HUMAN BEHAVIOUR AND PRODUCTIVITY IN ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Every organization utilizes the skills and knowledge of its workforce to achieve its set objectives. To obtain maximum productivity from the work-force, the workers need to be motivated to put in their best at all times. Naturally, in an effort to motivate employees, the law of individual differences has to be taken into consideration. Every individual possesses different behaviour, values, character and preference. As a result of these differences, what motivates one person may not motivate the other. For this reason, the management of each enterprise must intelligently work out the most effective motivation theory or method to be applied to get the best out of its employees. No one motivation method is the best at all times and for all categories of workers. Emphasis should not be placed on motivation method but on the outcome of motivation. Motivation theories and methods are means to an end, the end result being employees' productivity which enables the organization to achieve it s set objectives.
*Key words: **Organization, Labour force, Productivity, Motivation, Behaviour***

INTRODUCTION

People from various backgrounds and with different skills and qualifications find themselves working in various establishments such as colleges, universities, hospitals, banks, oil companies, etc. Such establishments are generally called organizations. An organization is therefore a collection of persons with diverse skills and knowledge but bound together by a formal relationship for the purpose of achieving common objectives.

The objectives of an organization are always specified in the instrument or charter establishing it. People join organizations primarily to work and earn their living. But they are expected to put their effort and energy into the attainment of the objectives of the organization. Hence, their behaviour at work impacts productivity and serves as the major determinant of the extent to which the organization can achieve its set objectives. As a general rule, each employee within an organization is expected to put the interest of the organization above his own personal interest.

PERSONALITY TRAITS AND PERFORMANCE

Each individual in an organization exhibits peculiar personality traits. We all notice distinct personal styles of people dealing with their work environments; the way they react to challenging situations and to their fellow workers in the workplace. One thing we must be aware of is that there is no one best personality that makes for the best productivity or performance. People display a variety of personality characteristics and it is this variety that we depend upon for a diverse environment that fosters an appropriate fit for our various roles.

Social scientists have broadly divided personality traits into five groups (Francesco and Gold, 1998):

1. **Extroversion:**   Extroversion is defined as the extent to which a person is out-going or shy. Extroverts typically feel comfortable in social situations, whereas introverts or shy people tend to avoid social situations. Certainly, people who are extroverts can do better in the marketing department of an organization where the job requires friendliness, moving out to meet customers and cheerfully making out-door sales.

2. **Agreeableness:**   This implies the degree to which a person is approachable or friendly. People who are agreeable tend to admire and welcome friends and customers and they are also socially mixable. Less agreeable people like to remain distant from social situations. Successful chief executives are usually dynamic and agreeable.

3. **Conscientiousness:**   Conscientiousness represents the degree to which a person is approachable, reliable, dependable and organized. People who are low on this scale are unreliable, disorganized and easily distracted. Conscientious employees do their best to achieve results irrespective of whether or not their bosses are monitoring their performance.

4. **Emotional Stability:**   This implies that people can understand and manage stress levels very well. They tend to have high self-esteem and display self-confidence. People who are low on this scale show signs of nervousness, anxiety and insecurity.

5. **Openness to Experience:**   Openness is a dimension that characterizes fascination and range of interests. People who are very open to experience are curious and creative, and even artistic. People who are less open to experience tend to be conservative and prefer to live with the status quo. Successful managers are usually open to experience and interactive.

PERSONAL CONCEPTIONS

Personal conceptions which represent the way we feel about our environment (psychological and physical), as well as our major beliefs and personal perspectives also affect our behaviour in the work place and ultimat5ely our pr4oductivity. One measurement of this is locus of control which reflects an individual's perception of whether or not events are within his or her control. People with internal locus of control believe that they are in control of their own destiny. On the other hand, people with external locus of control are of the impression that, for the most part, events and outcomes are beyond their control and that their fate is determined by environmental factors outside their control.

Machiavellianism is another personal conception that is often mentioned in organizational behaviour literature. This personality characteristic is named after Niccolo Machiavelli, an Italian politician who, in the 16th century, wrote his book "The Prince" which justified the use of wicked and immoral methods to achieve power and success. In his thesis, he argued that a successful end result justifies the means by which you achieved such result (Hornby, 2005). What is today known as "Mach Scale" has been developed as an instrument that measures a person's Machiavellian orientation. A Machiavellian person is selfish and gets motivated only in a way that will represent personal gain. He does not concern himself with others, and does not hesitate to manipulate others should he perceive a selfish need to do so.

The Mach Scale measures low and high behaviour and it is useful in helping managers to predict the behaviour of employees. A person who rates high on the scale will have a greater probability of success in face to face versus indirect personal associations, and will prefer to work in less structured, informal environments. He might be perceived as calm and detached from emotional situations. A low Mach person, on the other hand, depends on structure and has a preference to consider the feelings and aspirations of others in his decision-making. To the question, What Mach Scale makes the best employee? The answer is dependent on organizational requirements. Certainly, if the organization measures performance and results only without considering the means by which the superior performance was achieved, then high Mach might be the appropriate choice to achieve planned objectives. On the other hand, should the organization consider ethical behaviour to be a significant component of performance appraisal, there might be a preference to employ a person who is rated as a low Mach.

THE CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION

Motivation serves as the driving force of productivity. It is the force within a person that establishes the level, direction and persistence of effort expended at work. The theory of motivation helps us to explain why people behave in a certain manner. It shows how behaviour gets started and how it is energized, sustained and directed towards expected performance. We can picture motivation as consisting of a chain reaction beginning with unsatisfied needs, resulting in wants which give rise to tension and this in turn leads to action directed at satisfying the needs.

An individual behaves in such a manner as will enable him to reach a goal that will reduce the amount of tension in him. For example, if a man experiences hunger, he will try to find some food. After he had succeeded in getting the food and eating it, the symptoms of hunger will stop and the uncomfortable sensation in his stomach will disappear. In the case of motivation, with the disappearance of the inner state of tension (in this case hunger) which was achieved through the eating of food, he no longer feels an urge to find something to eat. In its simplest form, this is the general model of behaviour which is always goal-directed and powered by an internally felt need to act.

From the above analysis, we can define motivation as an internal driving force that results in the direction, intensity and persistence of behaviour (Inegbenebor, 1995). Before we begin discussion on popular motivation theories, it is necessary to explain some words that are important for our understanding of motivation models. These words are: Needs, Rewards and Satisfaction. A need is a state in which an individual feels a deficiency. Needs can either be primary or secondary. Primary needs are physiological in nature in that they enable us to survive. For example, the need for food, air, water, sleep and sex. Secondary needs, on the other hand, are social-psychological in nature. They are usually learned with age and experience. Example of such needs include; the need for power, achievement, esteem, affection and belongingness.

Reward is anything that an individual perceives as valuable. What is considered a reward and its relative value often differ widely with different people. Rewards motivate and induce an individual to perform and may be either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are granted to the employees by management. Examples are wages and salaries, promotion, fringe benefits, status symbol such as; carpeted and air-conditioned office, etc. Intrinsic rewards, on the other hand, are obtained from the job itself through the design of tasks and working conditions. Examples are job satisfaction, feelings of achievement, challenging responsibilities, etc.

Satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is fulfilled. In other words, motivation implies a drive towards an outcome and satisfaction is the outcome already experienced. It could happen that a person may have a high job satisfaction but a low level of motivation and vice versa. When this happens, there is the probability that a highly motivated person with a low job satisfaction will look for another position elsewhere. Naturally, organizations seek out individuals who are motivated to perform well in the workplace. In addition, they hope to employ people who have the ability to motivate others with whom they work such as; subordinates, peers, and superiors. If organizations can motivate employees to become effective problem solvers and to meet or exceed customer expectations, then a number of organizational goals and objectives can be realized without difficulties. But individuals are complex, diverse, and often difficult to predict. No one motivation theory can explain human motivation, especially across diverse cultures.

Content and Process theories of Motivation

From a conceptual perspective, motivation is divided into "content" and "process" theories. Content theories are needs theories that identify a variety of needs that motivate individuals, while process theories examine the thought process that determines behaviour. For example, if we have a need for a sense of belonging in our work team, that would be identified through content theory as a specific need. What process theory would do is to identify how the establishment or absence of the feeling of belonging affects one's behaviour at work. Therefore, content theories are needs theories which are concerned with explaining what motivates people in terms of their individual needs. We have four needs theories, namely, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory, McClelland's Trichotomy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory.

Content Theories

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is one of the motivational theories most widely discussed. Maslow was of the opinion that human needs are arranged in form of hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest point starting with the most basic needs. Each need must be satisfied before the individual will desire to satisfy a need at the next higher level. Once a need has been satisfied, that need becomes dormant and no longer controls behaviour. Thus, the needs that will motivate the individual are those needs that are most powerful to him at that given time. In order of priority, Maslow identified five broad categories of human needs as follows: Physiological needs, safety needs, social or affiliation needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. This means that physiological needs have priority over safety needs, safety needs have priority over social needs and so on. Let us discuss each of these needs in detail.

1.   Physiological Needs: These are the basic needs that people must satisfy in order to remain alive. They include; the need for food, water, warmth, shelter and sleep. Maslow was of the view that these needs must be reasonably satisfied to the extent that they can sustain life before other needs can emerge.

2.   Safety Needs: Once physiological needs are relatively satisfied, the individual's safety needs influence his behaviour. These needs have to do with man's yearning to be free from physical danger and pain. At the workplace these safety needs manifest themselves in such things as the wish for job security, grievance procedure for protecting the individual from unilateral authority, maintenance of savings account to provide for the rainy day, taking up insurance policy, etc.

3.   Social (Affiliation) Needs: The individual is a social being and he implicitly expresses the desire for companionship, love and acceptance. He seeks the love and affection of families and friends, and affiliation with groups both in the community and at the workplace. He craves the active giving and receiving of sentiments, compliments, communication and activities that

characterize social life. The most important element here is the reassuring effect of sharing ideas, opinions and views. It is necessary to emphasize that people may join others partly to satisfy affection needs and partly for greater security.

4.   Esteem Needs: With affiliation needs satisfied, new needs emerge, like the desire for social esteem and prestige. People want to be seen as different from others. Everyone wants to shine and be in the public eye. Besides social esteem, one is equally interested in what one things of oneself. The need for social esteem, competence and the feeling that one is capable of meeting challenges emerge. One enjoys the ego satisfaction in awareness of the dependence and gratitude of others. At work, a position of authority, a company car or an office carpet are means by which esteem needs are satisfied.

5.   Self-Actualization Needs: At the top of the needs hierarchy is the individual's drive for achievement, creativity and growth. The individual would want to create and achieve everything he is capable of achieving. He satisfies the need for achievement by the process of increasing effort and experiencing successful completion. When challenged, he exhibits basic attitude showing determination and perseverance. He sets difficult but achievable objectives for himself and reaches them through personal effort with delight and satisfaction.

As already discussed, Maslow argued that as soon as one level of needs is met, those needs will no longer motivate behaviour. It is an interesting theory, but it has not received much empirical support. It has been criticized on the grounds that there may be needs other than those in Maslow's hierarchy that motivate people such as spiritual needs. In addition, these needs vary in order and importance because of cultural distinctions. In collectivist culture, higher order needs of self-esteem and self actualization may become less important. Some cultures are high on uncertainty, thereby making safety needs more important. Other cultures that have masculine or feminine dominance can influence the importance of different needs (Francesco and Gold, 1998).

Alderfer's ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer offered a "collapsed" version of maslow's hierarchy and argued that more than one need may be activated at the same time. In addition, his theory suggested that higher needs become more important as they are satisfied, rather than less important. The ERG theory suggested that human needs are broken down into three classes, namely; Existence needs, Related needs and Growth needs. Alderfer's theory argued that should one not fulfill a higher order need, then he will have an increased desire to satisfy a lower-level need. And this allowance for looking back to lower level needs offers a more flexible approach to understanding individual motivation than Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

McClelland's Trichotomy of Needs Theory

In the 1940s, David McClelland, a psychologist created what is known as the TAT (Thematic Appreciation Test), to measure human needs. These tests necessitated viewing and interpreting pictures. People were to look at the pictures and then develop stories about the meaning, that is, what they saw in the picture.

McClelland identified three themes as a result of these TAT tests, and proposed a set of higher-order needs, including need for achievement (nAch), need for affiliation, (nAff), and need for power (nPower). He argued that unlike Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Alderfer's ERG theory, these three needs are learned rather than instinctive. Need for achievement (nAch) exists when individuals place priority on the quality of the work and have a preference for situations that enable them to shape the outcome. They tend to set difficult but realistic goals and are willing to take moderate or calculated risks. Persons with high (nAch) will work hard towards a goal primarily because it motivates them. Need for affiliation (nAff) focuses on establishing and maintaining relationships with others. Individuals with this need tend not to be competitive. They prefer cooperation and conformity. Finally, need for power (nPower) is often evident among middle and upper-level of management because these individuals, by the nature of their position, must influence other members of the organization. They may make use of their position of power for the good of the organization.

McClelland conducted cross-cultural studies with a focus on the need for achievement. He developed training programmes that included achievement-oriented behaviour in business games, as well as writing about achievement-oriented stories. He found that participants in the training programmes in the United States, Mexico and India were more successful in their environments than those without training and concluded that these needs can indeed be learned. It is important to note, however, that their success depended on an environment that supported achievement-oriented behaviour. Further studies indicated that cultures that emphasized a collectivist focus (such as Mexico and India) contradicted the individualistic nature of achievement needs (Misra and Kanugo, 1994).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg postulated the two-factor theory of motivation in which he explicitly distinguished between factors that motivate employees to put up higher productivity and those that do not motivate them. He referred to those factors that motivate people to perform as motivators, satisfiers. These are factors such as achievement, recognition, advancement, the work content itself, personal growth in the job and responsibility. When they are present or available in the work environment, they have the potential of giving employees a sense of satisfaction. By the absence of satisfiers, the level of satisfaction will be reduced to zero, that is employees will not be motivated to work. In other words, the presence of satisfiers produced satisfaction on employees but not necessarily motivation but their absence de-motivates employees.

The factors that do not motivate employees are called hygiene factors or dissatisfiers. They include such factors as company policy and administration, quality of supervision, relations with others, job security, working conditions and status. He maintained that their existence in the work environment in high quantity and quality do not motivate in the sense that, they do not bring about job satisfaction for the employees. They are essentially preventive factors that reduce dissatisfaction, that is, their absence in the work environment will lead to a high level of

dissatisfaction. Note carefully that motivators are factors which lead to workers satisfaction, while hygiene factors are factors which prevent dissatisfaction. Herzberg argued that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are separate dimensions – so if the company improves a hygiene factor, such as working conditions, it might not cause people to be satisfied at work, but it might prevent them from becoming dissatisfied.   Associating this theory to human hygiene, keeping good hygiene will not directly improve health, but the absence of good hygiene can create health problems.

There are a number of managerial implications of this theory. Of importance is the fact that the findings of this theory are not universal. In some countries, hygiene factors such as supervision and interpersonal relationships are perceived as motivators rather than hygiene factors. So, while we learn from this theory that the elimination of de-motivators will not directly motivate employees, how we define motivators and hygiene factors will vary across diverse cultures.

Process Theories

Unlike content theories which focus on what motivates people, process theories examine how and why people are motivated. We will review two of these theories; the equity theory and the expectancy theory.

Equity Theory

The equity theory suggests that if people perceive a level of inequity or unfairness when they compare their work situation to that of others, they will be motivated to do something about it in order to create (at least in their minds) a better or more accurate sense of fairness. The theory distinguishes between felt negative inequity and felt positive inequity. Felt negative inequity emerges when an individual feels that he or she is receiving less (in the way of compensation, or recognition, or advancement) than others are getting in proportion to work input. For example, if I work diligently for 10 hours per day as my colleague does but my colleague also takes two hours lunch break and talks to his friends on the phone which I am not given the same privilege, I will experience felt negative inequity.

Felt positive inequity exists when we feel that, compared with others, we are actually getting more. When feelings of either negative or positive inequity exist, there are a number of actions we might take to remedy this sense of inequity. These actions include:
1.   Changing work input (putting less hard work in your duties)
2.   Changing the outcome, that is, rewards. We may ask for salary increase.
3.   Quitting the job entirely.

4.   Changing comparison points, that is, changing the way you compare yourself with another worker.
5.   Psychologically distorting the comparisons (e.g., assume that the situation is temporary).
6.   Doing something to change the input or output of the comparison person.

Studies have demonstrated that when individuals perceive that compensation and reward systems are equitable, they have greater level of job satisfaction and are willing to remain committed to organizational objectives.

Expectancy Theory

Victor Vroom developed the expectancy theory. He examined the source of motivation for individuals who want to contribute to the organization and their desire to work. The theory says that work motivation is determined by individual beliefs regarding effort-performance relationships and work outcomes. For example, I might think that, by working very hard for few months, I will get the promotion I have been expecting. The expectancy theory has three parts: Expectancy, Instrumentality and Valence.

Expectancy is a person's sense of the probability that he can actually do the work. (Am I competent enough to do the work? Do I have enough time to do it? Do I have enough assistants to accomplish the task?) Our expectancy lies somewhere between 0 and 1. If I know unequivocally that I can do the job, my expectancy will be equal to 1. If I know for sure that I cannot do the job because I have zero skill for it, my expectancy will be equal to 0. Instrumentality is like probability which is expressed as a number between 0 and 1.

Instrumentality refers to our perception of the probability that doing this work will actually lead to or result in the desired outcome. If I make these sacrifices (for example spend less time with my family in order to put more effort in my work), what are my chances of getting the promotion? If I am certain that I will get it (given those sacrifices), instrumentality will be equal to 1. If I am certain that I will not get it, instrumentality will be equal to 0.

Valence is the value that we attach to the actual outcome. Unlike expectancy or instrumentality, valence is a number between -1 and +1. Negative one is a very undesirable outcome and positive one is very desirable. So, how important is the promotion to begin with? If it means something to you, but you are not willing to give up every other thing in order to get the promotion, the valence might be equal to 1. Alternatively, you might have no interest in the outcome in which case the valence would be equal to -1.

Vroom demonstrated interestingly through an equation that each of these components is related to one another. The equation is: $M = E \times I \times V$. That is (M) Motivation is equal to (E) Expectancy (can I do it?) times (I) Instrumentality (will it get me what I want if I do it?) timers (V) Valence (how seriously do I want it?)

What does expectancy theory mean to you as a manager? It is useful to you to have a good sense and an understanding of your employees' needs, as individuals. Each individual is different in a way and he is motivated by various factors. If you are trying to manage people with a view to accomplishing specific objectives, and are willing to compensate them in ways that do not represent their normal set of rewards, then you need to know whether they will be willing to work. In addition, it is important to be aware of whether they think that the reward will materialize and that the reward is important or appealing in some way.

WORK AND REWARD IN A TYPICAL AFRICAN SOCIETY

The motivation to work in a typical African society depends essentially on what the worker expects to get out of it in form of reward. The reward can be extrinsic reward, consisting of money, fringe benefits, promotion, etc. Intrinsic reward refers to job satisfaction, feeling of achievement, etc. In African society, it appears that monetary reward is a more powerful motivator to employees. Thus, the more money an employee receives, the greater his urge to work. Obviously, work and its financial rewards are essential for man's survival. With the money earned, an employee is able to pay for the goods and services necessary to satisfy his physiological and safety needs and to fend for his family. The primary source of satisfaction for affiliation has been the family and the fact that a man has a stable job and predictable income are prerequisite for a stable and satisfying family life.

In the Nigerian community, for example, money brings prestige and status through conspicuous consumption, involving the purchase of excessively expensive goods. The implied satisfaction here lies in the sense of esteem that one is able to spend money on expensive things. Money also provides the feeling of power and independent wealth can create a strong sense of autonomy. Work is relevant for a man's sense of membership in the society. Research has shown that men that are out of job for a long time feel that they are not fulfilling the role expected of them as head of the household. They lose respect in the society even from their own wife and children.

However, with higher needs for competence and achievement, money undoubtedly is less important as source of satisfaction. A person low in achievement drive is likely to be more motivated by money than the achievement-oriented person who is more concerned about the personal satisfaction the job offers. For a relatively boring job, the high achiever will want more money than a person with less need for achievement because the low achiever is not sacrificing satisfaction of his achievement needs by taking up the job.

With regard to the improvement of productivity in an organization, it must be noted that extending courtesies and pleasantries and maintaining cordial relationship with the workforce serve as lubricant that lubricates the friction points of misunderstanding and dissatisfaction and thus have salutary effect on productivity. Also, it is not always the payment of competitive wages and salaries and the provision of attractive fringe benefits and other incentives in the workplace that give an employee job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors on the job and task content appealing to the worker have their contribution towards employee's job satisfaction that would enhance productivity.

Furthermore, in the effort to improve productivity in modern organizations, enterprises should endeavour to employ our qualified but physically challenged people because they are assets to the core. In today's knowledge economy, what really matters is not the shape of the limbs but the content of the brain that fosters over-all organizational performance. What about salary-cut? (reduction of employee's earnings in bad times). Is salary cut really welcome and justifiable?

While profitability is the bottom-line in every organization and everything possible must be done to maintain profitability, chief executive officers (CEOs) should avoid the temptation to bloat up salary and fringe benefits excessively in good times only to shrink them as soon as bad times set in. Nothing hurts the feelings of employees like a cut in salary and fringe benefits. The practice directly produces job dissatisfaction, de-motivation and poor productivity in an organization.

CONCLUSION
A large number of people are usually employed to work in an organization. The enterprise could be a college, university, hospital, oil company, etc. The workers are expected to contribute their energy and effort towards the achievement of the objectives of the enterprise. Many factors affect the behaviour of people at work. The behaviour of the workforce has to be modified, controlled, and channeled towards maximum productivity in the company. various types of motivation theories and methods are used to motivate employees to put in their best in an organization. Some notable motivation theories developed to motivate workers to achieve maximum level of productivity include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory, McClelland's Trichotomy of Needs Theory, and Herzberg's Two Factory Theory. These are called "Content Theories" (or Needs Theories) of motivation. The second group of theories is referred to as "Process Theories" and they are Equity Theory and Expectancy Theory. Needs theories explain what motivates people in terms of their individual needs while the process theories examine how and why people are motivated.

As a manager, it is very important to have a thorough understanding of your employees' needs as individuals. Each individual is different and he is motivated by various factors. If you are trying to manage people with a view to accomplishing specific objectives, you must be careful to apply the right motivation to get6 the best out of them.

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