzberg, Alderfer, and McGregor's research are all closely tied to Maslow's theory. Herzberg's

2.7 Hygiene and Motivational Factors

Frederick Herzberg was considered one of the most influential management consultants and professors of the modern postwar era. Herzberg was probably best known for his challenging thinking on work and motivation. He was considered both an icon and legend among visionaries such as Abraham Maslow, Peter Drucker, and Douglas MacGregor. Herzberg (1966) is best known for his list of factors that are based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, except his version is more closely related to the working environment:

2.8 Herzberg's Hygiene & Motivational Factors

- Working conditions
 - Policies and administrative practices
 - Salary and Benefits
 - Supervision
 - Status
 - Job security
 - Co-workers
- Personal life Motivators or Satisfiers:**
- Recognition
 - Achievement
 - Advancement
 - Growth
 - Responsibility
 - Job challenge

Hygiene or dissatisfiers factors must be present in the job before motivators can be used to stimulate a person. That is, you cannot use motivators until all the hygiene factors are met. Herzberg's needs are specifically job related and reflect some of the distinct things that people want from their work as opposed to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs which reflect all the needs in a person's life.

Building on this model, Herzberg coined the term job enrichment - the process of redesigning work in order to build in motivators by increasing both the number of tasks that an employee performs and the control over those tasks. It is associated with the design of jobs and is an extension of job enlargement (an increase in the number of tasks that an employee performs). McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. Douglas McGregor (1957) developed a philosophical view of humankind with his Theory X and Theory Y -- two opposing perceptions about how people view human behavior at work and organizational life. McGregor felt that organizations and the managers within them followed either one or the other approach

2.9 Theory X

- People have an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it whenever possible.
- People must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment in order to get them to achieve the organizational objectives.
- People prefer to be directed, do not want responsibility, and have little or no ambition.
- People seek security above all else. In an organization with Theory X assumptions, management's role is to coerce and control employees.

2.10 Theory Y

- Work is as natural as play and rest.
- People will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives (they are NOT lazy).
- Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- People learn to accept and seek responsibility.
- Creativity, ingenuity, and imagination are widely distributed among the population. People are capable of using these abilities to solve an organizational problem.
- People have potential.

In an organization with Theory Y assumptions, management's role is to develop the potential in employees and help them to release that potential towards common goals. Theory X is the view that traditional management has taken towards the workforce. Most organizations are now taking the enlightened view of theory Y (even though they might not be very good at it). A boss can be viewed as taking the theory X approach, while a leader takes the theory Y approach.

Notice that Maslow, Herzberg, and McGregor's theories all tie together:

- Herzberg's theory is a micro version of Maslow's theory that is focused in the work environment.
- McGregor's Theory X is based on workers caught in the lower levels (1 to 3) of Maslow's theory due to bad management practices, while his Theory Y is for workers who have gone above level 3 with the help of management.
- McGregor's Theory X is also based on workers caught in Herzberg's Hygiene Dissatisfiers, while Theory Y is based on workers who are in the Motivators or Satisfiers section.

3. LEADERSHIP

3.1 Leadership Styles

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. Kurt Lewin (1939) led a group of researchers to identify different styles of leadership. This early study has been very influential and established three major leadership styles. The three major styles of leadership are (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973):

- Authoritarian or autocratic
- Participative or democratic
- Delegative or Free Reign

Although good leaders use all three styles, with one of them normally dominant, bad leaders tend to stick with one style.

3.2 Authoritarian (autocratic)

This style is used when leaders tell their employees what they want done and how they want it accomplished, without getting the advice of their followers. Some of the appropriate conditions to use it is when you have all the information to solve the problem, you are short on time, and your employees are well motivated. Some people tend to think of this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abusing their power. This is not the authoritarian style, rather it is an abusive, unprofessional style called "bossing people around." It has no place in a leader's repertoire. The authoritarian style should normally only be used on rare occasions. If you have the time and want to gain more commitment and motivation from your employees, then you should use the participative style

3.3 Participative (democratic)

This style involves the leader including one or more employees in the decision making process (determining what to do and how to do it). However, the leader maintains the final decision making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness, rather it is a sign of strength that your employees will respect. This is normally used when you have part of the information, and your employees have other parts. Note that a leader is not expected to know everything – this is why you employ knowledgeable and skillful employees. Using this style is of mutual benefit – it allows them to become part of the team and allows you to make better decisions. Delegative (free reign). In this style, the leader allows the employees to make the decisions. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. This is used when employees are able to analyze the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it. You cannot do everything! You must set priorities and delegate certain tasks. This is not a style to use so that you can blame others when things go wrong, rather this is a style to be used when you fully trust and confidence in the people below you. Do not be afraid to use it, however, use it wisely! NOTE: This is also known as laissez faire (or *laissez faire*), which is the noninterference in the affairs of others. [French: *laissez*, second person pi. imperative of *laisser*, to let, allow + *faire*, to do.

3.4 Forces

- A good leader uses all three styles, depending on what forces are involved between the followers, the leader, and the situation. Some examples include:
- Using an authoritarian style on a new employee who is just learning the job. The leader is competent and a good coach. The employee is motivated to learn a new skill. The situation is a new environment for the employee.
- Using a participative style with a team of workers who know their job. The leader knows the problem, but does not have all the information. The employees know their jobs and want to become part of the team.
- Using a delegative style with a worker who knows more about the job than you. You cannot do everything

and the employee needs to take ownership of her job! In addition, this allows you to be at other places, doing other things.

- Using all three: Telling your employees that a procedure is not working correctly and a new one must be established (authoritarian). Asking for their ideas and input on creating a new procedure (participative). Delegating tasks in order to implement the new procedure (delegative).

Forces that influence the style to be used included:

- How much time is available.
- Are relationships based on respect and trust or on disrespect?
- Who has the information – you, your employees, or both?
- How well your employees are trained and how well you know the task.
- Internal conflicts.
- Stress levels.
- Type of task. Is it structured, unstructured, complicated, or simple?
- Laws or established procedures such as OSHA or training plans.

3.5 Positive and Negative Approaches

There is a difference in ways leaders approach their employee. Positive leaders use rewards, such as education, independence, etc. to motivate employees. While negative employers emphasize penalties. While the negative approach has a place in a leader's repertoire of tools, it must be used carefully due to its high cost on the human spirit. Negative leaders act domineering and superior with people. They believe the only way to get things done is through penalties, such as loss of job, days off without pay, reprimanding employees in front of others, etc. They believe their authority is increased by frightening everyone into higher levels of productivity. Yet what always happens when this approach is used wrongly is that morale falls; which of course leads to lower productivity.

Also note that most leaders do not strictly use one or another, but are somewhere on a continuum ranging from extremely positive to extremely negative. People who continuously work out of the negative are bosses while those who primarily work out of the positive are considered real leaders. Use of Consideration and Structure

Two other approaches that leaders use are:

Consideration (employee orientation) – leaders are concerned about the human needs of their employees. They build teamwork, help employees with their problems, and provide psychological support. Structure (task orientation) – leaders believe that .. they get results by consistently keeping people busy and urging them to produce. There is evidence that leaders who are considerate in their leadership style are higher performers and are more satisfied with their job (Schriesheim, 1982).

Also notice that consideration and structure are independent of each other, thus they should not be viewed on opposite ends of a continuum. For example, a leader who becomes more considerate, does not necessarily mean that she has become less structured.

See Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid as it is also based on this concept.

3.6 Paternalism

Paternalism has at times been equated with leadership styles. Yet most definitions of leadership normally state or imply that one of the actions within leadership is that of influencing. For example, the Army uses the following definition:

Leadership is influencing people – by providing purpose, direction, and motivation – while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization. The Army further goes on by defining "influence" as: a means of getting people to do what you want them to do. It is the means or method to achieve two ends: operating and improving. But there is more to influencing than simply passing along orders. The example you set is just as important as the words you speak. And you set an example – good or bad – with every action you take and word you utter, on or off duty. Through your words and example, you must communicate purpose, direction, and motivation.

While "paternalism" is defined as (Webster): A system under which an authority undertakes to supply needs or regulate conduct of those under its control in matters affecting them as individuals as well as in their relationships to authority and to each other. Thus paternalism supplies needs for those under its protection or control, while leadership gets things done. The first is directed inwards, while the latter is directed outwards. Geert Hofstede (1977) studied culture within organizations. Part of his study was on the dependence relationship or **Power Difference** – the extent to which the less powerful members of an organization expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. Hofstede gave this story to illustrate this Power Difference:

The last revolution in Sweden disposed of King **Gustav IV**, whom they considered incompetent, and surprising invited Jean Baptise Bernadette, a French general who served under Napoleon, to become their new King. He accepted and became King Charles XIV. Soon afterward he needed to address the Swedish Parliament. Wanting to be accepted, he tried to do the speech in their language. His broken language am used the Swedes so much that they roared with laughter. The Frenchman was so upset that he never tried to speak Swedish again. Bernadotte was a victim of culture shock – never in his French upbringing and military career had he experienced subordinates who laughed at the mistakes of their superior. This story has a happy ending as he was considered very good and ruled the country as a highly respected constitutional monarch until 18 44. (His descendants still occupy the Swedish throne.). Sweden differs from France in the way its society handles inequality (those in charge and the followers).

To measure inequality or Power Difference, Hofstede studied three survey questions from a larger survey that both factored and carried the same weight:

Frequency of employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers. Subordinates' perception of their boss's actual decision making style (paternalistic style was one choice). Subordinates' preference for their boss's decision-making style (again, paternalistic style was one choice). He developed a Power Difference Index (PDI) for the 53 countries that took the survey. Their scores range from 11 to 104. The higher the number a country received, the more autocratic and/or paternalistic the leadership, which of course relates to employees being more afraid or unwilling to disagree with their bosses. While lower numbers mean a more consultative style of leadership is used, which translates to employees who are not as afraid of their bosses.

For example, Malaysia has the highest PDI score, being 104, while Austria has the lowest with 11. And of course, as the story above illustrates, Sweden has a relative low score of 31, while France has a PDI of 68. The USA's is 40. Note that these scores are relative, not absolute, in that relativism affirms that one culture has no absolute criteria for judging activities of another culture as "low" or "noble". Keeping the above in mind, it seems that some picture paternalistic behavior as almost a barbaric way of getting things accomplished. Yet, leadership is all about getting things done for the organization.

And in some situations, a paternalistic style of decision-making might be required; indeed, in some cultures and individuals, it may also be expected by not only those in charge, but also the followers. That is what makes leadership styles quite interesting – they basically run along the same continuum as Hofstede's PDI ranging from paternalistic to consultative styles of decision making. This allows a wide range of individual behaviors to be dealt with, ranging from beginners to peak performers. In addition, it accounts for the fact that not everyone is the same. However, when paternalistic or autocratic styles are relied upon too much and the employees are ready and/or willing to react to a more consultative type of leadership style, then it normally becomes quite damaging to the performance of the organization.

3.7 Supervision

Good supervision affects organizational results and the overall work environment. A strong supervisory team that contributes to a positive work environment and enables employees to be and feel successful can provide your organization with a competitive advantage in attracting and retaining talented employees - which is critical in a sector that faces challenges in recruiting and retaining top employees. Good supervision is based on clearly defining the role of supervisors in your organization, and ensuring supervisors have the requisite competencies to carry out their role effectively. Role of a supervisor Supervisors manage both processes and people..

Process responsibilities include activities such as:

- Work unit planning
- Budgeting
- Scheduling
- Task/work assignment
- Work implementation and problem solving
- Monitoring work unit progress
- Evaluating results

People responsibilities include activities such as:

- Developing work team and individual employee skills and capabilities
- Motivating employees
- Monitoring and providing feedback on day-to-day performance
- Conducting formal performance reviews
- Carrying out disciplinary activity

In the majority of organizations today, supervisors typically have dual roles: that of supervisor and that of worker. This means that a percentage of a supervisor's time is spent on supervisory activities and a percentage of their time is spent on doing his or her own functional/technical activities. Typically the amount of time spent on supervisor activities, versus functional/technical activities, increases with:

- The seniority (level) of the managerial job
- A greater number of employees being supervised
- Greater complexity of the goals and responsibilities within the function
- Lower expertise and knowledge of employees being supervised
- Greater risks associated with the work being completed

3.8 Functions of a Supervisor

The following are examples of typical supervisory functions: people management and task management. Each organization will need to define the functions that best meet the specific needs of the organization and what the proper balance is between the two functions.

3.9 People Management Functions

Typical people management functions of a supervisor include:

- Developing work team and individual employee skills and capabilities
- Motivating employees
- Monitoring and providing feedback on day-to-day performance
- Formal performance review
- Disciplinary action

3.10 Developing work team and individual employee skills and capabilities

As part of achieving objectives, supervisors need to ensure that their work team is comprised of individuals with the skills, knowledge, and capabilities to carry out the work. Supervisors can achieve the desired mix of skills, knowledge, and capabilities through effective staffing and/or through the development of current employees. Supervisors should identify development needs jointly with their employees to determine appropriate development opportunities and activities. While the identification of development needs is often part of the formal performance management process, it is important to have the discussion with employees whenever assigning a new project or activity, or when the supervisor observes the employee struggling to achieve assigned objectives. Development opportunities could include things such as job shadowing, working on a particular task force or project or a temporary job assignment. Development activities could include coaching or mentoring (often from the supervisor, but could be from another employee or manager), on the job training or a training course.

3.11 Motivating employees

Supervisors are responsible for ensuring that work unit goals and objectives are achieved. Critical to fulfilling this responsibility is motivating employees to successfully accomplish assigned activities. Supervisors can use a number of motivation techniques, including:

- Providing positive feedback on employee achievements
- Assigning interesting and challenging work
- Providing effective guidance, support and training
- Recognizing and rewarding positive performance
- Tailoring work assignments, rewards and recognition to individual employee needs and desires
- Leading by example (nothing is more de-motivating than a supervisor who expects employees to "do what I say" not "what I do") Successfully motivating employees requires:
- Identifying the results and behaviours expected of employees
- Discussing these expectations with employees to ensure mutual understanding and employee buy-in
- Aligning motivating techniques accordingly
- Celebrating success

The combination of process and people responsibilities results in a requirement for supervisors to have a combination of process management competencies and people management competencies. Those identified below are meant to provide examples of typical competencies required of supervisors.

3.12 Monitoring and providing feedback on day-to-day performance

While most organizations require an annual performance review be done with all employees, effective people management is based on on-going feedback, coaching and support throughout the year. Supervisors are responsible for monitoring day-to-day performance and providing employees with timely and constructive feedback - both positive and negative. Monitoring day-to-day performance does not mean watching over every aspect of how the employee carries out assigned activities and tasks. Supervisors should not micro manage employee performance but instead should focus their attention on results achieved, as well as individual behaviours and team dynamics affecting the work environment.

3.13 Formal performance review

In most organizations supervisors are required to conduct a formal review with all of their employees (usually annually, more often in other organizations). Refer to the Performance Management section, and the Policy Guideline for more information on this function.

3.14 Disciplinary action

Supervisors are required to carry out disciplinary actions with employees, when required, to ensure performance expectations are met and a positive work environment is maintained. Refer to the Discipline section and the HR Policy Guidelines for more information on this function.

3.15 Process management functions

- Typical process management functions of a supervisor include:
- Work unit planning and budgeting
- Scheduling
- Task/work assignment
- Implementation and problem solving
- Monitoring work unit progress
- Evaluating and reporting on results

3.16 Work unit planning and budgeting

Work unit planning involves establishing goals and objectives for the work unit being supervised. Work unit planning is done at the operational level, but should be developed based on an understanding of the organization's strategy (organization mission, goals and objectives) and how the work unit contributes to the achievement of that strategy. One of the challenges that supervisors have in many nonprofits is establishing concrete measurable goals, particularly when the mission of the organization relates to the improvement of community, social, or individual welfare over the long term. As a management team, supervisors need to identify a combination of qualitative as well as quantitative measures for the organization as a whole, and individually, for their own work unit.

Qualitative goals could relate to things such as the satisfaction of employees, clients and funders, reputation in the industry, recognition in the community, and service quality.

Quantitative goals could relate to things such as meeting budget targets, cost of administration versus service provision, clients served and employee turnover and retention. For each goal, whether qualitative or quantitative, supervisors should reflect on and document:

- What - the activities involved and expected outcomes related to this goal
 - How - the activities and desired behaviours required to complete the goal
 - When - the timing of activities and the target date for goal achievement
- Budgeting is a key element of work unit planning. Budgeting is usually an iterative process, based on:
- Assessing the previous year's estimated and actual budget
 - Determining the dollars needed to carry out the work required to achieve the upcoming year's goals and objectives
 - Presenting the budget request to the senior management team
 - Adjusting the budget and work unit plan to match the amount allocated by the senior management team

3.17 Scheduling

Scheduling can refer to assigning staff to particular shifts or work hours in an organization where services are provided and/or organizational activities occur outside the normal business week. Scheduling can also refer to organizing work unit tasks for the day, week, month and/or quarter in order to produce outputs or deliver services in a timely manner. This includes coordinating with the outputs or services of other work units and ensuring that organizational needs and commitments are met.

3.18 Task/work assignment

Task/work assignment involves assigning specific work tasks and responsibilities to employees in the work unit. The supervisor:

- Determines the skills, knowledge and capabilities required to carry out the task
- Assesses the skills, knowledge and capabilities of the individual employees
- Assigns work to the most appropriate individual

When assigning work to employees, the supervisor needs to consider not only what each employee is capable of doing but also what assignments will provide challenges and development opportunities to employees.

3.19 Implementation and problem solving

The supervisor is responsible for ensuring that activities and tasks within the work unit are implemented effectively. This requires the supervisor to oversee the implementation of activities and tasks at the individual employee level as well as managing the implementation at the work unit level. During implementation of activities and tasks the supervisor is often required to solve problems impacting the ability of the work unit to achieve its goals and objectives. The cause of the problem can be internal to the work unit, such as a lack of skills, knowledge, resources, or time to complete tasks, or external to the work unit, such as coordination issues with other work units or external parties (i.e. funders, volunteers, clients). The supervisor needs to determine the root cause of the problem and determine an effective course of action to resolve the issue.

3.20 Monitoring work unit progress

Monitoring work unit progress on achieving goals and objectives involves tracking progress on projects and individual employee assignments. The tracking process should reflect the work cycles within the work unit (typically monthly or quarterly, but can also be weekly in certain work environments). Supervisors should develop a method for tracking progress that provides them with enough information at the right time to identify and resolve problems but is not overly burdensome to either themselves or their employees.

3.21 Evaluating and reporting on results

Supervisors are responsible for evaluating the results achieved by the work unit and reporting those results to their manager. Evaluation of results involves not only determining if planned goals and objectives have been met, but also how effectively they were met. The supervisor is also required to explain causes and impacts of unmet goals, as well as recommend solutions for addressing any issues/risks accrued to the organization as a result of unmet goals. The content requirements and format of reports are usually established at the senior management level to ensure consistent measurement and reporting across the organization.

3.22 Supervisor competencies

The combination of process and people responsibilities results in a requirement for supervisors to have a combination of process management competencies and people management competencies. Those identified below are meant to provide examples of typical competencies required of supervisors; it's not an exhaustive list. Each organization needs to develop a unique set of supervisory competencies that reflects the job requirements and the organizational culture.

3.23 People management competencies

Examples of people management competencies include:

- Coaching
- Managing conflict
- Communication
- Group leadership

3.24 Coaching

In today's work environment, the role of a supervisor is not that of the authoritarian taskmaster. Supervisors are expected to coach their employees, not to micro-manage every aspect of how activities or tasks are accomplished. Coaching means providing direction, guidance, and support as required on assigned activities and tasks. Additionally, as a coach, supervisors need to recognize strengths and weaknesses of employees and work with employees to identify opportunities and methods to maximize those strengths and improve weak areas.

3.25 Managing conflict

Supervisors are responsible for ensuring a positive work environment and effective teamwork, which often involves managing interpersonal dynamics and conflict. Supervisors need to allow and promote healthy conflict and prevent or resolve destructive conflict. Constructive conflict focuses on ideas, methods, facts and alternative ways of looking at a particular issue or situation. Constructive conflict can result in increased creativity, innovative solutions, and better decision-making. Destructive conflict focuses on personality, communication and work style differences and competition for resources, recognition or rewards. Destructive conflict can result in unmotivated employees, loss of productivity, employee turnover and, in extreme situations, legal action.

3.26 Communication

Communication is a key competency for supervisors. They are responsible for communicating information up, down and across the organization hierarchy, as well as with parties external to the organization (volunteers, donors, clients, etc.). A strong competency in communication encompasses an ability to articulate messages clearly, to actively listen to others, and to develop appropriate responses. Depending on the specific job, there may be more or less importance placed on written versus verbal communication, but most supervisor positions require at least moderate business writing skills.

3.27 Group leadership

In the course of carrying out their functions, supervisors are often in the position of leading team meetings and group work. Successful group leadership results in increased productivity and employee morale. Successful group leadership involves:

- Establishing goals and agendas
- Creating focus and purpose
- Minimizing distractions and interruptions
- Planning group activities
- Managing participation to ensure involvement of all team members
- Following through on action items

3.28 Technical and process management competencies

Examples of technical and process management competencies include:

- Functional knowledge
- Decision making
- Delegation
- Time management

3.29 Functional knowledge

Supervisors typically require a thorough knowledge of their function as well as the technical skills and capabilities needed to set goals and objectives, define work tasks and provide direction, guidance, and coaching to employees. Supervisors usually have higher levels of functional knowledge than supervised employees. Some senior managers may have lower functional knowledge but greater process and people management expertise.

3.30 Decision making

Pretty much all supervisory functions involve making decisions. Some decisions are prescribed by an organization's policies and procedures, in which case the supervisor's responsibility is to understand those policies and procedures and apply them appropriately. Many decisions are not prescribed and the supervisor needs to use his or her judgment on a course of action. While there are a number of decision-making models in business and research literature, most of the models have the following steps:

1. Identify and clarify the problem
 - Obtain all information needed to understand what is causing the problem
 - Identify alternative courses of action and evaluate those courses of action against desired outcomes and possible risks
 - Make a timely decision - avoid the trap of paralysis by analysis. Inherent to effective decision making is the willingness to take calculated (informed) risks as it is often impossible to know all the details and all possible outcomes within a reasonable time frame

3.31 Delegation

Delegation is key to surviving the demands of the dual role of most supervisors (as discussed above in the section Role of a Supervisor. Effective delegation also contributes to the growth, and development of employees. While supervisors cannot delegate ultimate accountability for their functions, they can delegate prime responsibility for many of the activities within their functions. (note that in a unionized environment, a supervisor may not be permitted to download supervisory-type functions.) For example, while the supervisor must take accountability for the work unit budget, the supervisor can assign one or more employees to conduct research and cost analysis and make recommendations on specific budget items.

3.32 Effective delegation involves:

- Assessing the knowledge and skills required to carry out an activity, evaluating the risk associated with the activity, and then deciding if it's appropriate to delegate the activity to a supervised employee
- Delegating responsibility and authority for an activity - the supervisor must give authority to the employee to carry out the tasks required to fulfill the delegated responsibility, and communicate that delegated authority to others, as required. For example, if the employee has to collect timesheet data to complete the assigned activity, other employees should receive communication from the supervisor that the employee has been given authority to ask for the timesheets
- Delegating both desirable and undesirable activities - the reality is that not all work is either interesting or challenging. Supervisors need to balance the type of work they delegate to any one person, ensuring that all employees (including themselves) have a balance of desirable (challenging, interesting) and not as desirable (routine, uninteresting) work
- Delegating for continuous team development - supervisors should look for activities to delegate at all times, not just when their own workload is overwhelming. Delegation contributes to the growth and development of individual employees, and the team as a whole (and also frees up the supervisor's time to take on challenging assignments delegated from his or her supervisor)
- Delegating and letting go - once an activity is delegated, the supervisor needs to provide guidance and advice as required, but allow the employee to determine how to accomplish the task and solve problems as they occur. Supervisors need to resist the temptation to micro-manage, even when the assignment is particularly challenging for the employee. Micro-managing takes up almost as much time as doing the task, and takes away the learning opportunity for the employee

3.33 Time management

Time management is an important competency for most people in business; if time is not managed effectively the dual supervisory role can result in fatigue and burnout, and impact the supervisor's ability to fulfill his or her job responsibilities. Time management involves:

- The ability to evaluate priorities and allocate work time accordingly
- Effectively delegating work activities and responsibilities
- Establishing consistent work habits that maximize time usage (i.e. a set amount of time each day spent on e-mail and voice messages)
- Scheduling meetings to leave time in the day for functional work

Transitioning into the supervisor role
Taking on a supervisory role is an exciting and challenging opportunity. While becoming a supervisor may be a desired and positive move, the transition into the role can be stressful. There are a number of factors that contribute to the stress of taking on a supervisory role:

- The change in the nature of the relationships with coworkers
 - Additional time demands that can create stress during the workday may also conflict with personal demands
 - Increased responsibility and decision-making
 - New skills and knowledge required
- When taking on a new supervisor role, there are a number of actions that can help reduce the stress:

3.34 Re-establish relationships and build new relationships

There is often a period of discomfort between new supervisors and their former coworkers, particularly when those coworkers become direct reports of the supervisor. Given that so much of our day is spent at work, it is inevitable that friendships develop and those friendships can be threatened when the nature of the work relationship changes. The truth is, some friendships will withstand the change while others will revert to collegial relationships. The challenge is to maintain positive relationships through the transition period and going forward. To maintain positive relationships with former coworkers and friends, the new supervisor should:

Discuss the changing nature of the relationship with coworkers and friends to establish expectations around working behaviours and relationships going forward. Be careful to avoid favoritism (or perceived favoritism) both in seeking input and in delegating work. Examine motivation when providing positive or negative feedback. It is important to ensure that s/he maintains objectivity in performance feedback, and doesn't avoid conflict or provide unwarranted positive feedback due to concerns over friendship

3.35 Establish work-life balance

Time management is a key supervisory competency and has been discussed above. Establishing a balance between the time demands of work priorities and personal priorities (work-life balance) poses additional challenges. The new supervisor needs to take time to evaluate work and life priorities and determine the time and energy that s/he is prepared to commit to both (ideally, the new supervisor should go through this process prior to taking on the supervisory role). It is important for new supervisors to establish expectations of themselves and expectations others have regarding work and personal commitments. They should discuss their commitment to work and personal life with those individuals that will be impacted by the change in priorities - including their supervisor and family members.

3.36 Acquire new skills and knowledge

Typically, individuals are promoted to positions in which their supervisor believes they are capable of performing well. There is normally an expectation that the newly promoted individual will have some abilities and experience required of the job and will require development in other areas of the job. A new supervisor should work with his or her supervisor to evaluate current knowledge, skills and abilities against those required in the position. He or she should then establish a development plan that includes formal and informal learning opportunities.

3.37 Find a mentor or coach

New supervisors can benefit greatly from a mentor or coach to act as a sounding board and support person. If your organization does not have a formal coaching/mentoring program, seek out a mentor for your self. Your mentor should be someone who:

- Has a greater level and breadth of experience than you
- Is someone you trust and respect
- Is comfortable giving honest feedback
- Is willing to spend a dedicated amount of time with you on a regular basis

Executive director's guidelines for promoting and managing supervisors When making the decision to promote an individual into a supervisor position, Executive Directors need to:

- Clearly articulate the scope of the job, identifying both the job requirements and the percentage of time the individual is expected to spend on functional/technical activities versus supervisory activities
- Assess the individual's current capabilities against the job requirements, and evaluate their potential to develop and grow into the position
- Ensure the individual understands the challenges and demands of a supervisor role and is willing to take on the added responsibility and time commitment Executive Directors managing supervisors need to:
- Commit a dedicated amount of their time to providing coaching and guidance to supervisory staff. They should build in additional time for this activity when managing individuals new to the supervisor role
- Provide leadership by demonstrating exemplary supervisory competencies
- Ensure organizational tools are available to support supervisors in their supervisory functions (for example, planning, monitoring and reporting processes and tools; performance management policies and tools)

3.38 Motivation Strategies

To some extent, a high level of employee motivation is derived from effective management practices. To develop motivated employees, a manager must treat people as individuals, empower workers, provide an effective reward system, redesign jobs, and create a flexible workplace.

3.39 Empowering employees

Empowerment occurs when individuals in an organization are given autonomy, authority, trust, and encouragement to accomplish a task. Empowerment is designed to unshackle the worker and to make a job the worker's responsibility. In an attempt to empower and to change some of the old bureaucratic ideas, managers are promoting corporate entrepreneurships. Intrapreneurship encourages employees to pursue new ideas and gives them the authority to promote those ideas. Obviously, intrapreneurship is not for the timid, because old structures and processes are turned upside down.

3.40 Providing an effective reward system

Managers often use rewards to reinforce employee behavior that they want to continue. A reward is a work outcome of positive value to the individual. Organizations are rich in rewards for people whose performance accomplishments help meet organizational objectives. People receive rewards in one of the following two ways:

- **Extrinsic rewards** are externally administered. They are valued outcomes given to someone by another person, typically a supervisor or higher level manager. Common workplace examples are pay bonuses, promotions, time off, special assignments, office fixtures, awards, verbal praise, and so on. In all cases, the motivational stimulus of extrinsic rewards originates outside the individual.
- **Intrinsic rewards** are self-administered. Think of the "natural high" a person may experience after completing a job. That person feels good because she has a feeling of competency, personal development, and self-control over her work. In contrast to extrinsic rewards, the motivational stimulus of intrinsic rewards is internal and doesn't depend on the actions of other people. To motivate behavior, the organization needs to provide an effective reward system. An effective reward system has four elements:

- Rewards need to satisfy the basic needs of all employees.
- Rewards need to be included in the system and be comparable to ones offered by a competitive organization in the same area.
- Rewards need to be available to people in the same positions and be distributed fairly and equitably.
- The overall reward system needs to be multifaceted. Because all people are different, managers must provide a range of rewards—pay, time off, recognition, or promotion. In addition, managers should provide several different ways to earn these rewards.

This last point is worth noting. With the widely developing trend toward empowerment in American industry, many employees and employers are beginning to view traditional pay systems as inadequate. In a traditional system, people are paid according to the positions they hold, not the contributions they make. As organizations adopt approaches built upon teams, customer satisfaction, and empowerment, workers need to be paid differently. Many companies have already responded by designing numerous pay plans, designed by employee design teams, which base rewards on skill levels.

Rewards demonstrate to employees that their behavior is appropriate and should be repeated. If employees don't feel that their work is valued, their motivation will decline.

3.41 Redesigning jobs

Many people go to work every day and go through the same, unenthusiastic actions to perform their jobs. These individuals often refer to this condition as burnout. But smart managers can do something to improve this condition before an employee becomes bored and loses motivation. The concept of job redesign, which requires a knowledge of and concern for the human qualities people bring with them to the organization, applies motivational theories to the structure of work for improving productivity and satisfaction. When redesigning jobs, managers look at both job scope and job depth. Redesign attempts may include the following:

- **Job enlargement.** Often referred to as horizontal job loading, job enlargement increases the variety of tasks a job includes. Although it doesn't increase the quality or the challenge of those tasks, job enlargement may reduce some of the monotony, and as an employee's boredom decreases, his or her work quality generally increases.
- **Job rotation.** This practice assigns people to different jobs or tasks to different people on a temporary basis. The idea is to add variety and to expose people to the dependence that one job has on other jobs. Job rotation can encourage higher levels of contributions and renew interest and enthusiasm. The organization benefits from a cross-trained workforce.
- **Job enrichment.** Also called vertical job loading, this application includes not only an increased variety of tasks, but also provides an employee with more responsibility and authority. If the skills required to do the job are skills that match the jobholder's abilities, job enrichment may improve morale and performance.

3.42 Creating flexibility

Today's employees value personal time. Because of family needs, a traditional nine-to-five workday may not work for many people. Therefore, flextime, which permits employees to set and control their own work hours, is one way that organizations are accommodating their employees' needs. Here are some other options organizations are trying as well:

- **A compressed workweek** is a form of flextime that allows a full-time job to be completed in less than the standard 40-hour, five-day workweek. Its most common form is the 4/40 schedule, which gives employees three days off each week. This schedule benefits the individual through more leisure time and lower commuting costs. The organization should benefit through lower absenteeism and improved performance. Of course, the danger in this type of scheduling is the possibility of increased fatigue.
- **Job sharing or twinning** occurs when one full-time job is split between two or more persons. Job sharing often involves each person working one-half day, but it can also be done on weekly or monthly sharing

arrangements. When jobs can be split and shared, organizations can benefit by employing talented people who would otherwise be unable to work full-time. The qualified employee who is also a parent may not want to be in the office for a full day but may be willing to work a half-day. Although adjustment problems sometimes occur, the arrangement can be good for all concerned.

- **Telecommuting**, sometimes called flexi place, is a work arrangement that allows at least a portion of scheduled work hours to be completed outside of the office, with work-at-home as one of the options. Telecommuting frees the jobholder from needing to work fixed hours, wearing special work attire, enduring the normal constraints of commuting, and having direct contact with supervisors. Home workers often demonstrate increased productivity, report fewer distractions, enjoy the freedom to be their own boss, and appreciate the benefit of having more time for themselves.
- Of course, when there are positives, there are also negatives. Many home workers feel that they work too much and are isolated from their family and friends. In addition to the feelings of isolation, many employees feel that the lack of visibility at the office may result in the loss of promotions.

3.43 Industrial relations

Industrial relations has three faces: science building, problem solving, and ethical. (Kaufman, 2009). In the science building phase, industrial relations is part of the social sciences, and it seeks to understand the employment relationship and its institutions through high-quality, rigorous research. In this vein, industrial relations scholarship intersects with scholarship in labor economics, industrial sociology, labor and social history, human resource management, political science, law, and other areas. Industrial relations scholarship assumes that labor markets are not perfectly competitive and thus, in contrast to mainstream economic theory, employers typically have greater bargaining power than employees. Industrial relations scholarship also assumes that there are at least some inherent conflicts of interest between employers and employees (for example, higher wages versus higher profits) and thus, in contrast to scholarship in human resource management and organizational behavior, conflict is seen as a natural part of the employment relationship. Industrial relations scholars therefore frequently study the diverse institutional arrangements that characterize and shape the employment relationship—from norms and power structures on the shop floor, to employee voice mechanisms in the workplace, to collective bargaining arrangements at company, regional, or national level, to various levels of public policy and labor law regimes, to "varieties of capitalism" (such as corporatism, social democracy, and neoliberalism).

When labor markets are seen as imperfect, and when the employment relationship includes conflicts of interest, then one cannot rely on markets or managers to always serve workers' interests, and in extreme cases to prevent worker exploitation. Industrial relations scholars and practitioners therefore support institutional interventions to improve the workings of the employment relationship and to protect workers' rights. The nature of these institutional interventions, however, differ between two camps within industrial relations (Budd et al, 2008). The pluralist camp sees the employment relationship as a mixture of shared interests and conflicts of interests that are largely limited to the employment relationship. In the workplace, pluralists therefore champion grievance procedures, employee voice mechanisms such as works councils and labor unions, collective bargaining, and labor-management partnerships. In the policy arena, pluralists advocate for minimum wage laws, occupational health and safety standards, international labor standards, and other employment and labor laws and public policies (Befort et al.,2009). These institutional interventions are all seen as methods for balancing the employment relationship to generate not only economic efficiency, but also employee equity and voice (Budd and John W., 2004). In contrast, the Marxist-inspired critical camp sees employer-employee conflicts of interest as sharply antagonistic and deeply embedded in the sociopolitical-economic system. From this perspective, the pursuit of a balanced employment relationship gives too much weight to employers' interests, and instead deep-seated structural reforms are needed to change the sharply antagonistic employment relationship that is inherent within capitalism.

3.44 History

Industrial relations has its roots in the industrial revolution which created the modern employment relationship by spawning free labor markets and large-scale industrial organizations with thousands of wage workers (Kaufman., 2009). As society wrestled with these massive economic and social changes, labor problems arose. Low wages, long working hours, monotonous and dangerous work, and abusive supervisory practices led to high employee turnover, violent strikes, and the threat of social instability. Intellectually, industrial relations was formed at the end of the 19th century as a middle ground between classical economics and Marxism, with Sidney Webb and Beatrice Webb's *Industrial Democracy* (1897) being the key intellectual work. Industrial relations thus rejected the classical econ. Institutionally, industrial relations was founded by John R. Commons when he created the first academic industrial relations program at the University of Wisconsin in 1920. Early financial support for the field came from John D. Rockefeller, Jr. who supported progressive labor-management relations in the aftermath of the bloody strike at a Rockefeller-owned coal mine in Colorado. In Britain, another progressive industrialist, Montague Burton, endowed chairs in industrial relations at Leeds, Cardiff and Cambridge in 1930, and the discipline was formalized in the 1950s with the formation of the Oxford School by Allan Flanders and Hugh Clegg (Ackers et al., 2005).

Industrial relations was formed with a strong problem-solving orientation that rejected both the classical economists' laissez faire solutions to labor problems and the Marxist solution of class revolution. It is this approach that underlies the New Deal legislation in the United States, such as the National Labor Relations Act and the Fair Labor Standards Act.

3.45 Theoretical perspectives

Industrial relations scholars have described three major theoretical perspectives or frameworks, that contrast in their understanding and analysis of workplace relations. The three views are generally known as unitarism, pluralist and radical. Each offers a particular perception of workplace relations and will therefore interpret such events as workplace conflict, the role of unions and job regulation differently. The radical perspective is sometimes referred to as the "conflict model", although this is somewhat ambiguous, as pluralism also tends to see conflict as inherent in workplaces. Radical theories are strongly identified with Marxist theories, although they are not limited to these.

3.46 Pluralist perspective

In pluralism, the organization is perceived as being made up of powerful and divergent sub-groups, each with its own legitimate loyalties and with their own set of objectives and leaders. In particular, the two predominant sub-groups in the pluralist perspective are the management and trade unions. Consequently, the role of management would lean less towards enforcing and controlling and more toward persuasion and co-ordination. Trade unions are deemed as legitimate representatives of employees, conflict is dealt by collective bargaining and is viewed not necessarily as a bad thing and, if managed, could in fact be channeled towards evolution and positive change.

3.47 Unitarist perspective

In unitarism, the organization is perceived as an integrated and harmonious whole with the ideal of "one happy family", where management and other members of the staff all share a common purpose, emphasizing mutual cooperation. Furthermore, unitarism has a paternalistic approach where it demands loyalty of all employees, being predominantly managerial in its emphasis and application. Consequently, trade unions are deemed as unnecessary since the loyalty between employees and organizations are considered mutually exclusive, where there can't be two sides of industry. Conflict is perceived as disruptive and the pathological result of agitators, interpersonal friction and communication breakdown.

3.48 Marxist/Radical perspective

This view of industrial relations looks at the nature of the capitalist society, where there is a fundamental division of interest between capital and labour, and sees workplace relations against this background. This perspective sees inequalities of power and economic wealth as having their roots in the nature of the capitalist economic system. Conflict is therefore seen as inevitable and trade unions are a natural response of workers to their exploitation by capital. Whilst there may be periods of acquiescence, the Marxist view would be that institutions of joint regulation would enhance rather than limit management's position as they presume the continuation of capitalism rather than challenge it.

3.49 Industrial relations today

By many accounts, industrial relations today is in crisis (Whalen and Charles J. 2008). In academia, its traditional positions are threatened on one side by the dominance of mainstream economics and organizational behavior, and on the other by postmodernism. In policy-making circles, the industrial relations emphasis on institutional intervention is trumped by a neoliberal emphasis on the laissez faire promotion of free markets. In practice, labor unions are declining and fewer companies have, industrial relations functions. The number of academic programs in industrial relations is therefore shrinking, and scholars are leaving the field for other areas, especially human resource management and organizational behavior. The importance of work, however, is stronger than ever, and the lessons of industrial relations remain vital. The challenge for industrial relations is to re-establish these connections with the broader academic, policy, and business worlds.

4. PROFESSIONAL EYE CARE MANAGEMENT

4.1 Introduction - Professional Eye Care Management

The global initiative vision 2020: The right to sight estimates that only 25 percent of existing infrastructure is used for eye care, while the target utilization is 90 percent. This requires a complete re-organization. Many providers have the potential to significantly enhance their service by adopting professional management practice and new technologies in clinical services. This chapter addresses this opportunity from a professional management perspective. The responsibilities of a hospital/clinic administrator could be broadly classified as managing patient care, functional areas, support services, and developmental work. Eye care providers need to focus on four (4) key areas. Strategic management to enhance the efficiency of their organizations requires

- (1) Human resources management
- (2) Quality management
- (3) Marketing and
- (4) Financial sustainability.

4.2 Strategic Management

The strategic management process starts with a clear transparent "vision" followed by situational analysis. Annual objectives are agreed upon by studying the magnitude of blindness, unmet needs, and organizational capacity. Objectives are translated into "operational strategies" in the areas of human resources, quality, marketing, and finance. Deviations of actual experience from objectives provide learning experiences which help to fine tune the strategies. As part of the strategic planning, organizations should consider vertical integration which brings together the following facilities.

- Optical shop
- Clinical laboratory
- Pharmacy
- Canteen

Together, these components help towards self sufficiency of the organization, and convenience of the patients. In the absence of these facilities business outlets often exploit patients.

4.3 Human Resources Management (Hrm)

Today the success of any organization is centred on its most powerful resources, its staff. We must invest in the workforce which is the real pillar of an organization. Personnel policy, covering human resources planning to retirement benefits, needs to be redesigned to delight our own people. Only a delighted employee can delight a customer. HRM is the foundation for quality. Successful organizations honour their people by recognizing them as "service partners" or "internal customer". Empowerment, continuous training and development are vital parts of HRM.

4.4 Quality Management

Consumerism has entered health care. Patients represent a group of consumers who ask relevant questions, and make their own decision. They look for the right services for the right money, ask questions about treatment options, look for more information, demand convenience, ask for evidence of quality, expect continuity of care, and explore alternative therapies. Quality means delighting customers. Customer orientation is the underlying principle of quality. Dimensions of quality, like promptness, accuracy, accessibility, and continuity of care, are focal points. Health care quality is broadly classified as clinical quality "and quality services". Controlling infections, monitoring complications, length of stay, V/A, follow-up rate, and safe medication are a few of the clinical quality measures that need continuous monitoring and improvement productivity governed by management systems and standard clinical protocols sharpen the clinical skills.

Maintenance need to be carried out on a number of levels: routine maintenance; for example cleaning and dusting; preventive maintenance actions carried out by in-house maintenance staff to prevent breakdowns or the failure of equipment before it actually occurs; scheduled maintenance through contracts with outside specialist agencies, availability of spare parts for equipment. Providing quality service means ensuring caring, friendly, customer service. Customers view quality through simple indicators such as smiling faces, the smell of fresh linen, general cleanliness and hygiene.

4.5 Marketing

The common citizen does not know where reasonable quality care is available at a reasonable cost. As professionals (such as ophthalmologist and optometrists) are reluctant to use marketing as a powerful information tool, many people are misguided by vested interest groups. It is therefore important to understand how best to inform people about the services available, so that they can make sensible judgment when seeking care. In long-term planning, the emphasis should be on detailed analysis of the environment, particularly consumer behaviour. Most organizations collect no information at all about their consumers. Whatever they do collect tends to be demographic. Rarely does one see awareness, perception, preference, and usage information. Organizations need to understand how individual patients seen, think, feel and act (Kotler et al, 1987). If a hospital (eye clinic) is genuinely interested in the welfare of the patients, reliable information and referral facilities should be available. Continuing medical education for optometrists, and quarterly news letters, are some of the ways to strengthen the referral system. Referring doctors look for an immediate response, communication about health condition of the referred patients.

Promotional tools are powerful communication tools; if used without violating advertising and medical ethics, they help to create awareness and demand for services. Providers need to address patients fear of pains, side effects, length of recovery time, and confusion about the extent of recovery. From registration to follow-up, sales promotions could be widely practiced. Corporate hospitals/clinic engage marketing executives to strength referrals. Camp organizers should see themselves as sales personnel responsible for promoting camps and building relationship with sponsors. In eye care it has been shown that outreach programmes and patient counselling are powerful marketing techniques to generate demand.

(a) Communing Outreach

Outreach programmes are essential in developing countries, as patients (clients or people) neither have access to care nor awareness of health problems. Screening camps, community-based rehabilitation, and school screening programmes are some of the common approaches used. Planning, community participation, involvement of ophthalmologist/optometrists, standardized systems and procedures, patient counselling and review are crucial to outreach programmes. Monitoring and reviewing performance and outcomes is important. The number of camps, number of patients examined, patients advised for surgery and operations completed, should be monitored to know how to improve the service. Free care combined with food and transportation enhances the acceptance rate. Patients need to be transported to the base hospital for operations on the day of the camps. Publicity for the outreach programmes also attracts paying patients to the hospital directly (Thulasiraj and Sirakumar, 2001).

(b) Patient Counselling

In many organizations, counselling has been one of the key contributors to dramatic growth. Patient counselling is a simple process of educating beneficiaries about the need to and importance of eye care. It builds confidence among potential patients. Counselling assist patients in decision making by giving detailed information about the operation, pre-operative care, postoperative care, discharge, and follow-up-counselling enhances patients' satisfaction, and those satisfied patient act as catalysts to bring more patients. A person who has completed his schooling, and who has good communication skills, could be identified as a trainee. In-house training should cover basic anatomy and physiology of the eye, common eye diseases, general surgical procedures communication, inter personal skills, and answers to hypothetical questions commonly raised by the public. Counselling needs to be supplemented by a model of an eye, I.O.L, and information materials printed in the local language. Counsellors should educate the patients on safe medication and personal hygiene. The outcome is better when the relatives of the patients participate. Patients are made to feel comfortable enough to share their problems, and counsellors are helped to understand the patients' views and other information about circumstances, which are vital for service planning.

4.6 Financial Sustainability

Irrespective of the consumer's ability to pay, health care organizations face ever-increasing costs due to rapid advancement in technology, increased expectations of staff, etc. Health care provision is labour intensive and staff salaries alone constitute a major percentage of the running costs. Blind adoption of western standards increase expenditure but really does not ensure quality. Since the resources generated are fairly limited, emphasis is on control of expenditures so that financial commitments can be met. There are different creative ways to control costs (Lumsdon, 1993). As the number of operations increases, the simple logic is that the more operations performed, the more the fixed cost is spread over and the more the cost per operation decreases. Pricing is influenced by location, competition, reputation, economic status, service differentiation, etc, and few hospitals are capable of attracting paying patients. The high cost is due to lighter workloads, or high direct expenses, such as attractive compensation to retain staff in remote areas. Hospitals/clinics that conduct camps at the base hospitals could not attract paying patients, as people tend to wait for the day of the camp. Service differentiation helps in practicing multi-tier pricing to attract people of different economic background, and in this way services can be made available at affordable cost.

4.7 Materials

Of the total cost, materials amount to approximately 40-45% of the operating budget. Cost containment in this area usually brings quick result that invariably are well accepted, unlike reduction of personnel costs. The purpose is to ensure control from acquisition to disposal of materials. Purchase policy, simple inventory techniques like safety stock and re-order level, standardization of supplies and equipment, and consumption report correlating to the level of activity (eg number of lenses issue and number of I.O.L implants in a month) help control the cost. Providers are responsible for eliminating unnecessary investigations, drugs and therapies, and for ensuring savings in the use of supplies and facilities.

5. CONCLUSION

People are the most critical resource a business has, and effective utilization of employee capability is the focus of the concentration in Organizational Behavior/Human Resources Management. Evaluating the needs of an organization, finding people to fill those needs, and providing an optimum environment conducive to high levels of motivation and performance are all aspects of the OB/HRM function in a business. Being current with the latest research, policies and thinking is an integral part of the concentration. Special attention is given in this concentration to issues of diversity management and effective team development skills.

Professional management practices would enhance staff satisfaction, improve quality, patient satisfaction, and public perception of services. This in turn would generate demand which could be met by providing a low-cost service through optimal use of available limited resources. Ultimately, eye care organizations will become part of vision 2020 by ensuring long-term sustainability.

REFERENCES

1. A critical perspective for social work (2 ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon. [2]
2. Ackers, (2000) "Reframing Employment Relations."
3. Ackers, Peter (2002) "Reframing Employment Relations: The Case for Neo-Pluralism, Industrial Relations Journal.
4. Ackers, Peter and Wilkinson, Adrian (2005) "British Industrial Relations Paradigm: A Critical Outline History and Prognosis," Journal of Industrial Relations.
5. Befort, Stephen F. and Budd, John W. (2009) Invisible Hands, Invisible Objectives: Erasing Workplace Law and Public Policy Into Focus, Stanford University Press.
6. Bobbins, S., Chatterjee, P., & Canda, E. (Eds.) (2005). Contemporary human behavior theory:
7. Budd, John W. (2004) Employment with a Human Face: Balancing Efficiency, Equity, and Voice, Cornell University Press.
8. Budd, John W. and Bhawe, Devashchesh (2008) "Values, Ideologies, and Frames of Reference in Industrial Relations," in Sage Handbook of Industrial Relations, Sage.
9. Daphne Taras (2008). "How industrial relations is marginalized in business schools: using institutional theory to examine our home base". In Charles J. Whalen. New Directions in the Study of Work and Employment: Revitalizing Industrial Relations As an Academic Enterprise. Edward Elgar Publishing, p. 124. ISBN 978-1-84720-452-3.
10. <http://books.google.com/books?id=HLObmbHZfl4C&pg=PA124>. Kaufman (2009), The Global Evolution of Industrial Relations.
11. Ed Rose (2008). Employment Relations. Financial Times/Prentice Hall. p. 96. ISBN 9780-273-71008-0. <http://books.google.com/books?id=Wv22Mi7H4MoC&pa=PA96>.
12. Hofstede, Geert (1977). Culture and Organization. New York: McGraw-Hill.
13. Hutchison, E. D. (2003). Dimensions of human behavior: Person and environment (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
14. John R Ogilvie; Susan T Cooper (2005). CLEP Principles of Management W/CDROM REA) - The Best Test Prep for. Research & Education Assoc.. p. 141. ISBN 978-0-7386-0125-0. <http://books.google.com/books?id=mH77mi8C1UC&pg=PA141>. Bruce E. Kaufman (2008). "The original industrial relations paradigm: foundation for revitalizing the field". In Charles J. Whalen. New Directions in the Study of Work and Employment: Revitalizing Industrial Relations As an Academic Enterprise. Edward Elgar Publishing, p. 31. ISBN 978-1-84720-452-3. <http://books.google.com/books?id=HLObmbH2fl4C&pg=PA31>.

15. Kaufman (2009), *The Global Evolution of Industrial Relations*.
16. Kaufman, Bruce E. (2004) *The Global Evolution of Industrial Relations: Events, Ideas, and the IIRA*, International Labour Office.
17. Kaufman, (2009) *The Global Evolution of Industrial Relations*
18. Kotler P, Clarke RN (1987): *Marketing for Health Care Organization*; pp. 278.
19. Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. and White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 271-301
20. Lumsdon K (1993) *American Hospital Association; Babe Boomers Grow Up; Cover Story, Hospital Health Networks*; Pp. 24-34.
21. Newstrom, John W. & Davis, Keith (1993). *Organizational Behavior: Human Behavior at Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
22. Paul Bantick; Rebecca Kay (2008). *Introduction to Human Resource Management*. Oxford University Press, p. 114. ISBN 978-0-19-9291526. <http://books.google.com/books?id=whXXTSOialEC&piz=PT145>.
23. Philip Lewis; Adrian Thomhill; Mark Saunders (2003). *Employee Relations: Understanding the Employment Relationship*. Financial Times/Prentice Hall. p. 3. ISBN 978-0-273-64625-9. <http://books.google.com/books?id=lnl mUcDW7OgC&pg PA3>.
24. Schriesheim, Chester A. The Great High Consideration: High Initiating Structure Leadership Myth: Evidence on its Generalizability. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, April 1982, 116, pp. 221-228.
25. Tannenbaum, R. & Schmidt, W. How to Choose a leadership Pattern. *Harvard Business Review*, May-June 1973, No. 73311 (originally published in March-April 1958 issue).
26. Thula Siroj RD, Sirakumar AK (2001); Cost Containment in Eye Care. *Community Eye Health* 14 (37): 6-8.
27. U.S. Army Handbook (1973). *Military Leadership*. nd
28. Whalen, Charles J. (2008) *New Directions in the Study of Work and Employment: Revisiting Industrial Relations as an Academic Enterprise*, Edward Elgar.

APPENDIX

Theory Of Human Behavior	Focus Of Theory	Main Concepts Re: Human Behavior	Some Theorists	Some Practice Applications	Some Practice Interventions
<p>SYSTEMS THEORY Includes: Ecological Systems [<i>Systems Perspective</i>] Includes: Family Systems [<i>Systems Perspective</i>]</p>	<p>How persons interact with their environment How the family system affects the individual and family functioning across the life-span</p>	<p>*Persons are in continual transaction with their environment *Systems are interrelated parts or subsystems constituting an ordered whole *Each subsystem impacts all other parts and whole system *Systems can have closed or open boundaries * Systems tend toward equilibrium *Individual functioning shapes family functioning and family</p>	<p>Parsons Merton Germain Gitterman Bowen Satir Minuchin Carter & McGoldrick</p>	<p>* Useful for developing holistic view of persons-in-environment * Enhances understanding of interactions between micro-meso-macro levels of organization * Enriches contextual understanding of behaviour * Useful for understanding</p>	<p>* Strengthen one part of the system or subsystem to impact the whole system * Ecomaps & genograms for understanding system dynamics * Networking & referrals to facilitate change * Assessment of family development and life-cycle transitions * Use of multi-generational genograms</p>
		<p>systems can create pathology within the individual *Boundaries, roles, communication, family structure influence</p>		<p>family systems and life cycles over multiple generations</p>	<p>* Use of family and parent coaching</p>

		family functioning			
BEHAVIORISM & SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY Includes: Cognitive theory, Behavioral theory, [Social Learning theory]	How individuals develop cognitive functioning and learn through acting on their environment	* Imitation & reaction To stimulation shape behavioral learning * Knowledge is Constructed through children physically and mentally acting on objects environment * Cognitive structures enable adaptation & organization	Pavlov Skinner Watson Piaget Bandura Beck	* Useful for enabling behavioural & symptomatic change * useful for assessing individual cognitive functioning, group & family interactions	* Behavioural interventions succeed as classical or operant conditioning, positive or negative reinforcement * Time-limited, problem-focused interventions * Cognitive reframing of automatic thoughts about presenting problems to facilitate change
THEORY OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR	FOCUS OF THEORY	MAIN CONCEPTS RE: HUMAN BEHAVIOR	SOME THEORISTS	SOME PRACTICE APPLICATIONS	SOME PRACTICE INTERVENTIONS
PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY Includes: Classical psychodynamic theory, Ego-psychology, Object-relations theory, Self-psychology [Psychodynamic Perspective]	How inner energies and external forces interact to impact emotional development	* Unconscious and conscious mental activity * Motivate human behavior * Ego functions mediate between individual and environment * Ego defense mechanisms protect individuals from becoming overwhelmed by	S. Freud Adler Jung Homey A. Freud Kernberg Kohut Klein Mahler Bowlby	* Useful for understanding inner meanings & intrapsychic processes * Useful for understanding motivation, adaptation, & interpersonal relationships * Useful for assessing strengths & ego functioning	Ego supportive treatment: * Clarification education, & support of adaptive functioning * Empathy & attention to affects and emotions * Understanding of ego defense mechanisms & underscoring of ego strengths * Establishing, building, & using the treatment relationship to facilitate change

		<p>unacceptable impulses and threats</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Internalized experiences shape personality development and functioning * Healing occurs through attention to transferences and the treatment relationship 			
THEORY OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR	FOCUS OF THEORY	MAIN CONCEPTS RE: HUMAN BEHAVIOR	SOME THEORISTS	SOME PRACTICE APPLICATIONS	SOME PRACTICE INTERVENTIONS
PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENTAL THEORY [Developmental Perspective]	<p>How internal & external forces shape life development, generally by life stages</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Human development occurs in defined & qualitatively different stages that are sequential & may be universal * Individual stages of development include specific tasks to be completed & crises to be managed * Time & social context shape & individualize the meaning of life stages 	Erikson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Useful for understanding individual growth & development across life cycle * Beneficial for assessing individual strengths & deficits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * General assessment of developmental functioning that can be compared with chronological age of the client

Theory Of Human Behavior	Focus Of Theory	Main Concepts Re: Human Behavior	Some Theorists	Some Practice Applications	Some Practice Interventions
<p>TRANSPERSONAL THEORY [Developmental Perspective; built upon Humanistic Perspective]</p>	<p>How the spiritual and religious aspects of human existence can be understood How spiritual development builds upon and goes beyond biopsychosocial development</p>	<p>* Focuses on meaning, connection, and purpose *Some people achieve developmental level beyond the personal (ego-based) level into transpersonal (beyond self or ego) levels of consciousness and functioning. *There is an inherent tendency to express innate potentials for love, creativity, and spirituality *There is a difference between psychopathological phenomena and spiritual growth experiences</p>	<p>Maslow Jung Fowler Wilber Washburn</p>	<p>8Provides nonsectarian frame for understanding spiritual aspects of human experience *Describes developmental process beyond self actualization *Provides guidelines for clinical discussions of spiritual or transcendent experiences *Stresses the importance of spiritual and religious support systems for life meaning and well-being</p>	<p>* Assess and understand client's spiritual & faith development *Ethically and appropriately utilize spiritually-derived interventions *Understand and support clients' spiritual and religious beliefs, practices, and support systems</p>

Theory Of Human Behavior	Focus Of Theory	Main Concepts Re: Human Behavior	Some Theorists	Some Practice Applications	Some Practice Interventions
SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY [Rational Choice Perspective]	How persons minimize costs and maximize rewards through social exchange	* Antecedents, consequences, personal expectations, and interpretation shape and maintain behaviour in the present * Self-interest determines social exchange * Unequal resources determine power inequities and reciprocity is essential * Six proposition: --Success proposition --Stimulus proposition --Value proposition --Deprivation-satiation --Proposition --Aggression-approval proposition --Rationality proposition	Human Thibault Kelley Blau	* Useful for assessing and understanding power inequities and distributed justice * Basis for cost-benefit analysis	Assess resources and power inequities at the meso-macro level * Facilitate group and community interaction * Maximize costs, minimize rewards in the macro environment

Theory Of Human Behavior	Focus Of Theory	Main Concepts Re: Human Behavior	Some Theorists	Some Practice Applications	Some Practice Interventions
SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM [Social Constructionist Perspective]	How sociocultural and historical contexts shape individuals and the creation of knowledge How individuals create themselves	*All experience is subjective and human beings recreate themselves through an on-going, never static process *Knowledge is created through an interplay of multiple social and historical forces *Social interaction is grounded in language, customs, cultural and historical contexts *All phenomenon, including the sciences, must be approached with doubt in order to understand how people construct reality *Humans are self-interpreting beings	Foucault Berger Luckmann Gergen	*Enhances understanding of individual and cultural connection *Useful for understanding non-dominant and oppressed groups in a non-marginalized manner	*Listen for cultured narratives *Approach practice with a stance of “not knowing” *View practice as “mutual interchange” because relationships have “mutual influence” *Recognize how individuals and groups construct their identities through an ongoing, fluid process

Theory Of Human Behavior	Focus Of Theory	Main Concepts Re: Human Behavior	Some Theorists	Some Practice Applications	Some Practice Interventions
SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM [Social Constructionist Perspective]	How the “Self” is influenced and shaped by social processes and the capacity to symbolize	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Human action is caused by complex interaction between and within individuals *Dynamic social activities take place among persons and we act according to how we define our situation *We act in the present, not the past *Individuals are actors on the stage and take on roles, interacting with the environment 	Charon Mead Goffman	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Enhances understanding of the relationship between the individual and society and the “Self” as a social process *Provides framework for individual, group, and societal assessment *Provides alternative view of deviance and psychopathology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Formulate assessment and intervene through understanding roles assumed by individuals and groups through individual and society interaction *Focus on diminishment of the sense of stigma for individuals, families, groups, and communities
CONFLICT THEORY [Conflict Perspective]	How power structures & power disparities impact people’s lives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *All societies perpetuate some forms of oppression& injustice and structural inequity *Power is unequally divided & some groups dominate others *Social order is based on manipulation and control by dominant groups *Social change is driven by 	Marx Marcuse Habermas Feminist theorists and GLBT theorists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Informs policy and may guide macro-level practice *Useful in formulating assessments involving oppression and client vulnerability *Enhances understanding of conflict between persons, ideas, groups, classes, & larger social structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Listen for evidence of oppression within individuals, groups, and communities *Pay attention to the role of conflict leading to client vulnerability *Organize to alter power relationships *Recognize that dominant

		<p>conflict, with periods of change interrupting periods of stability *Life is characterized by conflict not consensus</p>			<p>and subordinate groups compete for resources</p>
<p>CONTINGENCY THEORY [Systems Perspective]</p>	<p>How individuals & groups gain power, access to resources, & control over their lives, often through collective action</p>	<p>(Groups are open, dynamic systems with both change and conflict present *Groups are stratified, with different and unequal levels of power and control *High discrimination and low privilege equals low opportunity *Oppression occurs when upward mobility is systematically denied *The social context must be critiqued and deconstructed *Assumptions for analyzing organizations: -there is not best way to manage organizations -there must be a match between the environment and internal resources -the design of the organization must fit with the environment</p>	<p>Weber Scott Lawrence Lorsch March</p>	<p>*Useful in macro practice through providing framework for community work on behalf of the powerless and stigmatized *Provides assessment for identifying power blocks contributing to powerlessness *Provides understanding of the objective & subject dimensions of empowerment *Useful in administering programs by requiring a review of the organizational - environmental fit</p>	<p>*Explain & map the direction & role of collective action *Assess power blocks *Build individual & community strengths *Support upward mobility of oppressed groups *Empower oppressed & vulnerable populations through collective action *Assess internal and external resources to make structural and process decisions within a organization</p>

