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ABM MODULE – B

Chapter 12: Human Implications of Organizations

(PART-I)

What we will study?

***What is Human Resource?**

**HUMAN BEHAVIOUR AND INDIVIDUAL
DIFFERENCES:**

Understanding and appreciating the importance of individual differences and its impact on human behavior is one of the most crucial aspects of human resource management.

As each individual is different from the other in his/her physical appearance, he or she is also different from other person in his/her behavior and other psychological parameters, viz., feelings, perception, value, etc.

One finds striking differences in intelligence, physical features and personality traits, etc., among people

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From the day of birth, each person is unique; individual experiences after birth, make people even more different.

Human behaviour is a complex phenomenon. It is most difficult to define in absolute terms.

It is primarily a combination of originating and responding behaviour.

The behaviour reflects the psychological structure of a person.

It is also the result of biological, psychological and social processes.

According to psychologist **Kurt Lewin**, “behaviour is a function of the person and the environment around him”.

These two factors are linked with each other.

Any one of these individually cannot explain fully the behavioural characteristics.

Thus, different people behave differently in the same or similar environment.

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The behaviour of an individual is influenced by several factors.

These can be grouped under the following heads:

Environmental Factors:

(a) Economic, (b) Social (norms and cultural values), and

(c) Political;

Personal Factors:

(a) Age (b) Sex (C) Education (d) Abilities

(e) Marital Status (f) Family background and other demographical factors, etc.

Organisational Factors:

(a) Nature of Job (b) Organisation Structure and Design,

(c) Leadership, (d) Compensation and Reward System,

(e) Growth Opportunities etc.

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Psychological Factors:

(a) Personality (b) Perception (c) Attitudes (d) Values (e) Learning etc.

Environmental Factors:

These factors are mainly external and they also influence individual's behaviour.

These broadly include the social, cultural, political and economic environments.

Among these, economic environment determines the behaviour of an individual to a great extent.

Economic environment consists of the level of employment, wage rates, economic outlook, etc.

Cultural factors such as work ethic, achievement needs, values, etc., form part of the environmental factors.

The political climate also influences individual behaviour.

The stability of the government can contribute to employment opportunities.

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The quality of the political system also has a bearing on individual behaviour.

The social environment, which includes societal norms and the family atmosphere, also influences to some extent the individual behaviour.

Personal Factors:

Every individual brings to his workplace several personal characteristics such as age, sex, education, knowledge, intelligence, abilities, family dependents and similar other related factors.

Performance of an individual depends on these factors to a great extent.

Organisational Factors:

The structure of the organisation, the availability of physical facilities, the existence of reward and compensation system, the personnel policies, the organisational culture, etc., influence the behaviour of an individual in an organisation.

The quality of leadership also influences individual behaviour.

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Psychological Factors:

The individual behaviour is determined to a great extent by the physical and mental personalities of that individual.

The values, perceptions and attitudes also contribute to the individual behaviour.

Since each person is individually different implying that in order to motivate the employees they have to be treated differently keeping in view the needs and motives of the employees.

If the needs and motives of two persons are different they must be treated differently.

If it were not for individual differences, some standards could have been adopted for dealing with employees and minimum judgment would have been required thereafter.

There might have not been any difference in dealing with men and machines.

From the organisational angle, managers usually view their employees as rational human beings who

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are primarily motivated by money.

Social Man:

Accordingly, they adopt 'economic man' and the 'rational man' approach to understand and predict human behaviour.

However, it has also been realised that man is also a social being.

He wants to belong to a group, and his behaviour at the workplace shows this.

One of the well-known studies (**Hawthorne studies**) has made it clear that economic motives alone do not explain human behaviour.

Social interactions at workplace, especially how they are treated, and how their contributions are acknowledged, make a big difference in their attitude to perform.

Thus the idea of 'social man' was developed.

However, as time passed by, the 'social man' approach was also considered somewhat simplistic.

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This approach does not pay adequate attention to work, its intrinsic nature and its organisation.

Nor does it concern itself with the economic functions and responsibilities of the enterprise. And at times, it is plainly manipulative.

Organisational behaviour theorists such as Argyris G C, Likert R, and McGregor D argued that people in organisations need opportunities to use their creativity and this growth need should be met to enable them to contribute effectively.

At the same time, all employees may not want to develop and grow on their job ,they may have their preference elsewhere.

Hence, the current thinking is to accept man as a complex being and to recognise that personalities always differ.

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Chapter 12: Human Implications of Organizations
(PART-II)

What we will study?

EMPLOYEES BEHAVIOUR AT WORK:

The behavior of people at workplace plays an important role in organizations success.

The behavior of an employee as an individual as well as his behavior in a group makes a difference in achievement of organizational and group objectives.

The technical competence of an individual is important but beyond that his behavior and interpersonal skills are extremely important.

The people in the organizations do not work in isolation, their role and performance are interdependent.

They work in teams where contribution of each member is important and significant.

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The team-building skills which are founded on individual behaviour and interpersonal skills can help in getting synergy at workplace where the cooperation and collaboration can improve the group performance and output beyond the individual contributions.

Synergy is the highest activity of life, it creates new untapped alternatives; it values and exploits the mental, emotional and psychological differences between people.

There are some basic assumptions about human behaviour at work:

1. There are differences between individuals.
2. Concept of Whole Person.
3. Behaviour of an individual is caused.
4. An individual has dignity.
5. Organisations are social systems.
6. There is mutuality of interest among organisational members.

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7. Organisation behaviour is holistic.

Persons differ and again, there are certain 'commonalities' in the persons.

Every person is, in certain respects:

- *like all other persons,
- *like some other persons, and
- *like no other person.

It indicates that an individual possesses some common characteristics of most of the people (generalized characteristics of human beings) like most of the people are selfish or money is important to everyone or everyone wants to be treated well.

He may have some features of some other people which can be divided into broad groups like introverts and extraverts or high risk takers, medium risk takers and low risk takers .

He may also have some characteristics which other persons do not have, i.e., the features unique to an individual for which he is known (his unique

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personality characteristics).

Some of the human characteristics may not be classified into few sub-groups rather than can have a position in a continuum.

Human personality is thus a complex and multidimensional phenomenon. There is indeed no simple definition of what personality is.

However, personality can be examined in terms of certain stable characteristics, tendencies and behaviour patterns.

Salvatore Maddi defined personality as a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feelings, and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment.

This definition does not imply that people do not ever change.

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It simply indicates that individuals do not change drastically overnight and their thoughts, feelings, values and actions remain relatively stable over time.

Changes in personality/behaviour pattern that take place in individuals occur slowly over an extended period of time.

Thus by understanding certain dimensions of personality and behaviour, managers can, to a great extent, predict the likely behaviour in terms of actions and outcomes of actions in respect of employees.

There are several theories to explain the concept of personality.

One dimension of personality which is getting attention both from organisational as well as medical researchers is the **Type A and Type B behaviour profiles**.

A person exhibiting **Type A** behaviour is generally restless, impatient with a desire for quick achievement and perfectionism.

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Type 'B' personality people are much more easy going, relaxed about time pressure, less competitive and more philosophical in nature.

Friedman, Meyer and Ray Roseman have mentioned the following characteristics of Type 'A' personality:

Restless by nature, so that he always moves, walks and eats rapidly.

Is impatient with the pace of things, dislikes waiting and is impatient with those who are not impatient.

Multitasker - does several things at once.

Tries to schedule more and more in less and less time, irrespective of whether everything is done or not.

Usually does not complete one thing before starting on another.

Often displays nervous gestures such as clenched fist and banging on a table.

Does not have time to relax and enjoy life.

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Type B personality exhibits just the opposite characteristics and is more relaxed, sociable and has a balanced outlook on life.

We come across both Type A and Type B Managers in banks.

Usually Type A Manager's cabin is untidy, and gives a Messy appearance.

Further, his table is full of papers and many a time, it is difficult to trace important papers kept on his table. He has a tendency even to lose some papers and to blame others for such a loss.

Type B personality, however, is systematic and methodical in his day-to-day work. He has full control over time and does not complain of lack of time even due to pressure of work.

This is because he plans the work in such a way that urgent and important matters are disposed of in time. Although he is busy like many other managers, he appears to take things easy and normally does not get disturbed.

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**Chapter 12: Human Implications of
Organizations (PART-III)**

What we will study:

Development model of personality described by E H Erikson also helps us to understand the concept of personality.

Erikson has identified **8 development stages** in explaining the personality.

These stages which are based on a **person's state of mind** at a given point of time are mentioned below:

Stage 1: Trust vs. Mistrust of trust

Stage 2: Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

Stage 3: Initiative vs. Guilt

Stage 4: Industry Vs. Inferiority

Stage 5: Identity vs. Role Diffusion

Stage 6: Intimacy vs. Isolation

Stage 7: Growth vs. Stagnation

Stage 8: Integrity vs. Despair

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Stage 1: Trust vs. Mistrust of trust

As children we depend on others for our various needs.

In the process we develop feelings or mistrust towards others depending on our experience about the fulfillment of our needs.

Similarly, in the workplace, we may not know everything about the job and therefore, we are dependent on others for guidance.

In the process we also develop feelings of trust or mistrust towards others in the organisation depending upon how well they respond to our needs and help us to find our place in the system.

Stage 2: Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

As children we experienced a great need to be on our own and whenever we succeeded, we felt we are independent and autonomous.

When we failed in such attempts, we experienced a sense of shame and doubt.

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Similarly, in the workplace after induction and initial training, we feel happy when we can function independently.

But when we commit mistakes we start doubting our own competence and experience a sense of shame for not doing things right.

Stage 3: Initiative vs. Guilt

This stage indicates the child's efforts at trying to do things on its own initiative and feeling guilty if mistakes are committed.

Similarly as employees we take initiative and use our talents to settle down in the jobs; if things go wrong, we may experience a sense of guilt that we have wasted our energy and the resources of the organisation.

Stage 4: Industry vs. Inferiority

As we grow up we become diligent and industrious. We want to pursue our goals and manage our life.

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If we are successful in these efforts, we feel good about ourself; if we fail, we develop a sense of inferiority.

Similarly, in the workplace we try to work hard to find a place in the organisation; if we are not successful, we tend to suffer from a feeling of low self-concept and low self-esteem.

Stage 5: Identity vs. Role Diffusion

As we grow, we experience conflict due to the socially imposed requirement of becoming an independent and effective adult. This, at times, becomes difficult.

In the workplace also, we are expected to prove ourselves as high, performing members.

Obviously, this is not always easy for everybody.

In the process some may find their role identity diffused rather than identified and distinguished.

Stage 6: Intimacy vs. Isolation

As a youth, one feels the need to develop intimate relationship with others.

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However, there may be impediments to develop such relationship and hence some might feel isolated.

Same is the experience in the workplace also.

We may develop close contact with others and we may also feel a sense of isolation.

Stage 7: Growth vs. Stagnation

In middle adulthood, there are compulsions to forego one's immediate needs in favour of developing one's children.

If this is not effectively resolved within the individual, a sense of stagnation creeps in.

Similarly, in an organisation as one reaches mid-career, there is an expectation and need to develop others in the system and help them to grow.

If this is not done properly, the person senses a feeling of stagnation.

Stage 8: Integrity vs. Despair

During the later part of life, there is a natural decline of social and biological roles due to the ageing process. As a result one may experience a sense of uselessness.

If he is in a position to accept reality, he may resolve the conflict and feel happy about his lifelong achievements.

Likewise, in an organisation, as one approaches retirement age, he may experience either a high sense of self-worth due to his perceived accomplishments in the career or he may withdraw himself with a sense of purposelessness and despair.

The two theories (Type A and B) and Erikson's model of personality bring out different aspects of the concept.

While Type A and B focus on certain personality features, Erikson's model narrates different stages of an individual's growth and their effects on his mental personality.

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Chapter 12: Human Implications of Organizations

(PART-IV)

What we will study?

***What are the different Personality Theories?**

Personality Theory:

There are certain common patterns and variables which determine the personality of people.

The patterns of behavior can be, up to some extent predicted if we can identify the type of personality.

People with similar attributes can be classified in one category and their behavior can be predicted.

Accordingly, experts have developed certain personality theory.

Some of which we will discuss here.

1-Psycho-analytical Theory (PT)

2-Trait Theory

3- Self-Concept Theory

4-Social Learning Theory

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Psycho-analytical Theory (PT):

PT is based primarily on the **Freudian concept** of unconscious, subconscious and conscious nature of personality.

Freud noted that his patient's behaviour could not always be explained.

This led to him believe that the personality structure is primarily founded on unconscious framework and that human behaviour and motivation are the outcome of psychoanalytic elements, viz., **id, the ego, and the super ego.**

Id is the foundation of the **unconscious.**

It strives for sexual pleasure and other biological pleasures and has animal instincts of aggression, power and domination.

Ego is conscious in nature and relates our conscious urges to the outside world.

It keeps the id in check through the realities of the external environment.

While id demands immediate pleasure, whatever

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the cost, ego controls it so that these pleasures are granted at an appropriate time and in an acceptable manner.

Because of difficulty of keeping the id under control, ego is supported by super ego.

The **super ego** is the higher level restraining force and can be described as the **conscience** of the person.

The conscience creates standards of what is wrong and what is right and is generally subconsciously developed by the absorption of cultural and ethical values of the social environment.

All these three Freudian elements are interrelated and each cannot exist in isolation from others.

In order to create a 'normal personality', there must be a balance in the relationship among these three forces.

For example, an overdeveloped super ego would make the person highly moral and make him feel guilty for every little thing that slightly deviates from

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the norm.

This would not be considered practical or rational.

Similarly, an underdeveloped super ego would let id urges loose and would characterise the person as one having weak morals and values.

This psychoanalytical approach to personality structure analysis has made some impact on organisational behaviour.

Similarly, such employee behaviour as daydreaming, forgetfulness, absenteeism, tardiness, sabotage, alcoholism and drug abuse, can be analysed through psychoanalytical studies and analysis.

Trait Theory:

Trait theory believes that the traits of a person which determine his personality and behaviour are basically inherent to a person, i.e., more of a heredity impact than the environment.

Trait theory explains personality as a demonstration of certain traits of the individual.

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While there are many traits common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals.

On the basis of Trait theory, people can be described as aggressive, loyal, pleasant, flexible, humorous, sentimental, impulsive, cool and so on.

Traits are the basic elements of personality and can be used to explain their behaviour.

People behaving in a forceful manner in most situations could be described as aggressive.

Similarly, if a person allows others to take the initiative, he is 'submissive'.

Self-Concept Theory:

This theory believes that personality and behaviour are to a great extent determined by the individual himself.

We have an image of our own and our actions would be consistent with that image. **Carl Rogers** is closely associated with this theory.

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According to him, the best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself.

An individual himself is the center of experience.

His self-image is an integral of how he views himself and his perception of how others view him.

This self-concept is a result of a person's interaction with his environment.

This interaction in the form of learning experience helps us to grow and mature, and we modify our self concept as a result of these experiences.

When we get positive feedback from others in response to our behaviour, our self-concept is positively reinforced.

On the other hand, when we get negative feedback, our self-regard is lowered, resulting in tension and anxiety.

Thus, an employee with a self-concept of high intelligence, independence, and confidence may not look for such reinforcement techniques as

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monetary rewards, job security or directive supervision.

He may look for a challenging environment where he gets recognition, responsibility and achievement.

On the other hand, the monetary rewards and job security may be more effective on employees who have a self-concept of dependence, insecurity and who lack confidence in themselves.

Social Learning Theory:

This theory believes that personality development is more a result of social variables than biological factors.

Much of human behaviour is either learnt or modified by learning.

Through learning, one acquires knowledge, attitudes, values, skills, etc.

Personality is the sum total of all that a person has learned.

The social learning theory uses 'reinforcement and punishment' approach in understanding personality.

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For example, frustration caused by external environment, causes and reinforces aggression as a personality trait.

Also, good behaviour is rewarded by the society in terms of praise which further reinforces good behaviour.

Thus, behaviour and external environment have mutual interaction.

Behaviour partly creates the person's environment and the environment affects the person's behaviour as well.

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Chapter 12: Human Implications of Organizations
(PART-V)

What we will study?

***What is motivation?**

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION AND THEIR PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS:

What is Motivation?

To begin with, we will define the term motivation. The word motivation is derived from Latin word 'movere' (to move).

Accordingly, It attempts to account for the 'drives' and 'wants' of an individual rather than just focusing on the individual's actions.

The term motivation is commonly used and understood by everyone but there is no uniform definition of the term.

One can find as many definitions as number of books on the subject.

In its simplest form motivation in an organisational context is referred as **the extent of willingness of an employee to respond to the organisational requirements.**

Motivation is generally directed, consciously or unconsciously, towards satisfaction of needs (motives).

Motivation has direct impact on the job performance of individuals.

Motivation is a process beginning from inner state of a person and ending with need fulfillment.

For example, when an employee works hard, his level of motivation may be considered as high and if he avoids work, his motivation level may be considered as low.

The level of motivation of an employee can be judged by his actual work behaviour.

The managers are, therefore, interested in knowing the factors which motivate employees to work hard and also the factors which contribute to “de-motivation’.

Every human being has a given level of satisfaction at a given point of time.

Motivation as a behavioural concept is of great interest to the executives and managers in organisations today.

One of the biggest problems a manager faces is how to motivate the people working under him.

What is motivation and how can employees be motivated to work?

What is the relationship between motivation and performance?

Whether a highly motivated employee is necessarily a good performer or employee whose performance is not good can be considered as de-motivated?

These are some of the issues which are drawing the attention of the organisations.

The various **theories of motivation** are:

1. Scientific Management or Rational Economic View
2. Human Relations Model
3. Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory
4. Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory
5. Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory
6. Achievement Motivation Theory
7. Victor H Vroom's Expectancy Model
8. James Stacy Adams' Equity Theory
9. Lyman W. Porter and Edward E Lawler – Performance Satisfaction Model
10. Reinforcement Theory

6- Achievement Motivation Theory:

This theory was developed by **David C. McClland** and his associates.

According to this theory, there are **three needs**, namely, **need for achievement**, **need for power** and **need for affiliation**.

Need for Achievement:

Employees with high achievement motivation derive satisfaction from achieving goals.

Succeeding at a task is important to them.

Although people with a high need for achievement are often wealthy, their wealth comes from their ability to achieve goals.

However, high achievers are not motivated by money per se; money is their indicator of achievement.

They prefer to work independently and dislike easy tasks which do not throw any challenge or a competitive situation.

Need for Power:

The employees exhibiting the need for power, derive satisfaction from the ability to control others and having control over resources.

Actual achievement of goals is less important to them than the means by which goals are achieved.

Individuals with a high need for power derive satisfaction from being in positions of influence and control.

Organisations that foster the power motive tend to attract individuals with a high need for power (for example, military, civil services and political organisations).

Need for Affiliation:

Individuals exhibiting this need as a dominant motive, derive satisfaction from being social with interpersonal activities.

They have a strong need for interpersonal ties and to get close to people psychologically.

If asked to choose between working at a task with those who are technically competent and those who are their friends, individuals with high need for affiliation will choose their friends.

7- Vroom's Expectancy Model:

This theory has several names such as instrumentality theory, path-goal theory and valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory.

The theory was developed by **Victor H Vroom**.

The expectancy model is based on the belief that motivation is determined by the nature of the reward people expect to get as a result of their job performance.

The underlying assumption is that a man is a rational being and will try to maximise his perceived value of such rewards.

He will choose an alternative that would give him the maximum benefit.

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People are highly motivated if they believe that a certain type of behaviour will lead to a certain type of outcome and their extent of personal preference for that type of outcome.

There are three important elements in the model.

These are:

1-Expectancy:

This is a person's perception of the likelihood that a particular outcome will result from a particular behaviour or action.

This likelihood is probabilistic in nature and describes the relationship between an act and its outcome.

For example, if a student works hard during the semester, he will expect to do well in the final examination though he cannot be hundred per cent certain.

There is some probability attached to this outcome.

2-Instrumentality:

This factor relates to a person's belief and expectation that his performance will lead to a particular desired reward.

It is the degree of association of first level outcome of a particular effort to the second level outcome which is the ultimate reward.

For example, working hard may lead to better performance – which is the first-level outcome, and it may result in a reward such as salary increase or promotion or both – which is the second-level outcome.

If a person believes that his high performance will not be recognised or lead to expected and desired rewards, he will not be motivated to work hard.

The instrumentality is the performance-reward relationship.

3-Valence:

Valence is the value a person assigns to his desired reward.

He may not be willing to work hard to improve performance if the reward for such improved performance is not what he desires.

It is not the actual value of the reward but the perceptual value of the reward in the mind of the person that is important.

An employee may be motivated to work hard not to get pay raise but to get recognition and status.

Another employee may be more interested in job security than status.

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Chapter 12: Human Implications of Organizations

(PART-VI)

What we will study?

***What is Maslow's theory of hierarchy of need?**

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs:

Abraham Maslow, a clinical Psychologist from USA submitted that people have the following **5 basic levels of needs**.

He identified 5 needs in an order of hierarchy:

- 1- Physiological needs,**
- 2-Safety/Security Needs,**
- 3- Social Needs,**
- 4-Self-esteem needs,**
- 5-Self-actualisation Needs.**

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The prominence of these needs generally follow a hierarchy i.e. when a need is satisfied then only the next need becomes prominent in that hierarchal order.

But there have been found exceptions to this order for certain persons. They are prepared to sacrifice a lower order need for achieving a higher need.

1-Physiological Needs:

This group of need includes the needs for food, drink, shelter, oxygen, sleep, sex, weather, etc.

These physiological needs are required to maintain the physical entity of the individual.

These are the basic needs in the sense that they satisfy the very livelihood of the individual for survival.

Physiological needs dominate human desires and only when these needs are reasonably satisfied, one's attention turns to other needs.

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In the organisational context, physiological needs are represented by the employee's concern for salaries and good physical working conditions.

The organisation should therefore endeavour to satisfy the physiological needs of the employee. Only then they will be motivated to perform better.

2-Safety/Security Needs:

Safety needs become motivators after physiological needs are met.

Maslow suggested that the safety needs are most readily observed in infants and young children because of their relative helplessness and dependence on adults.

Safety and security needs in the organisational context relate to such factors as job security, salary increases, safe working conditions, unionisation, and lobbying for protective legislation.

Managerial practices to satisfy the safety needs of the employee include pension scheme, group insurance, provident fund, gratuity, safe working

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conditions, grievance procedure, etc.

Arbitrary or unpredictable actions, which create a feeling of uncertainty (particularly regarding continued employment), favouritism, or discrimination on the part of the management do not create a feeling of security in the employee's mind.

3-Social Needs:

This need is expressed through the desire to belonging and affection in a social context.

In the organisational context, social needs represent the need for a compatible work group, peer acceptance, professional friendship, and friendly supervision.

These are the needs one acquires, learns or adopts through experience and these needs are mostly culturally determined.

They are largely a manifestation of the desire to belong and be accepted by others.

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Managers would do well to encourage informal groups amongst the employees so that this need is adequately met. Care should be taken that the informal groups should not work contrary to the requirements of the organisation.

May be, if workers have the freedom to form their own work teams and decide upon the distribution of work within the teams and to that effect organise the team, one may be able to see a productive outcome.

4- Self-esteem-Needs:

The esteem needs for self-respect and recognition and for respect of others are often referred to as ego or status needs.

The satisfaction of this need generates a feeling of self-confidence and of being useful and necessary in the world.

In contrast, the thwarting of this need leads to a feeling of inferiority, ineptness, weakness, and helplessness.

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Maslow emphasised that the healthiest self-esteem is based on earned respect from others rather than on fame, status or adulation (praise).

In the context of workplace, self-esteem needs correspond to job title, merit, pay increase, peer / supervisory recognition, challenging work, responsibility, etc.

Managerial practices to fulfill these needs include challenging work assignments, performance feedback, performance recognition, personal encouragement and involving employees in goal setting and decision-making.

5- Self-Actualisation Needs:

In an organisation, self-actualisation needs correlate to the desire for excelling in one's job, advancing an important idea, successfully managing the unit.

This level of needs encompasses the ability to accomplish and achieve something in life, i.e. to maximise one's potential and the desire to become what one is capable of becoming.

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By being aware of the self-actualisation needs of subordinates, managers can use a variety of approaches to enable them to achieve their personal as well as the organisational goals.

The workers who operate at self-actualisation need do prefer autonomy and do not require supervision.

Drawbacks of Maslow's Theory:

While Maslow's needs classification theory makes good sense, problems arise with his contention that they are arranged in a hierarchical fashion and that the lower level needs must be first satisfied before the higher level needs in the pyramid will be activated.

Take for instance the case of teachers, poets, artists and musicians all over the world who have tried to self-actualise themselves by their immortal work without ever having satisfied their lower level needs.

Thus, it is possible for some at least, not to go through every step in the hierarchy.

Another problem with Maslow's theory is the operationalisation of some of his concepts which make it difficult for researchers to test his theory.

For instance, how does one measure self-actualisation?

Despite the problems the theory has useful practical implications for managers.

It is a fact that the vast majority of employees joining organisation at lower levels, are by and large, seeking to satisfy their physiological needs first and then move up the levels step by step.

It thus offers a good conceptual scheme for managers to understand and deal with issues of employee motivation at the workplace.

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**CHAPTER 12: HUMAN IMPLICATIONS OF
ORGANISATION (PART-VII)**

What we will study?

***How personality and brain is connected?**

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Personality and Brain (Left and Right Brain):

An important biological factor which influences personality is the role of brain of an individual.

Two types of contribution can be found in this area:

Electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) and split-brain psychology.

Human brain is believed to contain certain definite pleasurable and painful areas.

Accordingly, it may be possible physically to manipulate personality through ESB.

It may also be possible to use ESB as a method of reducing stress and tension and stimulate creative thinking. Split brain, right vs. left, psychology is closely related to ESB and is probably more popular.

The characteristics and dimensions attributed to the **left and right hemispheres of the brain** are indicated in the following table:

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Left Hemisphere Controls Right side of body	Right Hemisphere Controls Left side of body
<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Speech/Verbal● Logical/Mathematical● Linear/Detailed● Sequential● Controlled● Intellectual● Dominant● Active● Analytic● Reading, writing, naming● Sequential ordering● Perception of significant order comprehension● Complex motor sequences patterns	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Spatial/musical● Holistic● Artistic/symbolic● Simultaneous● Emotional● Intuitive, creative● Minor (quiet)● Spiritual● Synthetic, gestalt-oriented● Facial recognition● Simultaneous● Perception of abstract● Recognition of complex figures

The Left and Right hemispheres of the brain are attributed with some specific dimensions and characteristics as shown in above table.

These areas are, however, still open for further research.

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Matching Personality with Jobs:

John Holland's personality job fit theory is of late receiving increasing attention.

The theory is based on the match of personalities with jobs.

Holland presents **six personality types** and proposes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the job depends on how individuals successfully match their personality with their occupations.

Table describes the six types, their personality characteristics, and gives examples of occupations.

TABLE 22.1 Holland's Typology of Personality and Congruent Occupations		
Type	Personality Characteristics	Congruent Occupations
<i>Realistic</i> Prefers physical activities that require skill, strength and coordination	Shy, genuine, persistent stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill press operator, assembly-line worker, farmer.
<i>Investigative:</i> Prefers activities that involve thinking, organising and understanding	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Biologist, economist, mathematician, news reporter.

Table 22.1 Contd.

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Table 22.1 Contd.

Social:

Prefers activities that involve helping and developing others

Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding

Social worker, teacher, counsellor, clinical psychologist.

Conventional:

Prefers rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities flexible file clerk

Conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, bank teller,

Accountant, corporate manager,

Enterprising:

Prefers verbal activities where there are opportunities to influence others and attain power

Self-confident, ambitious, energetic domineering

Lawyer, real-estate agent, public relations specialist, small business manager.

Artistic:

Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression

Imaginative, dis-orderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical

Painter, musician, writer, interior-decorator

Source: Holland J L, *Making Vocational Choices*, 2nd Edn. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey, 1985.

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ABM MODULE - B

**CHAPTER 12: HUMAN IMPLICATIONS OF
ORGANISATION (PART-VIII)**

What we will study?

- *What are the various theories of motivation?**
- *Scientific Management Theory?**
- *Human Relations Model Theory?**
- * Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory?**

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Theories of Motivation:

The various theories of motivation are:

- 1. Scientific Management or Rational Economic View
(This lecture)**
- 2. Human Relations Model (This Lecture)**
- 3. Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (Part-VI)**
- 4. Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory**
- 5. Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory (This lecture)**
- 6. Achievement Motivation Theory (Part-V)**
- 7. Victor H Vroom's Expectancy Model (Part-V)**
- 8. James Stacy Adams' Equity Theory**
- 9. Lyman W. Porter and Edward E Lawler - Performance Satisfaction Model**
- 10. Reinforcement Theory**

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Scientific Management or Rational Economic View:

FW Taylor, who is known as the **Father of Scientific Management**, has contributed much to the theory of motivation.

Scientific Management is a set of methods and techniques applied to organization of work at the operational level for the purpose of increasing efficiency.

He believed that the best way to increase output was to **improve the techniques and methods** used by workers.

Workers had **to adjust to the management** and not the management to the people.

Taylor's logical and rational approach to management explained that people are primarily motivated by **economic considerations** and will **exert more** if offered opportunity to improve their economic gains.

To put simply, Taylor's theory stated that:

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1. Physical work could be scientifically studied to determine the optimal method of performing a job.
2. Workers could thereafter be made more efficient by giving prescriptions for how they were to do their jobs.
3. Workers would be willing to adhere to these prescriptions if paid on **a differential piece** work basis.

Scientific **approach to motivation based on rational economic view has however** been criticized severally.

In particular, behavioral scientists have argued that Taylor and his colleagues **de-humanized** workers by treating them as mere factors of production, who could be manipulated completely through economic incentives.

The most fundamental **problem with Taylor's** approach from a motivational viewpoint is concerned with his rather simplistic **assumption about** human behavior.

Taylor believed that workers would be motivated more by the need for money (this assumption is called '**rabble hypothesis**').

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He thought that the primary interest of the worker is economic gain in the form of higher wages.

Contrary to this rabble hypothesis, workers **seek satisfaction** of a variety of needs in the workplace like need for security, social fulfillment, and a challenging job, including pay.

Human Relations Model:

Elton Mayo in 1920s and early 1930s conducted **Hawthorne Studies** at Western Electric Company.

He found that in addition to finding the best technological methods to improve output, management needs to look into human affairs.

The real power centers within an organization were the interpersonal relations that developed within the working unit.

The organizations were to be developed around the workers and had to take into consideration human feelings and attitudes.

The leader was to facilitate co-operation for attainment of goals by followers.

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Leader was to provide opportunity for the personal growth and development of workers.

The main focus was on individual needs rather than the organizational needs.

Eventually it became clear that the assumption that workers are primarily motivated by money, may not be correct.

Elton Mayo and his team found that the social contacts which the workers have at workplaces are also important.

Mayo and others also believed that the managers could motivate employees by acknowledging their social needs and by making them feel useful and important.

As a result, employees were given some freedom to make their own decisions on their jobs.

Greater attention was paid to the organization's informal work groups.

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More information was provided to employees about the manager's intentions and about the operations of the organization.

In the Scientific Management Model, the workers were expected to accept management's authority in return for higher wages.

In the Human Relations Model, workers were expected to accept management's authority because supervisors treated them with consideration and were attentive to their needs.

The problem with the Human Relations Model is its undue reliance on social contacts at work situation for motivating employees.

Social contacts, though desirable, by themselves do not always help motivate workers.

ERG Theory:

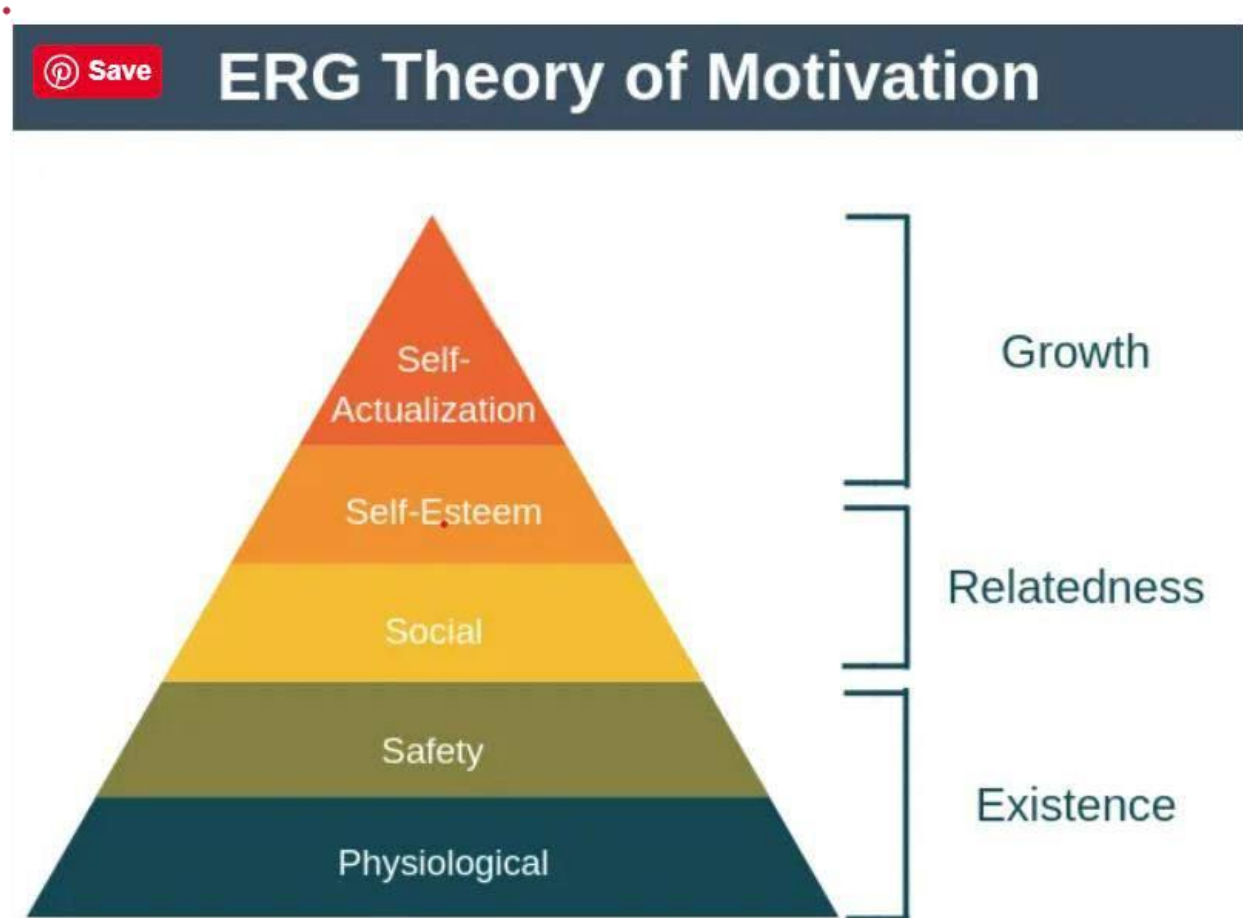
ERG theory was developed by **Clayton Alderfer**. E=

Existence

R= Relatedness

G= Growth

This theory is based on existence, relatedness and growth. These are the 3 sets of needs in organization.



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Alderfer argued on the same lines of Maslow that people have needs in a hierarchy and that these needs are important determinants of human behavior relating to work performance.

All 3 needs must be satisfied simultaneously in order for an employee to feel motivated.

Existence (E):

- *Our basic survival needs as human.

Ex: Food, water, shelter, good health, and feeling safe.

Relatedness (R):

- *Our need to relate to other people

- *We all share this need but this need is not as strong as our basic need of survival.

Growth(G):

- *Our need for personal development, to be creative and perform meaningful work.

- *Growth allows us to explore what our potential might be within our current environment.

However, the ERG theory differs from the Maslow's theory in following respects:

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First, instead of 5 levels of needs, the ERG theory indicates only 3.

Second, Maslow's theory postulates a rigid step like progression. The ERG theory, instead, postulates that more than one need may be operative at the same time.

Third, Maslow argues that a person will stay at a certain level until that need is satisfied.

The ERG counters by noting that when a higher-level need is frustrated, the individual's desire to increase a lower-level need takes place.

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ABM MODULE - B

**CHAPTER 12: HUMAN IMPLICATIONS OF
ORGANISATION (PART-IX)**

What we will study?

- * Adams' Equity Theory?**
- * Porter's Performance Satisfaction Model?**
- * Reinforcement Theory?**

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Adams' Equity Theory:

Equity means fairness or impartial.

Example: A person with MBA and 2-year experience is getting salary of Rs. 70,000 and another person with MBA and 2-year experience is getting salary of Rs. 80,000 then this is inequity or this is unfair.

The theory is based on idea that individual is motivated by fairness.

Although several authors have contributed to this theory, it was **James Stacy Adams** whose formulation became prominent.

Two assumptions of theory:

- 1- Individual make contribution (Inputs) and expect certain rewards (outcome).
- 2- They analyze whether exchange is satisfactory or not by comparing their input and output with others.

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The following terms are relevant to this theory:

***Person:** The individual for whom equity or inequity exists.

***Comparison:** Any group or individual used by a person as a reference regarding inputs and outcomes.

***Inputs:** Characteristics which individuals bring with them to the job, namely, education, knowledge, skills, attitudes, experience, etc.

***Outcomes:** Salary, promotion, perquisites received from a job.

The theory proposes that the motivation to act develops after the person compares inputs/outcomes with the identical ratio in comparison to the other person.

Inequity is defined as the perception that person's job inputs/outcomes ratio is not equal to the inputs/outcome's ratio in comparison to the other.

The basic equity proposal assumes that, upon feeling inequity, the person is motivated to reduce it.

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Further, the greater the felt inequity, the greater would be the motivation to reduce it.

When attempting to reduce inequity, the person may try a number of alternatives.

He may alter his inputs or, alter his outcomes or, distort his inputs and outcomes cognitively or, leave the field or try to alter or cognitively distort input and outcomes in comparison to the other.

Porter's Performance Satisfaction Model:

Motivation, satisfaction and performance are all separate variables but are related to each other in different ways.

Assumption:

*If performance in an organization result in equitable and fair rewards, people will be more satisfied.

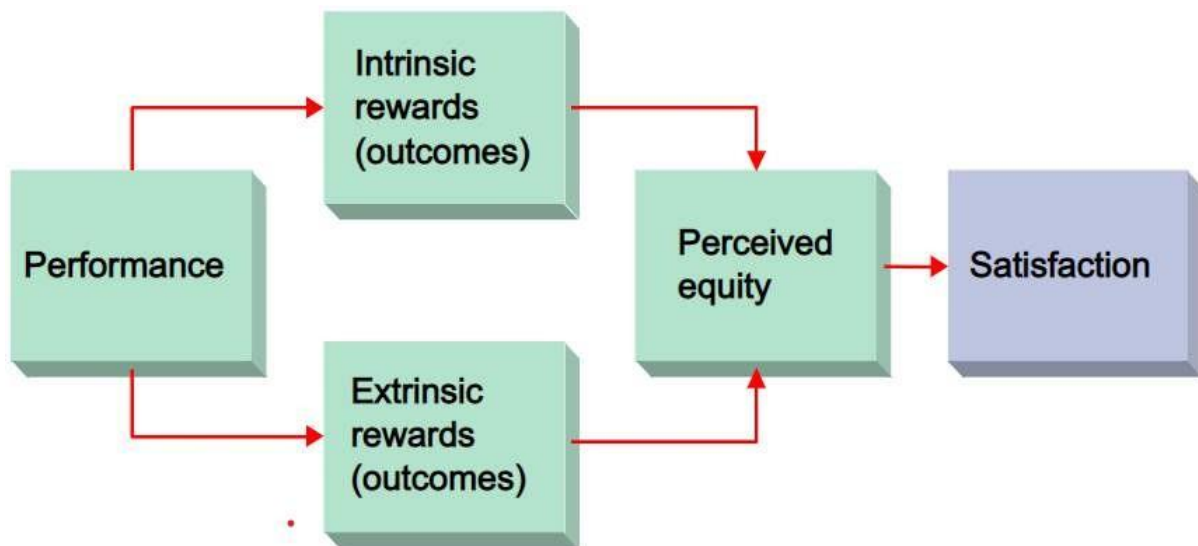
*High performance can lead to rewards and high satisfaction.

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Types of Rewards:

Extrinsic Award: Increased Pay, Commission, Job Promotion

Intrinsic Award: Sense of Achievement, Job Satisfaction, Positive inner feeling.



This model starts with the premises that:

(A) Motivation (effort or force) does not equal satisfaction and/or performance.

(B) Effort (force or motivation) does not directly lead to performance. It is mediated by abilities/traits and role perceptions.

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(a) The rewards that follow and how these are perceived will determine satisfaction.

The model suggests that performance leads to satisfaction.

Reinforcement Theory:

This theory was given by **BF Skinner** and his associates.

The theory suggests that the behavior that has positive consequence is repeated.

Negative is not repeated.

behaviors are shaped/selected by their consequence.

This theory is based on law of effect.

This theory aims at increasing strength of desirable behavior and decrease negative behavior.

This can be done by:

- 1- Positive reinforcement
- 2- Negative reinforcement

3- Punishment

4- Extinction

1- Positive reinforcement:

Strengthen the desired behavior.

Giving Reward - Monetary or Non-Monetary (Praise, appreciation).

2- Negative reinforcement:

Strengthen one's behavior to avoid undesirable consequences.

Criticizing

3- Punishment:

Weakens and decrease the behavior which has been punished.

Disciplinary action

4- Extinction:

Withdrawal of positive reinforcement that led to undesirable behavior.

This theory assumes that the consequences of an individual's behavior in one situation influences that individual's behavior in a similar situation.

Techniques based on this principle have been developed to change human behavior.

Such a technique, generally known as '**operant conditioning**', has been advocated by **BF Skinner**.

Operant Conditioning

■ Operant conditioning



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Its implication is that individual behavior can be predicted, from a person's past experiences.

The operant conditioning approach to behavior is based on the law of effect, which states that behavior which has a rewarding consequence is likely to be repeated. There is positive reinforcement.

On the other hand, behavior that leads to negative or punishing consequence, tends not to be repeated. There is negative reinforcement.

When operant conditioning is used to control behavior of employees in an organization, it is called organizational behaviors modification or **OB Mod** in its acronym.

Many of the negative traits and behavior pattern are developed because the earlier similar behavior was rewarding or encouraged.

For example, a thief has not been caught several times earlier; he will have courage to repeat his act and behaviors again and again. Similarly, a ticketless traveler in a Mumbai local train repeats his act because he has not been caught.

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ABM MODULE - B

**CHAPTER 12: HUMAN IMPLICATIONS OF
ORGANISATION (PART-X)**

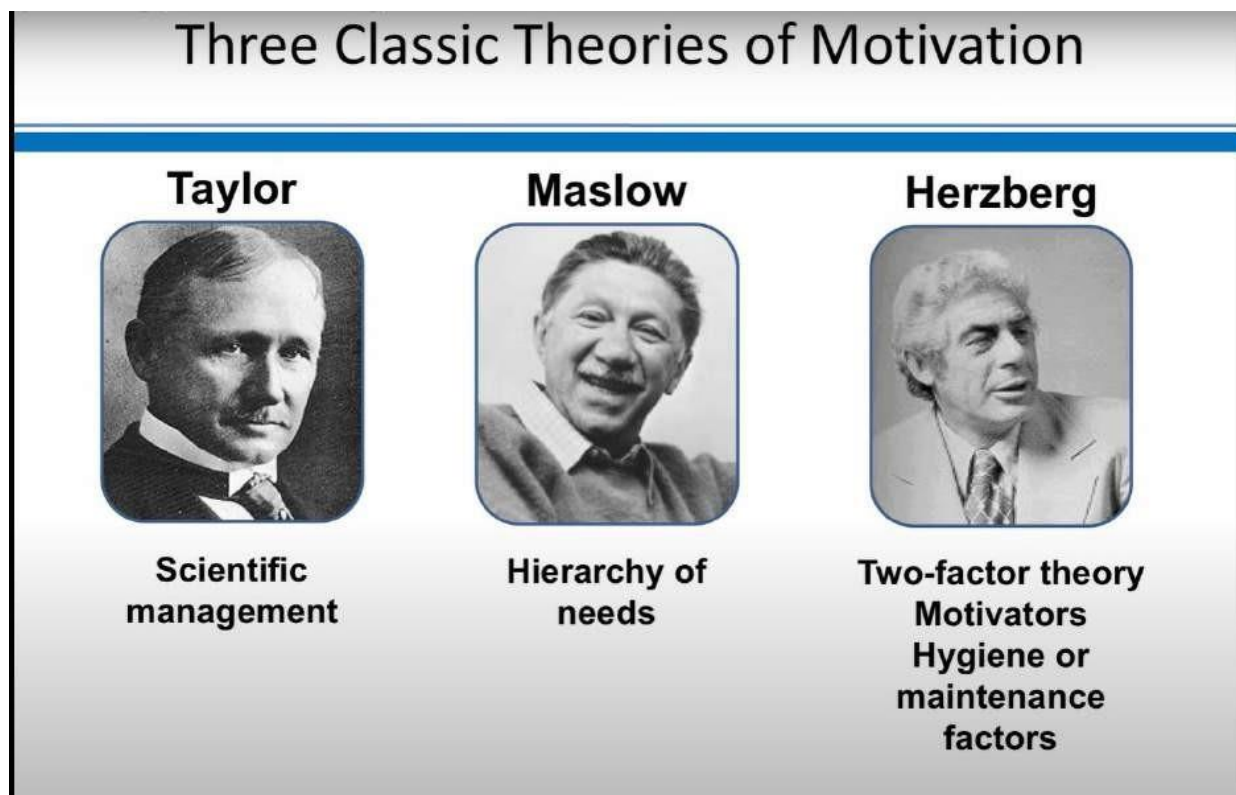
What we will study?

*** Herzberg's Two-Factor or Motivation-Hygiene Theory?**

Herzberg's Two-Factor or Motivation-Hygiene Theory:

Frederick Herzberg extended the work of Maslow and developed a specific content theory of work motivation.

He conducted a widely reported study on about 200 accountants and engineers from 11 industries in Pittsburg, USA.



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He used the **critical incident method** of obtaining data for analysis.

He asked them two questions:

1. When did you feel particularly good about your job - what turned you on?
2. When did you feel exceptionally bad about your job - what turned you off?

He then asked them to describe the conditions that led to these feelings.

Herzberg found that employees named different types of conditions for good and bad feelings.

His study revealed that the factors responsible for job satisfaction are quite different from the factors that led to dissatisfaction.

Reported good feelings were generally associated with job experiences and job content.

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Reported bad feelings, on the other hand, were generally associated with the surroundings, peripheral aspects of the job - the job context.

These two feelings were not averse to each other.

If a person was satisfied with a job in a particular condition, the **absence** of such condition would not mean job **dissatisfaction**, but it might be called **no job satisfaction**.

Similarly, opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction but it might be **no job dissatisfaction**.

Thus, Herzberg suggested that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was traditionally believed.

Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying.

Herzberg's theory is based on a two-factor hypothesis, that is, factors leading to job satisfaction and the factors leading to job dissatisfaction.

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The factors so identified were classified by him into two categories:

- Motivational Factors (Satisfier) &
- Hygiene or Maintenance Factors (Dissatisfier).

Motivational Factors (Presence: Motivates, Absence: No effect):

These factors are related directly to the job itself.

The presence of such factors creates a highly motivating situation, but their absence does not cause dissatisfaction.

People tend to respond positively to the presence of such factors.

Herzberg mentioned 6 such factors:

3. Recognition
4. Advancement
5. Responsibility
6. Achievement
7. Possibility of Growth
8. Work itself

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Hygiene or Maintenance Factors (Presence: No effect, Absence: Badly affect):

This set of factors is such that their **presence** does **not** significantly **motivate** the employees but their **absence** causes serious **dissatisfaction**.

The non-availability of such factors is likely to affect motivation and bring down the level of performance.

Maintenance factors mostly are related to environment, outside the job.

Herzberg named **10 such factors**:

- Company policy and administration
- Technical supervision
- Interpersonal relations with subordinates
- Salary
- Job security
- Personal life
- Working conditions
- Status
- Interpersonal relations with supervisors
- Interpersonal relations with peers/colleagues.