MANAGERS AS EDUCATORS IN

BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS

by

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to

My loving family members

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ABSTRAK

Selama ini pembangunan ekonomi Malaysia telah disokong oleh pengeluaran hasil semulajadi yang banyak dan bermutu tinggi. Kekayaan yang dibawa oleh hasil tersebut tidak akan berterusan selamanya memandangkan ketidakpastian harga, kemerosotan penghasilan dari segi bahan semulajadi serta permintaan. Di dalam alaf baru yang mana teknologi canggih telah memainkan peranan penting, Malaysia mesti bergantung kepada sumber manusianya yang mempunyai kepakaran dan bermutu tinggi. Oleh itu bimbingan dan pendidikan untuk kemajuan bagi mereka yang tidak berpengalaman adalah sangat penting. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk menyelidik isu-isu berikut: Sejauh manakah tahap nilai diri, jangkaan peranan dan ganjaran akan menggalakkan pengurus-pengurus untuk melibatkan diri dalam mendidik atau membimbing kakitangannya, dan sama ada disebabkan oleh risiko-risiko yang dijangkakan dalam membangunkan kakitangan menyebabkan pengurus-pengurus mengelak melakukannya. Keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa nilai diri, jangkaan peranan dan ganjaran mempengaruhi secara signifikan ke atas tingkahlaku pengurus dalam membimbing kakitangannya. Walau bagaimanapun, risiko-risiko yang berkaitan dengan membangunkan kakitangan tidak mempunyai kesan ke atas perhubungan tersebut. Implikasi kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa pihak pengurusan haruslah berwaspada di dalam soal pengambilan kakitangan supaya mereka yang mempunyai nilai dan sikap yang baik sahaja diambil. Ini akan memastikan bahawa organisasi tersebut sentiasa kehadapan dalam dunia yang berdaya saing. Selain itu, kepentingan dalam mendidik kakitangan tidak hanya dikomunikasikan secara jelas sahaja, tetapi juga hendaklah dinyatakan dalam diskripsi tugas dan petunjuk prestasi pengurus-pengurus dalam organisasi perniagaan.

ABSTRACT

Malaysia's economic development to date has been supported principally by an abundant supply of natural resources. The wealth brought by these natural resources are certain to provide less opportunities for sustained development into the future given uncertain commodity prices, limited resources and slower growth in demand for these items. In the new millennium with advancement in technology all over the world taking the centre stage, Malaysia must come to rely on the skill and ingenuity of its most valuable resource – people. Thus the development of the inexperienced by the experienced is of utmost importance. This study seeks to address the issue of: To what extent do value, role expectation and rewards encourage managers to engage in educative behavior towards their subordinates, and whether perceived risk in developing their subordinates will deter managers from doing so. The result shows that value, role expectation and rewards did significantly influence the different dimensions of manager's educative behavior. However, the risk associated with developing subordinates did not affect the above relationship. The implications are that management should exercise extra care in employing staff so that those with the right value and attitude are recruited in order for the organization to stay ahead in this competitive world. Furthermore, the importance of educating subordinates should not only be clearly communicated, but also be incorporated into job description as well as Performance Indicators of managers in business organizations.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction to Study

Business organizations are social inventions for accomplishing tasks or goals. People join or form organizations because they realize that they can magnify their own abilities by working with others toward common objectives. Business organizations are not only a place where people earn a living, but also where people find happiness and fulfill their needs for affiliation.

Before the Industrial Revolution, most business organizations were related to agriculture or craftwork. Communication was primarily face to face. Organizations were small, with simple structure and fuzzy boundaries, and were generally not interested in growing larger. In the modern, industrial age, however, a new organizational paradigm emerged. Growth became a primary criterion for success. Organizations became large and complex, and boundaries between functional departments and between organizations were distinct. Environments were relatively stable, and technologies tended to be mass-production manufacturing processes. The primary forms of capital in the modern age were money, buildings and machines. Internal structures became more complex, vertical, and bureaucratic. Leadership was based on management principles and tended to be autocratic, while communication was primarily through formal, written documents such as memorandum, letters and

reports. **Managers** did all the planning and "thinking", while employees did the manual labour in exchange for wages and other compensation.

In the postmodern world of today, the environment is anything but stable, and the postmodern organization recognizes the chaotic, unpredictable nature of the world. In a world characterized by rapid change, complexity and surprise, managers can not measure, predict or control in traditional ways the unfolding drama inside or outside the organizations. To cope with this chaos, organizations need a new paradigm, in which they tend toward moderate size, with flexible, decentralized structures that emphasize horizontal cooperation. In addition, boundaries between organizations again become more diffuse, as even competitors learn to cooperate to meet turbulent environmental conditions. The primary form of capital in the postmodern organization is not money or machine, but **information** and **methods of training** (Boje et al. 1996 that provide workers more intrinsic satisfaction from their jobs. Workers are often empowered to make decisions once reserved for managers, and emphasis on a clear and powerful vision or mission helps to ensure that decisions are made to achieve the organization's overriding purpose. Sound management is still important in postmodern organization; however, leadership qualities are often quite different. "**Servant**" leadership takes center stage, **managers** serve employees especially as **educators/mentors** and these employees who will in turn serve customers. Qualities traditionally considered egalitarian –equality, empowerment, horizontal relationships and consensus building – are particularly important in the postmodern organizations (Boje et al, 1996).

Technology is probably the most dominant influence on life in the postmodern world. Of course, technology is not entirely new. Our ancestors had to adapt to the development of horse-drawn vehicles, sailing ships, steam engines, railroads, telephones, and automobiles. It is the pace of change in advanced technology and its pervasiveness in organizations that are entirely new phenomena.

Changes in technology bring about changes in the nature of work. We are now in the age of Information Technology. Routine tasks are becoming increasingly automated. This does not mean people will eventually be totally displaced. It does mean that they are being freed to take on more challenging and varied task. This will require them to be more flexible, to multi-task and to actively participate in decision-making. In order to prepare them for this, managers have to devote their time in **training** and **development** of their subordinates more than ever before. Seeing the importance of the role of the **managers as educators/mentors** in an employee's career development path, this study looks at the factors that encourage or motivate managers to engage in educative behavior for the development of their subordinates.

1.2   Problem Statement

Malaysia's economic development to date has been supported principally by an abundant supply of natural resources. The wealth brought by petroleum, palm oil, rubber and other primary products are certain to provide less opportunity for sustained development into the future given uncertain commodity prices, limited resources and slower growth in demand for these items. In the new millennium, with the

advancement in technology all over the world taking the centre stage, Malaysia must come to rely on the skill and ingenuity of its most valuable resource – people. Thus the development of the inexperienced by the experienced is of utmost importance. This study seeks to address the issue of: To what extent do value, role expectation and reward encourage managers to engage in educative behavior towards their subordinates, and whether perceived risk in developing subordinate will deter managers from doing so.

1.3   Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to find out the significance of each concept, as mentioned above, that motivate **managers** to assume the role of **teachers** for their subordinates. It is thus hoped that a guideline can be formulated for business organizations to redesign job content of their managers as well as a good system in order to encourage them to share their valuable experience with the inexperienced.

1.4   Scope of Study

This study attempts to clarify how the educative behavior of a manager is affected by manager's value towards training of subordinates, his/her role expectation and rewards expected from his/her organization. The respondents in this study are supervisory staffs in any business organization in the state of Penang, Malaysia.

1.5 Significance of Study

People will continue to be the greatest resource (asset) for any business organization. The development of people certainly can make a big difference in solving daily business problems, securing technological leadership, profitability, growth, and continuous improvement in productivity and quality. Therefore, it is incumbent upon the management to design and implement a work environment that supports individual enhancement, thus encouraging this individual to be more adaptable. Business organizations that endeavor to be market leaders should improve on their reward system and job content of their managers so as to encourage them to share their knowledge for development of human resources.

1.6 Definition of Terms and Related Concepts

There are three concepts used in this study, namely value, role expectation and reward.

The definition of each concept is as below: -

Value – A personal value refers to an ideal: to how we believe we should behave or to how we believe the world should be. In other words, it is a basic conviction that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally preferable (Robbins, 1996).

Reward – A system that is intended to achieve a number of objectives such as attracts individual to organization; ensures employees work attendance; motivate performance etc. **Formal Reward** refers to an increase in salary or a promotion whereas **Informal Reward** means esteem and respect from subordinates, superiors and peers (Shkop, 1987).

Role Expectations – **Role Expectations** is defined as how others believe a person should act in a given situation (Robbins, 1996).

Risk in Developing Subordinates – The risks associated with developing of subordinates are loss of authority; becoming dispensable and loss of respect from subordinates (Shkop, 1987).

Educative Behavior – The multiple behaviors which are associated with being a teacher, and which have been deemed appropriate to managers in work organizations by various management theorists, can be categorized (Shkop, 1987) as:

i)   Provision of reinforcement and feedback;

ii)   Creation of learning opportunities;

iii)   Instilling of confidence;

iv)   Expressing of concern for subordinate's career success.

These categories are distinct enough so as to provide some order and conceptual clarity in an attempt to delimit the kinds of managerial behaviors which are conducive to learning at work.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Review of Related Literature

In understanding the related knowledge on the subject of this study, literature related

to roles of managers, the elements of educative behavior and factors that encourage as

well as discourage managers to be educators were reviewed.

2.2   Managerial Roles

The word *manager* has been used in a variety of ways by industrialist and theorists.

To some the term *manager* means top executive. To others a *manager* is any person

who supervises other employees. The most commonly accepted view is to consider

managers as members of management all those who coordinate and direct the

activities of others plus all those administrative and staff who deal with others outside

their own group and who have a decided impact upon the organization. Thus **all**

supervisors from foreman up through a corporation president are decidedly

managers (Beach, 1975).

The roles of manager can be grouped as being primarily concerned with interpersonal

relationship, the transfer of information, and decision making (Mintzberg, 1973).

2.2.1 Interpersonal Roles

All managers are required to performed duties that are ceremonial and symbolic in nature (Mintzberg, 1973). When a factory manager gives a group of high school students a tour of the plant, he or she is acting in a *figurehead* role. All managers have a *leadership* role. This role includes hiring, training, motivating, and disciplining employees. The third role within the interpersonal grouping is the *liaison* role. Mintzberg (1973) described this activity as contacting outsiders who provide the manager with information.

2.2.2 Informational Roles

All managers will, to some degree, receive and collect information from organizations and institutions outside their own. This is considered as *monitor* role. Managers also act as a conduit to transmit information to organization members. This is the *disseminator* role. Managers additionally performed a *spokesperson* role when they represent the organization to outsiders (Mintzberg, 1973).

2.2.3 Decisional Roles

Finally, Mintzberg (1973) identified four roles that revolve around the making of choices. In the *entrepreneur* role, managers initiate and oversee new projects that will improve their organization's performance. As *disturbance handlers*, managers take corrective action in response to previously unforeseen problems. As *resource allocators*, managers are responsible for allocating human, physical, and monetary resources. Lastly, managers perform a *negotiator* role, in which they discuss and bargain with other units to gain advantages for their own unit.

2.3 Managerial Attributes

Based on almost 40 years of collective research and experience with virtually all types of organizations, Jaffee et al (1991) selected eight basic attributes that they believed were associated with managerial and supervisory successes, which in turn transformed into organizational success. Their eight basic attributes were divided into two categories: one that comprised competency factors and the other that comprised attitudinal factors.

Competency attributes involved the exercising of skills and abilities. This category includes the Administrator, the Analyzer, the Counselor, the Communicator, and the Meeting Coordinator. Attitudinal attributes are associated with wants, desires, and needs. This category includes the three remaining attributes: the Mentor, the Aspirer, and Self-Developer. Below are brief descriptions of the eight attributes: -

2.3.1 The Administrator

The *Administrator* demonstrates behaviors associated with structuring tasks for oneself as well as for others and establishing courses of action in order to achieve specific results. These tasks include coordinating resources, clarifying group objectives, and establishing systems to accomplish objectives. Delegating, guiding others, following up on their activities, and establishing systems by which people are held accountable to monitor their performance against predetermined measures are also important *Administrator* abilities. Good *Administrators* manage themselves as well as others by setting up systems through which tasks can be accomplished in the most effective fashion.

2.3.2 The Analyzer

The *Analyzer* demonstrates behaviors associated with the ability to perceive and interpret information. These tasks include identifying critical elements or essential factors in a situation, identifying relationships, and reaching sound and logical conclusions based on available information. In addition, identifying the need for decisions, generating alternatives when necessary, and selecting strategies to implement the decisions are all part of the behavior of the *Analyzer*. A good *Analyzer* evaluates available information, sees the separate parts of the problem, draws the appropriate conclusions, and follows the necessary courses of action under the circumstances.

2.3.3 The Counselor

The *Counselor* demonstrates behaviors associated with the ability to develop effective interpersonal relationships. Included in this category are establishing rapport, listening attentively, and displaying sensitivity to others. In addition, a good *Counselor* is available to others when the need arises, demonstrates concern for their problems and openness to their views and opinions, and encourages them to express their ideas and feelings. Along with these attributes, a good *Counselor* helps others to think things through, discusses problems objectively, and provides feedback without damaging others' self-esteem.

2.3.4 The Communicator

The *Communicator* demonstrates behaviors associated with the ability to be persuasive through either written or oral communications. Included in this category is some basic presentation skills, such as using the voice effectively, choosing

vocabulary appropriate for the audience, and using effective nonverbal accompaniments such as hand gestures or eye contact to emphasize issues or points of discussion. The good *Communicator* integrates the material around them and chooses the most effective words and phrases, whether to an audience of thousands or a single individual.

2.3.5   The Meeting Coordinator

The *Meeting Coordinator* demonstrates behaviors associated with the ability to influence others and contributes to the attainment of group goals in face-to-face situation. Included in this category are the abilities to state objectives or tasks to all concerned, to inform others of what is expected of them, to direct and coordinate others in the group, and to let others know of their importance to the success of the task at hand. Additional behaviors include helping others in the group to set and clarify goals, dealing with others in the group consistent with their needs and abilities. and holding oneself responsible for the quality and quantity of work produced. The good *Meeting Coordinator* comes into the meeting with a prepared but not inflexible agenda, evaluates and treats other group members as individuals consistent with their own goals and needs, and attempts to participate fully and set high standards of performance for the group output. The good *Meeting Coordinator*, no matter what his or her formal authority may be, aids the group in setting and measuring objectives consistent with their resources.

2.3.6   The Mentor

The *Mentor* demonstrates behaviors associated with developing and nurturing other individuals in order to allow them to grow to their maximum level of effectiveness in

a given situation. Included in this attribute are abilities such as: evaluating other individuals' strengths and weaknesses, a willingness to work with them and offer them opportunities to try things, and providing feedback on the quality of their attempts. In addition, the good *Mentor*, like the good coach, gives feedback continuously, not only on results, but also on how people are accomplishing their tasks, and continuously searches for learning situations and opportunities that will allow them to grow. In other words, the *Mentor* develops another individual by establishing a close and trusting relationship, thereby establishing an environment in which the individual feels comfortable making decision and taking risks.

2.3.7   The Aspirer

The *Aspirer* demonstrates behaviors associated with striving for a goal. The *Aspirer* constantly looks toward the future and works toward a greater level of perfection, a higher position, or generally, a better position on the job or in life. The *Aspirer* is characterized by a great need for achievement, a willingness to work hard, and a constant focus on a goal. In addition, *Aspirers* gain pleasure from their achievements and, no matter the environment in which they find themselves, will continuously ask questions, search for alternative answers and try to better their position. *Aspirers* will aspire toward perfection in managerial/supervisory situation because their values and goals are consistent with those associated with the managerial/supervisory situations.

2.3.8   The Self-Developer

The *Self-Developer* demonstrates behaviors associated with a need to develop one's own abilities to a greater degree. The Self-Developer is one who practices skills, enrolls in courses, and looks for feedback from others who are in a position to give it.

In other words, the *Self-Developer* typically strives for a higher level of performance in key areas with which he or she is concerned. Typically, Self-Developer are comfortable working on their skills either alone or with others, are generally well organized in regard to their time and how productively they use it, and are comfortable with negative as well as positive feedback.

2.4   Managerial Skill

Katz (1974) had identified three essential managerial skills for success, namely *technical skills, human skills* and *conceptual skills.*

2.4.1   Technical Skills

Technical skills encompass the ability to apply specialized knowledge or expertise. Through extensive formal education. managers have learned the special knowledge and practices of their field. Of course, professionals do not have a monopoly on technical skills and these skills do not have to be learned in school or formal training programs. All jobs require some specialized expertise and many people develop their technical skills on the job.

2.4.2   Human Skills

The ability to work with, understand. and motivate other people, both individually and in groups, describes *human skills.* Many people are technically proficient but interpersonally incompetent. They might, for example, be poor listeners, unable to understand the needs of others, or have difficulty managing conflicts. Since managers

get things done through other people, they must have good human skills to communicate, motivate, and delegate.

2.4.3 Conceptual Skills

Managers must have the mental ability to analyze and diagnose complex situation. These are *conceptual skills* (Katz, 1974). Decision making, for instance, requires managers to spot problems, identify alternatives that can correct them, evaluate these alternatives, and select the best one. Managers can be technically and interpersonally competent, yet still fail because of their inability to rationally process and interpret information.

2.5 Prevention of Skill Obsolescence

Technological change is often a cause of skill obsolescence in engineering, science, and the professions. Because of the rapid changes, the knowledge half-lives in electrical engineering and computer science are five years and two and a half years, respectively (Greer, 1995). In addition, other skilled workers and technician run a risk of having their skills becoming obsolete because of changes in technology and methods.

Technological change appears to affect individuals differently, as some grow and develop along with the new technology, others fall behind. For example, if an individual enters an administrative position it is likely to render him more vulnerable to obsolescence, as he will have less time for updating technical knowledge than if he

entered a teaching or research career. This was confirmed by Rothman and Perrucci (1971) who reported that the highest level of obsolescence were experienced by those in administrative position, while the lowest were experienced by those in research and development position. They concluded that obsolescence tends to decrease as the extent of involvement in professional activity increases. They also reported that limited technical responsibility increases vulnerability to obsolescence by allowing the degeneration of existing knowledge through disuse, and failing to stimulate self education because of the minimal expectations requirement of such position. Because technological obsolescence can limit an organization's strategic alternatives, obsolescence in this area can be devastating, and companies should have a strong incentive to invest in its prevention.

A number of suggestions have been offered for the prevention of skill obsolescence. One suggestion is to provide challenges, particularly of a technical nature for technical specialists, in the early years of individuals' careers. Those who face such challenges are less likely to become obsolete in later stages of their career. Likewise, responsibility, authority, participation, and employee interaction also appear to be related to the prevention of obsolescence. Periodic reassignments requiring new learning also help to prevent obsolescence and facilitate development. Managers can explicitly encourage employees to stay abreast of developments in the field by incorporating knowledge acquisition activities and accomplishment in performance evaluation and reward system. Managers can also set goal for updating knowledge and reward such goal accomplishments. In addition to these suggestions, funding attendance at conferences and providing time to read professional literature and journals can also help to prevent obsolescence. As the rapid rate of technological

change continues through the 1990s, the problem of obsolescence will need continued attention of managers.

This simple realization that people are our real asset illustrates the core of what will probably determine which countries and which organizations will thrive in the twenty first century (Seagal & Horne, 1997).

2.6   The Managers as Teachers

The use of the teacher metaphor resounds in the management literature of the past fifty-five years. Follett (1944) stated the following: -

> ... we shall all agree that it is one of the leader's chief duties to draw out from each his fullest possibilities. The foremen should feel responsible for the education and training of those under him, the heads of department should feel the same, and so all along up the line to the chief executive. ... I say that it is the part of the leader to educate and train. He must know how to do this.

Zorn (1955) in his work *The Manager's Role in Developing Subordinates* stated that most managers want to play a role in their subordinates' development. Helping a new, inexperienced employee to grow into an accomplished performer, or assisting a competent worker to refine and expand job skill – such activities strengthen the organization, confirm the supervisory manager's own competence, and bring deep personal satisfaction. Zorn further emphasized that On-the-Job Training was also considered as an educative behavior of a manager which included a foreman teaching

a worker; an experienced worker teaching the inexperienced; a high level manager sharing with a group of subordinates new management skill learned recently. This theme of manager as educator resounds even more clearly in the recent management literature. Collier (1979) observed:

In an important sense the role of the administrator seems destined to become more and more that of the instructor – the kind of teacher who understand his pupils, accepts their differences, commands their respect, and inspires them to creative work.

In conclusion, training represents a positive hope for persons first entering the world of work or for individual changing their work environment. When training is designed and conducted well by **Manager** as **Teacher.** it does not only give individual opportunities to enter the job market with needed skills, to perform new functions. to be promoted into new situations, but will also cure organizational ills (Cherrington, 1995).

2.7   Elements of Educative Behavior of Managers

Continuing education and other training program provided by managers have been the traditional ways of helping subordinates keep up-to-date according to many studies of obsolescence. Other evidence by Saunders et al. (1974) indicated that there has also been a tremendous growth in in-company courses which are tailor made for companies because universities and colleges were not providing the relevant type of

training for people in organizations. Managers as mentors as illustrated by Reg Hamilton (1993) showed that some mentoring relationship begin when senior people take an interest in, and promote the cause of, a subordinate or person they believe has untapped potential.

Although much has been written about managers as teachers/mentors, little literature provide a comprehensive theory of instruction which could illuminate elements of educative behavior which managers engage themselves in to make their subordinates learn. It was Shkop (1987) who through her research work categorized the elements of **Educative Behavior** as follow: -

2.7.1   Provision of Reinforcement and Feedback

A condition necessary for learning (according to various theories) is feedback and reinforcement. Skinner (1953) and McGregor (1967) stated that managers can expect repeated and persistent responses if these responses are rewarded. Learning theories (Goldstein, 1974), motivation theories (Vroom, 1964), and socialization theories (Bandura et al.,1969) depict that behavior is changed, and desired behaviors retained through response-contingent reinforcement. It is thus expected that managers who engage themselves in educative behavior will provide immediate feedback to their subordinates, and will give rewards that are contingent on desired performance (Shkop, 1987). Managers who are seen as educators will strive to be the source of positive reinforcement (Sims & Szilagyi, 1975; Hall & Fukami, 1979), thereby assuring that desired learning is not extinguished.

2.7.2 Creation of Learning Opportunities

Managers provide their subordinates with opportunities to learn more techniques and information. They do so as rewards for satisfactory performance of their subordinates and stimulating more of these satisfactory performances (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966), or as a method to facilitate advancement and future succession (Walker, 1980). These managers will add progressively difficult and sophisticated tasks as the subordinate indicates mastery of simpler ones (Gagne, 1967; Knowles, 1970; Goldstein, 1974). They encourage the subordinate's expression of his opinions and reflections, and demonstrate a tolerance for differences in perspectives (Kolb, 1976). They provide opportunities for application of principles and skills (Goldstein, 1974; Kolb, 1976; Hall & Fukami, 1979), encouraging the subordinate to spend more time on those areas and skills in which he or she is weak (Atkinson, 1972).

2.7.3 Instilling of Confidence

Managers who engage themselves in educative behavior will drive out their subordinate's fears associated with trying new things (Knowles, 1970; Knox, 1977). They appear to believe that their subordinates can learn even though they know that their subordinate's aptitude is low. They instill confidence in their subordinates even if their subordinates perceived themselves as having little chance to succeed initially (Kanter, 1977).

Managers high in self-confidence are not reluctant to share their knowledge (Kipnis & Lane, 1962; Jennings, 1967; Levinson, 1968; Kanter, 1977); they believe that their

subordinates want to learn and they are willing to teach. Therefore, they are actively involved in activities which are directed towards development and promotion of their subordinates (Jennings, 1971; Kanter, 1977; Jablin, 1979; Hunt & Michael, 1983). They also do not criticize their subordinates publicly but correct them discretely and in private (Simons, 1962; Luthans & Kreitner, 1975; Hamner & Hamner, 1976). Their final aim is to instill a positive self-image and self-confidence in their subordinates (Klemp, 1977).

2.7.4   Expressing Concern for Subordinate Career Success

Barton (1982) found that the strongest reason why adults participate in training and development is for their career development. This is consistent with Knowles' (1970) theory of andragogy which posits that in adults readiness to learn is oriented increasingly to the development tasks of social roles.   Therefore, managers that engage in educative behavior will explain to their subordinates how a particular training program will improve their job performance and thereby allow them to attain desired rewards – increase visibility, more interesting assignments, and promotion. The managers as educators will publicize their subordinates' accomplishment. They reward subordinates' performance by finding opportunities for the subordinates to demonstrate his or her knowledge and expertise. In so doing they promote the subordinate's career while integrating the subordinate's goals with the goal of the organization. Belief that desired performance will be rewarded, and that learning is a contingency upon which rewards are dependent, not only motivates employees to learn, but also enhance their commitment to the organization (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Buchanan, 1974; Podsakoff et al., 1982).

2.8 Factors That Encourage Managers to be Educators

Virtually every study of managers' actual behavior on the job has pictured them as constantly reacting to a barrage of demands and spending a considerable amount of time interacting with others. According to Hannaway (1989), reasons for managers to behave reactively are more related to their private interest than to the general interest of the organizations. One of the primary personal objectives of managers is to avoid risk. Specifically, they do not want to be held responsible for mistakes. Downs (1967) stated that managers are significantly motivated by their own self-interest. We can thus summarize that managers will engage in educative behavior if they perceive that there are rewards associated to educating of subordinates and the risk involved is low.

2.8.1 Rewards

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs tells us that people do what they do to satisfy different needs. Before these people do anything, they look for the payoff or reward basing on their respective hierarchical level. The types of rewards or payoff an organization can allocate are more complex than is generally thought. However, these rewards can be categorized as *Formal Rewards* (such as financial gains; promotion or increase responsibility and commendation) and *Informal Rewards* (such as gestures or expressions of gratitude and approval from superior, subordinates and peers; good feeling of being respected and the personal commitment of obliged subordinates) (Robbins, 1996). Furthermore, if promotion, bonuses, approval and recognition are more likely to be attained through other activities, it is expected that a manager will indulge in those activities rather than in teaching subordinates (Kerr, 1975).

2.8.2 Values

Values represent basic convictions that "a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973). It has been argued repeatedly that the effects of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards on one hand, and costs, on the other, depend largely on their "Subjective Operationality" (March & Simon, 1958) which is determined largely by the individual's attitudes and values.

Employing Katz's (1979) definition, an attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol of object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Attitudes consist of both affective and cognitive elements, and thus are expressions of likes and dislikes as well as beliefs about what is right and wrong. Specific attitudes organized into a hierarchical structure comprise a value system. While behavior is shaped by personal wishes and likes as well as values. The effect of the latter is more enduring and marked in the adult (Katz, 1979; Mitchell, 1982), statement of values express beliefs of what a person "should do".

Indeed at the heart of the various expectancy theories lies the assumption that values determine which rewards an individual prizes, and consequently in which type of activity an individual will engage (Atkinson, 1964; Vroom, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Lawler, 1971). Values lend the "subjective" nature to criteria by which March and Simon (1958) say individual manager make choices. It is expected, therefore, that managers who choose to educate their subordinates, in the absence of rewards and in spite of their perceptions that doing so is not expected by the organizations, do so primarily because of their beliefs that a manager 'Should' develop employees.

2.8.3 Role Expectations

Role Expectations is defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation (Robbins, 1996). How you behave is determined to a large extent by the role defined in the context in which you are acting. In the workplace, it can be helpful to look at the topic of role expectations through the perspective of the **psychological contract.** An unwritten agreement exists between employees and their organization. This psychological contracts set out mutual expectations – what organization expects from workers, and vice versa (Robinson et al, 1994). In effect, this contract defines the behavioral expectations that go with every role. Organization is expected to treat employees justly, provide acceptable working conditions, clearly communicate what is a fair day's work, and give feedback on how well the employee is doing. Employees are expected to respond by demonstrating a good attitude, following directions/job description, and show loyalty to the organization.

What happens when role expectations as implied in the psychological contract are not met? If organization is derelict in keeping its end of the bargain, we can expect negative repercussions on employee's performance and satisfaction. When employees fail to live up to expectations, the result is usually some form of disciplinary action up to and including firing.

Beyond the behaviors specified in the job description, there are various activities which are associated with a managerial job and which are expected of the job holder. Downs (1967) argues that "each bureaucratic position exerts a certain amount of pressure upon its occupant to exhibit specific behavior patterns." Compliance with these "role expectation" (Katz & Kahn, 1966) may not be linked in a direct way to

specific rewards, but is a contingency upon which membership in the organization depends.

In an organization in which educative behaviors are parts of the role to be performed by its managers, it can be expected that managers will engage in these behaviors at level higher than in an organization in which such behaviors are not expected. If developing of subordinates is not part of role expectation, and a manager who engages himself in such a behavior, he is actually doing so at the expense of other behavior which is specified in role expectation.

The perception that a manager should be a teacher will be reinforced if experience has proven that mentorship, coaching and developing one's subordinate is an organizational value (Schein, 1978). Thus, it can be expected that those who have had mentors are more likely to become mentors (Jennings, 1971; Hunt & Michael, 1983). The formal job description as formulated by superiors, gives the most explicit message of required behaviors, and to the extent that the job description is used as a basis for Performance Evaluation is even more effective. Formalized role expectation can be considered more powerful than informal messages sent by those who cannot fire a manager (Green & Organ, 1973; Szilagyi, 1977). The differentiation between the function of role expectations from the function of rewards is not unlike Herzberg's (1966) differentiation between hygiene factors and motivators. The strength of role expectations is manifested mainly when they are violated, whereas the fulfillment of role expectation is taken for granted.