

1. Ein...

1.1. War...

1.2. Fach...

1.3. Hera...

2. Grundl...

2.1. Mi...

2.1.1. Was...

I.

We know engagement mostly by what people actually do. The most clearly observable behaviors that suggest engagement are people's efforts. We believe that people are engaged when we see them working hard, putting in effort, staying involved.

II.

Engagement is experienced as enthusiasm and self-involvement with a task or collective (for example, organization), is fostered by a corresponding dispositional orientation and facilitating climate, and manifests itself in proactive value-directed behavior.

2.1.2. Gesch...

III.

Yet engagement is not simply working hard. It is not simply about the vigor with which people work, their high levels of involvement. It is about putting ourselves - our real selves - into the work. [...] Our real selves show up when we say what we think and feel in the service of doing the work the best way that we know how. When we deeply care about what we are doing, and are committed to doing the best that we can, we feel compelled to speak rather than remain silent. We use our voices. This is part of engagement:

IV.

Meaningful work is not just about the meaning of the paid work we perform; it is about the way we live our lives. It is the alignment of purpose, values, and the relationships and activities we pursue in life. It is about living our lives and performing our work with integrity. It is about integrated wholeness.

V.

Personal dispositions (such as personality and motivation constructs) of employees are expected to influence many elements of the engagement model.

VI.

Employees may develop commitments to goals, policies, or projects.

VII.

Human beings, have a natural inclination to make commitments to and expect commitments from others.

2.2. Zen...

VIII.

Employee commitment and engagement have emerged as very important constructs in organizational research on account of their favorable relationship with employee behaviors that promote organizational retention and performance.

IX.

There is a long history of research and discourse about what motivates employees and the relationship between job satisfaction and performance/ productivity. The need or content theories of the 1960s and 1970s and their emphasis on the individual gave way to the reinforcement and person-environment interaction theories of the 1970s through the 1990s and their emphasis on performance, organizational systems, and productivity.

X.

And people know that they are doing good work because it feels good. This may sound too simple, but people know when the work they are doing is good and meaningful. It is about trusting both one's judgment and one's intuition.

XI.

Although the commitment construct has been researched for more than four decades, the research pertaining to engagement is of recent origin.

XII.

One key area of potential confusion was the link between engagement and commitment, and to a lesser extent job satisfaction and involvement. For some organizations commitment was a part of engagement, while for others engagement led to commitment or was seen as a separate issue.

XIII.

The research has led to the development of a model of engagement that seeks not only to understand the linkage between the drivers and the outcomes of engagement, but also to understand the relationship of engagement, satisfaction and commitment, as well as the psychological contract.

XIV.

Engagement is seen as a positive attitude to the job and it is distinguished from both job satisfaction and commitment. It is more temporary and volatile than commitment, which is a more stable perception.

XV.

Engagement influences job satisfaction, which in turn influences commitment.

XVI.

The research suggests that it is important not to conflate commitment, engagement and job satisfaction. It is possible for an employee to be highly engaged in their job but not be committed to the organization, and likewise to be committed to the organization, and keen to remain, but not engaged with their job.

XVII.

However, higher levels of either engagement or commitment should lead to higher levels of the other, and the opposite should also apply.

2.2.1. Defini...

XVIII.

Employee engagement has become one of the most popular topics in management. In less than 10 years, there have been dozens of studies published on employee engagement as well as several meta-analyses.

XIX.

The past decade has seen an explosion of research activity and heightened interest in employee engagement among consultants, organizations, and management scholars.

XX.

The first major article to appear in the management literature on employee engagement was Kahn's (1990) article based on his ethnographic study of personal engagement and disengagement which was published 24 years ago.

XXI.

Numerous definitions of employee engagement exist and there continues to be a lack of agreement and consensus on what engagement actually means.

XXII.

Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement also suggests something more distinct and unique as it pertains to placing the complete self in a role. Furthermore, according to Kahn (1990), engagement involves a rational choice in which individuals make decisions about the extent to which they will bring their true selves into the performance of a role. Thus, Kahn's (1990) immersive definition and conceptualization of engagement is much deeper and more substantial than that provided by Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) definition.

XXIII.

In fact, if there is one common component across all definitions of engagement, it is the notion of being absorbed in one's work and role.

XXIV.

One of the reasons that employee engagement has received so much attention is that it is believed to be associated with important employee and organization outcomes.

XXV.

Employees have numerous roles and responsibilities at work in addition to their job or work role. Thus, it is possible for employees to be engaged or disengaged in various domains of their work lives. Therefore, when one speaks about employee engagement, it is important to be clear about what type of engagement one is concerned about.

XXVI.

First, as jobs consist of numerous tasks, it is very likely that there will be variations in engagement from one task to another and employees will be more engaged when performing some tasks.

XXVII.

Second, employees can also vary in the extent to which they invest their full and complete selves into their role as a member of an organization (i.e., organization engagement). [...] Clearly, it is possible for employees, such as university professors, to be fully engaged in their tasks (e.g., teaching) but disengaged when it comes to their role in their department or university. Conversely, an employee might be highly engaged in activities associated with their role as a member of the organization but disengaged from their job.

XXVIII.

Third, employees can also differ in their engagement with their work group/team or what might be called group or team engagement. [...] [T]hey might refrain from fully investing themselves in group activities and their role as a member of their work group.

XXIX.

Research on employee engagement has been flourishing for the past decade and continues to be of considerable interest to both researchers and practitioners. [...] As a result, we really do not know what causes employee engagement, the effect of employee engagement on employee and organizational outcomes, and the most effective programs and interventions for improving employee engagement. [...] After all, employee engagement is still a relatively new construct, and research is still in its infancy.

XXX.

However, personal engagement as originally defined and investigated by Kahn (1990) does seem to represent something that is unique and distinct from other constructs. Therefore, future research should focus on the development of new measures of engagement that have their basis in Kahn's (1990) conceptualization and theory of engagement.

XXXI.

Kahn (1990) defined personal engagement as the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.

XXXII.

Personal disengagement refers to the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances.

XXXIII.

Personal engagement and personal disengagement refer to the behaviors by which people bring in or leave out their personal selves during work role performances.

XXXIV.

Kahn's (1990) aim was to map across individuals the general conditions of experience that influence degrees of personal engagement. He sought to identify psychological conditions powerful enough to survive the gamut of individual differences.

XXXV.

Engagement is characterized by vigor (high activation) and dedication (high identification).

XXXVI.

Engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior.

XXXVII.

Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties.

XXXVIII.

Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge.

XXXIX.

The final dimension of engagement, absorption, is characterized by being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work.

XL.

Definitions of engagement, however cast, might therefore usefully reflect these two essential qualities: (i) a positive and energized work-related motivational state, and (ii) a genuine willingness to contribute to work role and organizational success.

XLI.

Common to many definitions offered by researchers and practitioners is the idea that engagement is a positive work-related psychological state (reflected in word like enthusiasm, energy, passion and vigor) and that engagement is also a motivational state reflected in a genuine willingness to invest focused effort toward organizational goals and success.

XLII.

To be of any practical value engagement needs to be shown to be different from other related organizational constructs such as job involvement, job satisfaction, commitment, discretionary effort, and turnover intention.

XLIII.

Aspiring toward a high-engagement climate requires that engagement becomes a central focus in organizational systems and processes.

XLIV.

Engagement is not a simple matter. It requires a depth of intensity and focus that cannot be constantly sustained.

XLV.

Employee Engagement is both very delicate and fragile, and quite resilient. [...] Employees have pretty sophisticated radars. They are looking around constantly for signals about whether their engagements matter, how safe they are, whether their leaders truly welcome and know what to do with them. [...] Leaders needed to learn to dismantle the obstacles to engagement - structures, processes, and, for some, themselves - and create new patterns of interaction with and among employees.

XLVI.

People have a desire to engage. They have an instinctive drive to express who they are, and who they wish to be, and given half a chance at work, they will do so.

XLVII.

Like many of the concepts that are so important to us - love, trust, justice - employee engagement is relatively easy to recognize, but has proven very difficult to define.

XLVIII.

There is no universally accepted definition of engagement.

XLIX.

Employee engagement has been receiving increased attention in the past 5 to 10 years and is increasingly recognized as a crucial source of competitive advantage.

L.

Why would academics and practitioners not be interested in trying to identify the causes, correlates and consequences of people being “switched-on,” energetic, “involved, and focused on delivering high-quality performance and outcomes at work?

LI.

Engagement can be defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related psychological state characterized by energy, involvement, and a genuine willingness to contribute toward the achievement of organizational success. A climate for engagement might therefore be defined as: employees’ shared perceptions about the energy and involvement willingly focused by employees toward the achievement of organizational goals.

LII.

Psychological and motivational variables such as need satisfaction, felt obligation, positive mood, and engagement are included as key explanatory mechanisms, modeling how climate can directly and indirectly result in attitudinal, behavioral, and organizational performance-related outcomes.

LIII.

Aspiring toward a high engagement climate requires that engagement becomes a central focus in organizational systems, policies, processes, and practices. As such, recruitment and selection processes, induction and socializations processes, performance management processes, performance development systems, leadership and management development programs, team development programs, and organizational development programs all need to have engagement as a central focus.

LIV.

In effect, engagement needs to be adopted as a core strategy and fully embedded in strategic human resource, human resources and operational plans, policies, processes, and practices.

LV.

As a consequence of engagement, employees at all levels are prepared to give discretionary effort over and above the demands of the job.

LVI.

At an individual level over-engagement could lead to problems with work/life balance, such as stress resulting from being too willing to go that extra mile, or an inability to let go where the organization becomes a key source of individual identity.

2.2.2. Defin...

LVII.

Commitment binds individuals to organizations thereby reducing the likelihood of turnover.

LVIII.

Persistence, loyalty, dedication, and unwillingness to withdraw from or abandon the target are all indicators of commitment, but such indicators are not commitment itself.

LIX.

There clearly are interrelationships between commitment and motivation, but one can be highly committed and minimally motivated.

LX.

Commitment decisions are not isolated choices, but rather decisions influenced by past as well as anticipated future events.

LXI.

The typology that is currently most widely used is that provided by Meyer and Allen (1991).

LXII.

One observation is that despite the overlap that exists between perspectives and definitions of commitment, there is little consensus on the definition of the construct.

LXIII.

The conceptualizations and models that have shaped the commitment literature have been developed predominantly in the North American context.

LXIV.

John P. Meyer „found it useful to think of commitment as an internal force that binds an individual to a target (social or nonsocial) and/or to a course of action of relevance to that target. Although it can be influenced by factors within (e.g., personality, values) or outside (e.g., norms, work experiences) the person, the force itself is experienced as a conscious "mindset". [...] The nature of the mindset has important implications for the quality of the relationship with a target and/or of the ensuing behavior. For example, the quality of a relationship is arguably stronger when the parties commit to one another out of desire rather than obligation or fear of what they have to lose.

LXV.

Thus the relevance of commitment was that it led to lower levels of turnover and higher levels of effort and performance, all of which were expected to contribute to the overall effectiveness of organizations.

LXVI.

Even employees who are currently unaffected by change can experience insecurity due to the ubiquity of change in general.

LXVII.

Even if change is making it difficult to build and maintain commitment to organizations, it is clear that employees can and do form commitments to many other foci (e.g., occupations, work-groups, customers). These commitments have implications for behavior of relevance to the specific foci as well as to the organization as a whole.

LXVIII.

The relevance of commitment can be evaluated in terms of its implications for turnover, job performance, OCB [(Organizational Citizenship Behavior)], and employee health and well-being.

LXIX.

Siehe VII.

LXX.

Although there are many and varied definitions of commitment, they appear to reflect at least three general themes: affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and obligation to remain with the organization.

LXXI.

Meyer and Allen „make the assumption that recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization is a conscious psychological state that is shaped by environmental conditions (e.g., the existence of side bets) and has implications for behavior (e.g., continued employment with the organization).

LXXII.

This suggests that the major impetus for the intention to stay may not be the costs associated with leaving, but rather an affective attachment to the organization.

LXXIII.

The intention to remain could as easily reflect an affective attachment to the organization or, as we will describe below, a sense of moral obligation to remain.

LXXIV.

Commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization.

LXXV.

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so.

LXXVI.

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so.

LXXVII.

Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

LXXVIII.

Meyer and Allen „believe it is more appropriate to consider affective, continuance, and normative commitment as components, than as types, of commitment.

LXXIX.

To the contrary, it seems more reasonable to expect that an employee can experience all three forms of commitment to varying degrees. One employee, for example, might feel both a strong desire and a strong need to remain, but little obligation to do so; another might feel little desire, a moderate need, and a strong obligation, and so on.

LXXX.

Because continuance commitment reflects the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, anything that increases perceived costs can be considered an antecedent.

LXXXI.

Estimating the likelihood that its employees will act in an organization's best interest across situations, including situations that cannot be easily foreseen, may be facilitated more by the measurement of affective commitment than expected value.

LXXXII.

Anything that increases the cost associated with leaving an organization has the potential to create continuance commitment.

LXXXIII.

For example, an individual whose primary tie to the organization is a high level of continuance commitment may exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization if he or she believes continued employment requires such performance.

LXXXIV.

Moreover, where normative commitment results from the receipt of advanced rewards, once the debt has been repaid, the employee may choose to leave the organization and/or cut back on the level of effort exerted.

LXXXV.

Investments (e.g., specificity of education and skills, pension contributions) and perceived lack of alternatives were most predictive of continuance commitment.

LXXXVI.

Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese and Vandenberghe investigated the relationship among commitment and motivation mindsets and their contribution to work outcomes. Their analyses indicated that commitment and motivation were important antecedents of working attitudes and behaviors.

LXXXVII.

Several discussions of commitment can be found in the empirical literature, each one deriving from different conceptualizations and operationalizations of the construct.

LXXXVIII.

In the literature, many theories focused on commitment toward the organization, but an individual may also be faithfully bonded to his/her profession, a goal, a team, and so on.

LXXXIX.

Affective commitment (AC) is the involvement and identification with the organization and its values and goals.

XC.

Normative commitment (NC) represents a moral obligation to stay with the organization, out of a deep sense of loyalty.

XCI.

Continuance commitment (CC) is the perception of the costs involved in leaving the organization, because of the perceived sacrifice or the lack of job alternatives for an individual.

XCII.

People with a strong affective commitment, in fact, choose not to leave the organization because they wish so, those with a strong normative commitment because they feel obligated to stay, and those with a strong continuance commitment stay because they need to.

XCIII.

Normative commitment represents the internalization of the moral rules used to determine whether a behavior is right.

XCIV.

Such results show that affectively committed employees, who share values and goals of their organization, do not intend to quit the hospital or their profession.

XCV.

Furthermore, committed employees determine their behavior by internalizing and integrating work values and regulations that in turn activate positive attitudes and behaviors toward job.

XCVI.

Meyer and Herscovitch „propose such a model based on the propositions that commitment (a) is a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to a target and (b) can be accompanied by different mind-sets that play a role in shaping behavior.“

XCVII.

All of the definitions of commitment in general make reference to the fact that commitment (a) is a stabilizing or obliging force, that (b) gives direction to behavior (e.g., restricts freedom, binds the person to a course of action).

XCVIII.

To distinguish among commitments characterized by these different mind-sets,“Meyer and Herscovitch „labeled them affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

XCIX.

Major factor that distinguishes the different forms of commitment from one another within the various models is the mind-set (e.g., emotional attachment, sense of being locked in, belief in and acceptance of goals) presumed to characterize the commitment.

C.

A review of the workplace commitment literature, as well as a consideration of the everyday use of the term, suggests that individuals can commit to both entities and behaviors.

CI.

Intent to quit, satisfaction, and prosocial organization behaviors are central dependent variables in the commitment literature.

CII.

Commitment to foci other than an employing organization, specifically to top management, supervisors, and work groups, will be negatively related to intent to quit and positively related to satisfaction and prosocial organizational behaviors and will explain variance in these dependent variables over and above that explained by commitment to the organization.

CIII.

Identification as defined in the commitment literature focuses on how organisational membership becomes part of one's identity or self-concept.

CIV.

Continuance commitment represents a focus on pressure by the calculation of costs associated with failure to follow a course of action, and instrumental commitment represents a focus on gains associated with helping the organisation. Both therefore have a focus on external and more tangible factors that influence engagement, which is similar to external regulation.

CV.

Gagné, Chemolli et al. (2008) “propose that motivation is a basis for organisational commitment; it is the nature of the motivation to work that will lead to the development of certain types of commitment to an organisation (because of the internalisation that will take place). In other words, we propose that when people want to, feel they should, or feel they have to, accomplish work tasks, they will either become attached to, feel obliged toward, or feel stuck into, an organisation.”

CVI.

Gagnés, Chemollis et al. (2008) „results provide preliminary evidence that motivational internalisation can explain how employees become committed to their organisation.“

CVII.

Commitments in the workplace can take different forms and be directed at different targets (e.g., organization, teams, goals). As a force that binds individuals to a course of action of relevance to the target, commitment has motivational properties, but it is only recently that theories of commitment and motivation have been integrated.

CVIII.

Employee commitment (organizational commitment) was studied alongside job satisfaction as a potential contributor to employees’ decision to stay with or leave an organization. It is perhaps because of this pairing with job satisfaction that commitment gained prominence as an important work attitude. Indeed, most textbooks in industrial and organizational psychology feature commitment prominently in the work attitudes chapter.

CIX.

These mindsets reflected three distinguishable themes: (1) affective attachment to the organization, (2) obligation to remain, and (3) perceived cost of leaving. To distinguish among these mindsets, Meyer and Allen used the labels affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment, respectively.

CX.

One of the most important reasons for distinguishing among the components of commitment was that they can have different implications for behavior. [...] Indeed, research shows that affective commitment has the strongest positive correlation with job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and attendance, followed by normative commitment. Continuance commitment tends to be unrelated, or negatively related, to these behaviors.

CXI.

Another challenge in the development of a general definition was the diversity of potential targets. More specifically, some researchers were interested in studying commitment to other individuals (e.g., marital partner, supervisor) or collectives (e.g., organization, union, team), whereas others were interested in commitments to a course of action (e.g., exercise routine, performance improvement), or a stimulus to action (e.g., goal, program, change initiative). This raised the question as to whether commitment is to an entity, an action, or both, and whether it is possible to define commitment in such a way that it applies in all cases.

CXII.

Although there is no clear consensus to date on the meaning of engagement, examination of some of the more popular definitions can help to identify its core elements.

CXIII.

Stated more generally, the committed individual always has some discretion in the specification of the terms of the commitment. The terms are likely to be interpreted more liberally in the case of affective commitment than in the case of continuance or normative commitment.

CXIV.

Individuals who are committed primarily out of desire might have a stronger inclination to follow through on their commitment than those who are committed primarily out of obligation or to avoid costs. Those who are committed primarily to avoid costs might be particularly inclined to find ways to get out of their commitment.

CXV.

Thus, if we consider the "pure" cases of affective, continuance, and normative commitment (i.e., where the other forms are weak), we expect that the likelihood that a committed individual will enact the focal behavior will be greatest in the case of affective commitment, followed by normative commitment and then continuance commitment.

CXVI.

We can only speculate at this time, but because we predict that continuance and normative commitment have a weaker impact on behavior than does affective commitment, it is possible that combining a mind-set of desire with one of obligation, and particularly with one of need, might reduce the impact of the commitment compared to the pure affective case.

CXVII.

How does commitment develop? This question has perhaps generated more research interest than any of the others we have addressed to this point, particularly in the organizational commitment literature.

CXVIII.

Specifically, we argue that, when considering the factors involved in the development of commitment, it is important to distinguish among the mind-sets that accompany that commitment. That is, any factor that contributes to the development of commitment does so through its impact on one or more of the mindsets that bind an individual to a course of action of relevance to a particular target. Thus, it should be possible to distinguish among antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

CXIX.

The mind-set of perceived cost (continuance commitment) develops when an individual recognizes that he or she stands to lose investments, and/or perceives that there are no alternatives other than to pursue a course of action of relevance to a particular target.

CXX.

The mind-set of obligation (normative commitment) develops as a result of the internalization of norms through socialization, the receipt of benefits that induces a need to reciprocate, and/or acceptance of the terms of a psychological contract.

CXXI.

The mind-set of desire (affective commitment) develops when an individual becomes involved in, recognizes the value-relevance of, and/or derives his or her identity from, association with an entity or pursuit of a course of action.

CXXII.

Whether commitment to a target-relevant focal behavior is accompanied by other discretionary behaviors will depend on the mind-set characterizing the commitment. In the case of affective commitment, the individual is bound by desire or a belief in the meaningfulness and importance of the activity.

CXXIII.

The multidimensionality of commitment is explained in terms of differences in the mind-sets that characterize this force. These mind-sets play an important role in determining how commitment-relevant behavior is enacted.

CXXIV.

Throughout [...] various studies, commitment has been repeatedly identified as an important variable in understanding the work behavior of employees in organizations.

CXXV.

Attitudinal commitment thus represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals.

CXXVI.

Commitment „can be characterized by at least three related factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

CXXVII.

Commitment „involves an active relationship with the organization such that individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organization's well-being.

CXXVIII.

Organizational commitment should be somewhat more stable over time than job satisfaction. Although day-to-day events in the work place may affect an employee's level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to seriously reevaluate his or her attachment to the overall organization.

CXXIX.

Commitment should be related to motivational force to perform and intrinsic motivation. That is highly committed employees are thought to be motivated to exert high levels of energy on behalf of the organization.

2.2.3. Schlus...

CXXX.

People are focused on their tasks. They stay with them. They show that they care about them. They work hard to accomplish them as best they can. They bring all sorts of data - their thoughts, feelings, hunches, experiences - into play as they go about their work.

CXXXI.

siehe III.

CXXXII.

From a practical standpoint, what is of most interest to companies is employee engagement in the aggregate, not the engagement of individual employees one at a time.

CXXXIII.

Engagement has both psychological (feelings) and behavioral components to it. Feelings define engagement for the individual, and engagement behavior operationalizes engagement in the aggregate for people (for example, the work group, the organization).

CXXXIV.

Finally, it can be argued that human beings are naturally predisposed to form commitments.

CXXXV.

Siehe LXVIII.

CXXXVI.

Given their conceptual differences, it seems likely that the psychological states reflecting the three components of commitment will develop as the function of quite different antecedents and have different implications for work relevant behavior other than turnover.

CXXXVII.

Many different variables have been examined as potential antecedents of commitment.

CXXXVIII.

If reduction of turnover is the only concern of researchers or managers, the differences among the various conceptualizations become somewhat irrelevant - one form of commitment may be as good as another. This focus on turnover, however, may be shortsighted.

CXXXIX.

Employees who want to belong to the organization (affective commitment) might be more likely than those who need to belong (continuance commitment), or feel obligated to belong (normative commitment), to exert effort on behalf of the organization.

CXL.

It will be important in future research, therefore, to examine the joint effects of the three commitment components on employees' behavior.

CXLI.

The value of affective commitment might be that it is a measurable construct which reflects a psychological summary of equity and expectancy considerations. Moreover, because affective commitment represents a general psychological orientation, it is likely to have implications for a wide range of organization-relevant behavior.

CXLII.

Employees want to remain and are willing to exert effort on behalf of the organization because of the benefits they derive from the relationship. From an internalization perspective, employees become committed to organizations with which they share values.

CXLIII.

As the feeling of an individual's organizational membership is basically captured by organizational commitment components, it makes sense to consider commitment as an antecedent of motivation.

CXLIV.

Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese and Vandenberghe proposed three hypotheses: (I) Affective commitment is positively related to intrinsic and identified motivation. (II) Normative commitment is positively related to introjected motivation and (III) Continuance commitment is positively related to external motivation: specifically, High Sacrifice-Continuance commitment is related to introjected motivation, and Low Alternatives-Continuance commitment is related to external motivation.

CXLV.

Siehe XCIV.

CXLVI.

Commitment and motivation are two dynamic processes by nature that need longitudinal-type studies to expand the knowledge on these processes and to investigate their evolution across time.

2.3. Weite...

2.3.1. Begr...

CXLVII.

Identification and internalization will be negatively related to intent to quit and positively related to satisfaction and prosocial organizational behavior, and compliance will be positively related to intent to quit and negatively related to satisfaction and prosocial behavior.

CXLVIII.

The research that has examined the relationship between perception of organizational support and organizational commitment has found a consistent positive relationship between them.

2.3.2. Bekan...

CXLIX.

Siehe V.

CL.

Job enrichment, job enlargement, job rotations, secondments and special assignments are proven means by which jobs can be designed to facilitate optimum levels of engagement.

CLI.

Unavoidably, the meaning that we ascribe to our work is shaped by the rewards that we get from that work. [...] They need to feel that the measurement systems by which they are evaluated provide clear, sensible, and justifiable feedback and lead to fair outcomes.

CLII.

Pleasure, on the other hand, is homeostatic: pleasurable experiences like resting when tired, drinking when thirsty, or having sex when aroused do not require complex skills and can be repeated over and over without

losing their rewarding quality. For this very reason, pleasure does not drive us to develop new potentialities and thus does not lead to personal growth.

CLIII.

The clear implication is that employers need to take a more holistic view of the employee value proposition so they can improve talent acquisition, increase employee engagement and reduce turnover.

CLIV.

Designing, implementing and communicating programs employers maximize the return on their investments by improving employee performance.

3. Entwic...

3.1. Huma...

CLV.

Humanistic theory is probably the most recent theory to develop. It's the newest out of the entire bunch. And as you can tell from the name, it's focused on the human, or the person, specifically. It's focused on the person and the experience that they have, and how that can influence the way that they think and behave. Now this developed sort of in opposition to the other major theories, like Behaviorism, which focuses on the outside influences and how they can affect people, as well as Freud and Psychoanalytic theory, which focuses on the unconscious. Again, both of those are kind of talking about the things that are outside of our control, whereas Humanism is talking about things that people can directly control. Its major themes are about free will, human creativity, and the ability of people to do certain things. Now Humanistic theory is a very therapy-centered approach to looking at things. Its main goal is to change people's behaviors and their lives for the better. It focuses on concepts like self-esteem, belonging, and psychological needs, and how we can fulfill those to have people develop into better human beings. So there are two main figures that we want to focus on in our study of the Humanistic theory of Psychology. The first one is Carl Rogers. Rogers was an American psychologist who, in the 1930s, studied and wrote about the different counseling practices that were occurring in the US. In 1945, he opened his own practice, where he developed what he referred to as client-centered therapy. Again, just like with the humanistic side. Client-centered therapy focused on the individual and their reactions. So what they were reporting having thought, felt, and acted upon were just as important as what the therapist observed. Through this study of the individual, Rogers developed the idea that a person develops their own self-image based on a self-evaluation of their own thoughts and actions. So for example, when a person is told when they're a child that having feelings of anger towards their parents are a bad thing, then they start to develop a sort of negative image of themselves. They start to think of themselves as a bad person. Again, they're evaluating themselves as a bad person and they develop that negative image of themselves as a result of that. So that's something that he wanted to focus on, to better the lives of his individual patients.

CLVI.

The theories of Maslow (1954) is considered classic in organizational behavior. In his theory are five classes of needs, respectively, organized in a hierarchy from the basic, lower-order needs such as the physiological drives to higher-order needs for self-actualization.

CLVII.

“Positive psychology” is an umbrella term that encompasses research concerned with flourishing or “optimal functioning” of both individuals and communities. [...] “Traditional psychology” is focused on detecting and preventing illness and disease, whereas positive psychology is focused on the nurture and cultivation of the traits that conduce to flourishing.

3.1.1. The...

CLVIII.

Siehe CLI.

CLIX.

People are more likely to engage when they feel that it is meaningful to do so, when they sense that it is safe to do so, and when they are available to do so. These three conditions, taken together, shape how much of their selves people bring into task performances.

CLX.

People need to answer affirmatively for themselves the following three questions if they are to engage: (1) Does it matter? (2) Is it possible? (3) Are we led?

CLXI.

Leaders at all levels of organization can exert great influence on the extent to which members can become fully engaged at work. [...] It is to their leaders that they look to help make it matter, and to help make it possible for them to [so do] well and safely.

CLXII.

We thus need leaders and supervisors who can let us rest a bit, and offer coaching and insight when we need it. And these leaders need to also be able to leave us alone at times, let us make our decisions and learn our lessons.

CLXIII.

People engage when they feel that, on balance, it matters to do so. This is, of course, partly about self-interest. We are more likely to engage when it is in our interest to do so: we are more likely to get the dividends that we want by investing as much of ourselves as possible in some situations.

CLXIV.

At the heart of engagement is the use of the voice, as the instrument by which we say what we think and feel, question others, describe options and inventions, dialogue. We use our voice when we feel that our words matter [.] [...] When this is not the case, we use our voice less. Deaf ears make us mute. We hold our tongue. We nod and do others' bidding. [...] Organizational learning occurs only when people feel that their words matter.

CLXV.

We are more likely to engage when the role matches what we wish to be. And the role has to be clearly understood, such that there are clear boundaries between what we are and are not supposed to be doing.

CLXVI.

Work has more meaning when we are joined with others - doing things together, spurring one another on, having fun, and learning about ourselves in relation with others. It becomes meaningful as well when we are treated with a certain amount of dignity, respect and appreciation by others with whom we work.

CLXVII.

People not only engage when it matters but when they feel that they can. This is partly about the sense that their voice will be absorbed, digested, and worked with in ways that are respectful and dignified. To engage is to present others with the gift of our real selves, to stand vulnerable amidst them.

CLXVIII.

We bring ourselves into forums in which we can safely join with others to identify and solve problems. [...] We know when forums are safe or not. [...] It is that sense - that in some settings we shall be okay no matter what, and in other settings we are too vulnerable - that defines what is and is not safe, and ultimately, whether we shall engage. [...] They need forums in which to address difficult issues with one another, but more, to create connectedness among them that allows them to face further difficulties.

CLXIX.

There are productive and unproductive rules. Productive rules, for example, include the following: differences are embraced as opportunities for learning and creativity, allowed to surface and if necessary, to develop into conflicts [.] [...] Unproductive rules include these: differences and possible conflicts are avoided, ignored, smoothed over, suppressed, laughed away, or in other ways disappeared; it becomes more important to "get along" than to productively engage differences and potential conflicts[.] [...] Productive rules create the possibility for us to safely engage; the others do not.

CLXX.

We do not need to hide crucial parts of our identities, taking them off like hats and hanging them on hooks at work. This is disengagement, a pretending to be less than or different from who we are.

CLXXI.

We look at leaders, whether we want to or not. We look to see what they reward and what they sanction, and what they themselves do. We look for signals about what is accepted and what is not. For signals about how welcome our engagements are, we look to see how much our leaders truly wish to learn the truth of what happens, truths that might well include them. We are more likely to engage when our leaders are, at their core, curious.

CLXXII.

Engagement feeds upon itself. We first engage tentatively, testing the ice to see if it will hold some of our weight, and if it does, we commit more of ourselves, venturing further out, to the point that we are fully committed, trusting the ice to hold us.

CLXXIII.

Do they validate us when we fully engage? Do they take in and work with our ideas, taking them - and therefore us - seriously? Do they listen to us? [...] Do they explain their reasoning to us, and ask us what we really think? [...] Do they, in effect, trust us? [...] In every interaction [...] employees are looking for their leaders' signals, for their answers to these unspoken questions.

CLXXIV.

„Further, psychological safety is a direct function of the degree to which they trust the people and the system in which they work. [...] [T]rust is a two-way street. Employees must not have trust in others and the system to feel safe, but also need to feel that they are trusted by management.

CLXXV.

An employee who fears that expressing his or her point of view may lead to perception that he or she is a complainer, an obstacle, or a cynic, is unlikely to voice the opinion.

CLXXVI.

Employees will speak up with little or no hesitation when they trust that others will attribute their expression of concern to an interest in the success of a project and well-being of the organization. The same is true of other engagement behaviors such as proposing a new idea or volunteering to work on a new project, or in other ways taking a personal risk.

CLXXVII.

It is useful to think of engagement as an expression of willingness to make an investment of something personally valuable (time, energy, reputation, credibility) under conditions of risk.

CLXXVIII.

Trust is a function not only of personal experiences but also of the observations people make of what happens to others.

CLXXIX.

It is far more difficult to overcome distrust than it is to create trust in the first place. This is so because trust is something that people voluntarily give to others, and the psychological act of giving is central to the ways people view themselves.

CLXXX.

Research suggests that when the trustee directly addresses the violation (when he or she becomes aware of it) by acknowledging and apologizing for it, there is potential for effectively repairing the trust.

CLXXXI.

Trust and distrust can happen as a result of behavior directed at the trustor or by behavior observed by the trustor happening to others.

CLXXXII.

Trust in others is a prediction that those others will not behave in an opportunistic fashion.“ Schneider and Macey (2010) „propose, that this prediction is based on the fairness climate people experience.

CLXXXIII.

It is not sufficient for only the boss to treat employees in the work group fairly, but co-workers and the system must do so also if trust is to be the outcome.

CLXXXIV.

Management must attend to many issues if they are to observe engagement in their employees: they must attend to fairness and trust issues for themselves, their teams, and the organization as a whole to create the psychology of safety that will yield the workforce engagement they seek.

CLXXXV.

Schneider and Macey „learned from the trust literature that there are three foci for trust - peers, supervisors, and the system as a whole - and these same foci apply to the issue of fair treatment as well.

CLXXXVI.

Siehe LXVI.

CLXXXVII.

Siehe LXVII.

CLXXXVIII.

Fulfillment, in part, comes from feeling that what we do on this earth makes a difference to other people.

CLXXXIX.

Siehe IV.

CXC.

Horizontally enlarged jobs give people a greater sense of the importance of their work because they can see how the various parts of the jobs fit together into a meaningful unit. Further, vertical enlargement, in which people have greater say over what they do, also conveys a sense of importance to their endeavors.

CXCI.

Personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performances.

CXCII.

Personal disengagement, conversely, is the simultaneous withdrawal and defense of a person's preferred self in behaviors that promote a lack of connections, physical, cognitive, and emotional absence, and passive, incomplete role performances.

CXCIII.

Personally disengaging means uncoupling self from role; people's behaviors display an evacuation or suppression of their expressive and energetic selves in discharging role obligations.

CXCIV.

Three psychological conditions emerged: meaningfulness, safety, and availability whose presence influenced people to personally engage and whose absence influenced them to personally disengage.

CXCV.

Together, the three conditions shaped how people inhabited their roles. Organization members seemed to unconsciously ask themselves three questions in each situation and to personally engage or disengage depending on the answers. The questions were: (1) How meaningful is it for me to bring myself into this performance? (2) How safe is it to do so? and (3) How available am I to do so? The three conditions reflect the logic of actual contracts. People agree to contracts containing clear and desired benefits and protective guarantees when they believe themselves to possess the resources necessary to fulfill the obligations generated. That logic characterizes people's agreements to place increasing depths of themselves into

role performances. People vary their personal engagements according to their perceptions of the benefits, or the meaningfulness, and the guarantees, or the safety, they perceive in situations.

CXCVI.

Psychological meaningfulness can be seen as a feeling that one is receiving a return on investments of one's self in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional energy. People experienced such meaningfulness when they felt worthwhile, useful, and valuable-as though they made a difference and were not taken for granted.

CXCVII.

Kahn further argued that individuals ask themselves questions about these three conditions when they make decisions about the extent to which they will engage themselves in a role. Thus, employees who experience a greater amount of psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability will engage themselves to a greater extent in their work role.

CXCVIII.

The data indicated that three factors generally influenced psychological meaningfulness: task characteristics, role characteristics, and work interactions.

CXCIX.

When organization members were doing work that was challenging, clearly delineated, varied, creative, and somewhat autonomous, they were more likely to experience psychological meaningfulness.

CC.

When people were able to wield influence, occupy valuable positions in their systems, and gain desirable status, they experienced a sense of meaningfulness. The underlying dimension was power and what it bought: influence, and a sense of being valued, valuable, and needed.

CCI.

People also experienced psychological meaningfulness when their task performances included rewarding interpersonal interactions with co-workers and clients. In the two studies, meaningful interactions promoted dignity, self-appreciation, and a sense of worthwhileness. They enabled relationships in which people wanted to give to and receive from others.

CCII.

Meaningful interactions [...] often involved both personal and professional elements and a looseness of the boundaries separating the two.

CCIII.

Psychological safety was experienced as feeling able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career. People felt safe in situations in which they trusted that they would not suffer for their personal engagement.

CCIV.

Interpersonal relationships promoted psychological safety when they were supportive and trusting. Such relationships had a flexibility that allowed people to try and perhaps to fail without fearing the consequences.

CCV.

Psychological availability is the sense of having the physical, emotional, or psychological resources to personally engage at a particular moment. It measures how ready people are to engage, given the distractions they experience as members of social systems. (Kahn 1990, S. p. 714)

CCVI.

Psychological availability also corresponded to how secure people felt about their work and their status. [...] Insecurity distracted members from bringing their selves into their work; it generated anxiety that occupied energies that would have otherwise been translated into personal engagements.

CCVII.

The focus of this research was identifying psychological conditions general enough to explain moments of personal engagement and disengagement across individuals.

3.1.2. Per...

3.2. Sel...

CCVIII.

An emerging area of psychology known as flourishing, and as we shall see, this approach to psychology offers an account of flourishing that is fundamentally Aristotelian and, at the same time, acknowledges the importance of autonomy and self-determination.

CCIX.

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a eudaimonic approach to flourishing that not only has deep affinities to Aristotle's ethics, but can also provide the basis for a modern virtue theory which acknowledge the importance of autonomy.

CCX.

The fact that SDT adopts a theory of human nature which posits objectively valid needs is important.

3.2.1. SDT...

CCXI.

Mastery is an Asymptote. The idea is that you can get close to it, but you never quite touch it. Then why bother? I will close with another quote from the book: "In the end, mastery attracts precisely because mastery eludes."

CCXII.

What SDT contributes, beyond mere similarities with other frameworks, is an explanatory mechanism to understand the impact of dispositional and situational factors on state and behavioral engagement - the satisfaction of basic psychological needs.

CCXIII.

The need for autonomy is satisfied when, at the deepest levels of reflection, individuals believe that what they are doing is freely chosen and consistent with their core values.

CCXIV.

The need for competence is satisfied when people believe they have the capability and resources needed to accomplish their tasks and achieve their objectives.

CCXV.

The need for relatedness is satisfied when they feel unconditionally valued and appreciated by others.

CCXVI.

In sum, SDT addresses the mechanisms underlying employee engagement in their work activities and help to make the connections between state engagement and its antecedents (that is, trait engagement and autonomy supportive work climate) and consequences (that is, behavioral engagement and employee well-being).

CCXVII.

Employees who are disengaged will experience what is referred to in SDT as "amotivation" - the absence of intentional regulation or goal-directed activity. At the organization level, they

have little commitment of any form and therefore can be expected to leave at their convenience.

CCXVIII.

Flow cannot be experienced if there is a large discrepancy between challenges and skills.

CCXIX.

Flow requires the use of skills and depends on gradual increments of challenge and skills so that boredom or anxiety will not take over.

CCXX.

It is not only the lack of balance between skills and challenges that detracts from intrinsic motivation [.] The second condition that makes flow possible is the clarity of goals and the immediacy of feedback.

CCXXI.

Recent research hints at a relationship between need satisfaction and commitment. As an acquired attitude, need satisfaction is categorized as a characteristic adaption of the basic tendency of psychological needs.

CCXXII.

„SDT proposes that need satisfaction promotes the internalization of regulatory requirements along a continuum ranging from no internalization (i.e., external regulation), to complete, integrated regulation.

CCXXIII.

„SDT contributes to overcome the static conceptualization of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, but it theorizes the existence of several types of motivation, with differences among them being explained by the level of autonomy and freedom associated with the behavior.

CCXXIV.

Thus, in the organizational environments where the needs satisfaction is encouraged, it is quite likely that employees experience intrinsic motivation and engage in self-determined behaviors.

CCXXV.

To be autonomous is to be governed in one's actions (or life as a whole) by values, principles, or reflections that are truly one's own, to be one's own person, as opposed to being guided by external, manipulative, or alien forces.

CCXXVI.

It is individual autonomy—the capacity for us to judge things for ourselves rather than simply to take orders from other sources of authority or merely passively enjoy things as they come—that fulfills this regal promise.

CCXXVII.

Autonomy—auto-nomos—means governing (giving the law to) oneself.

CCXXVIII.

Autonomy clearly refers to the capacity of persons to act on motives, values, or principles that are self-imposed or self-validating.

CCXXIX.

This is to be guided by motives that are one's own rather than being imposed by external forces or arising from processes that are alien to one's sense of self.

CCXXX.

Conceptions of autonomy typically contain conditions that refer, on the one hand, to an agent's general competence - self-control, the absence of debilitating pathologies, weakness of the will, self-deception, compulsions, and so on - and, on the other, to the 'authenticity' of the values and motives that move one to action.

CCXXXI.

SDT maintains that an understanding of human motivation requires a consideration of innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness.

CCXXXII.

Needs specify the necessary conditions for psychological growth, integrity, and well-being.

CCXXXIII.

Social contexts and individual differences that support satisfaction of the basic needs facilitate natural growth processes including intrinsically motivated behavior and integration of extrinsic motivations, whereas those that forestall autonomy, competence, or relatedness are associated with poorer motivation, performance, and well-being.

CCXXXIV.

SDT has, in contrast, maintained that a full understanding not only of goal-directed behavior, but also of psychological development and well-being, cannot be achieved without addressing the needs that give goals their psychological potency and that influence which regulatory processes direct people's goal pursuits.

CCXXXV.

Specifically, in SDT, three psychological needs—for competence, relatedness, and autonomy—are considered essential for understanding the what (i.e., content) and why (i.e., process) of goal pursuits.

CCXXXVI.

In SDT, needs specify innate psychological nutrients that are essential for ongoing psychological growth, integrity, and well-being.

CCXXXVII.

Human needs specify the necessary conditions for psychological health or well-being and their satisfaction is thus hypothesized to be associated with the most effective functioning.

CCXXXVIII.

A further claim is that each of these three needs plays a necessary part in optimal development so that none can be thwarted or neglected without significant negative consequences.

CCXXXIX.

Psychological health requires satisfaction of all three needs; one or two are not enough.

CCXL.

SDT maintains that a psychological need can be identified by observing that positive psychological consequences result from conditions that allow its satisfaction and negative consequences accrue in situations that thwart it.

CCXLI.

The starting point for SDT is the postulate that humans are active, growth-oriented organisms who are naturally inclined toward integration of their psychic elements into a unified sense of self and integration of themselves into larger social structure.

CCXLII.

Innate psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy concern the deep structure of the human psyche, for they refer to innate and life-span tendencies toward achieving effectiveness, connectedness, and coherence.

CCXLIII.

A direct corollary of the SDT perspective is that people will tend to pursue goals, domains, and relationships that allow or support their need satisfaction. To the extent that they are successful in finding such opportunities, they will experience positive psychological outcomes.

CCXLIV.

From the latter perspective, needs are understood as physiological deficits that disturb the organism's quiescence and push the organism to behave in ways that were learned because they satisfied the needs and returned the organism to quiescence.

CCXLV.

When people are experiencing reasonable need satisfaction, they will not necessarily be behaving specifically to satisfy the needs; rather, they will be doing what they find interesting or important.

CCXLVI.

Autonomy concerns the experience of integration and freedom, and it is an essential aspect of healthy human functioning.

CCXLVII.

In any case their satisfaction is essential for the healthy development and well-being of all individuals regardless of culture.

CCXLVIII.

We do assume that there are important individual differences that affect the degree to which people will experience need satisfaction in different contexts.

CCXLIX.

There may be individual differences in the strength of people's needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness [.]“ Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan „believe that these innate differences are not the most fruitful place to focus attention. Instead, greater benefits will be reaped from focusing on individual differences in motivational orientations and in the importance of goal contents, these being individual differences that result from the interaction of the basic needs with the social world - that is, from past experiences of need satisfaction versus thwarting.

CCL.

The specification by SDT of the three fundamental needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy was not simply an assumptive or a priori process but instead emerged from inductive and deductive empirical processes.

CCLI.

Although autonomy and competence have been found to be the most powerful influences on intrinsic motivation, theory and research suggest that relatedness also plays a role, albeit a more distal one, in the maintenance of intrinsic motivation.

CCLII.

Goal-directed activities can differ in the extent to which they are autonomous or self-determined-that is, in the extent to which they are enacted with a full sense of volition and choice.

CCLIII.

SDT proposes that people will tend naturally to internalize the values and regulations of their social groups. This tendency is facilitated by feelings of relatedness to socializing others, as well as feelings of competence with respect to the regulation being internalized.

CCLIV.

In the initial research by Deci and Ryan the autonomy orientation was found to relate positively to self-actualization, self-esteem, ego development, and other indicators of well-being.

CCLV.

Autonomy involves being volitional, acting from one's integrated sense of self, and endorsing one's actions. It does not entail being separate from, not relying upon, or being independent of others.

CCLVI.

Autonomy occupies a unique position in the set of three needs: being able to satisfy the needs for competence and relatedness may be enough for controlled behavior, but being able to satisfy the need for autonomy is essential for the goal-directed behavior to be self-determined and for many of the optimal outcomes associated with self-determination to accrue.

CCLVII.

It seems that when people are more able to satisfy all three of their basic psychological needs the regulation of their behavior will be characterized by choice, volition, and autonomy rather than pressure, demand, and control, and the result will be higher quality behavior and greater psychological well-being.

CCLVIII.

Deci&Rayn „have been engaged in diverse studies to show that satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs are linked directly to well-being.

CCLIX.

SDT predicts that fluctuations in need satisfaction will directly predict fluctuations in well-being.

CCLX.

Daily fluctuations in satisfaction of the three needs independently predicted daily fluctuations in well-being.

CCLXI.

Nonetheless persistent deprivation of any need has costs for health and well-being.

CCLXII.

Thus, in spite of people's persistent attempts to satisfy the fundamental needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy, if the social world provides no reliable paths that allow fulfillment of these critical needs, and if people have to stay in situations that consistently block need satisfaction (e.g., children often have to stay in nonnurturing homes and schools), SDT predicts significant psychological costs and accommodations.

CCLXIII.

A lack of basic need satisfaction can lead people to develop need substitutes, which can in turn have the ill-fated consequence of continuing to interfere with attainment of the nutrients they really need.

CCLXIV.

One ramification of the development of strong compensatory motives such as extrinsic aspirations is that they not only result from lack of basic need satisfaction but they also tend to perpetuate the lack of need satisfaction because they are likely to keep people focused on the need substitutes or extrinsic goals, thus strengthening the "wrong" goals and exacerbating the negative, ill-being consequences.

CCLXV.

It seems that social environments that interfere with need satisfaction can turn individuals toward goals and activities that serve to compensate for the lack of need satisfaction but may involve serious risks for physical and psychological health.

CCLXVI.

SDT proposes fundamental needs: (a) to engage optimal challenges and experience mastery or effectance in the physical and social worlds; (b) to seek attachments and experience feelings of security, belongingness, and intimacy with others; and (c) to self-organize and regulate one's own behavior (and avoid heteronomous control), which includes the tendency to work toward inner coherence and integration among regulatory demands and goals.

CCLXVII.

Although humans innately tend toward autonomy, competence, and relatedness, these tendencies are not the only determinants of behavior, and they can be constrained or subverted by other factors such as rewards, punishments, and rituals of specific cultures.

CCLXVIII.

These natural developmental tendencies toward autonomy (i.e., internal integration) and homonymy (i.e., social integration), like other natural tendencies such as intrinsic motivation, are assumed to require nutriment or supports from the social environment to function effectively.

CCLXIX.

Deci&Rayn „subsequently showed that the experienced satisfaction of these three needs was directly related to psychological health and well-being.

CCLXX.

In short, needs specify the conditions under which people can most fully realize their human potentials.

CCLXXI.

When these needs are thwarted, people display diminished motivation and more symptoms of ill-being.

CCLXXII.

SDT is a comprehensive and widely studied motivational theory that views psychological needs as human universals, defined as essential psychological nutrients.

CCLXXIII.

Perhaps the best known of all needs theories is Maslow's needs hierarchy theory (1943, 1970), which has been studied in terms of both the need-strength and need-satisfaction conceptualizations. Maslow specified five categories of human needs, including the physiological and the psychological needs and the deficit and growth needs. The five categories within Maslow's theory were then organized in a hierarchical format. He argued that the lowest order needs (e.g., for oxygen, food, drink, and sex) are very powerful, physiological, deficit-oriented motivators when they have not been well satisfied. When they have been well satisfied, however, the person moves on to the next higher level, at which such needs as safety and security become centrally salient. The levels then proceed through the affiliative needs to esteem needs and finally to the need for self-actualization, which caps the hierarchy. [...] Maslow maintained that the needs in his hierarchy are evolved, and indeed there can be no doubt that some of them are (certainly the lowest level physiological needs are inherent aspects of being human). However, little or no research using the Maslow framework has attempted to determine whether the various needs are indeed innate or may instead either be learned or emerge when evolved needs are unsatisfied.

CCLXXIV.

The SDT perspective differs from Maslow's in three important ways. First, although both theories suggest that there are universal psychological and physiological needs, SDT does not consider all of the needs in Maslow's hierarchy to be basic (i.e., evolved) needs, instead suggesting that some of them, such as the needs for security and self-esteem, are not actually basic needs but are need substitutes that result from thwarting of the basic needs.

CCLXXV.

People do not inherently work to experience self-esteem; self-esteem accrues as they get their basic psychological needs satisfied. When, however, needs are thwarted and insecurities mount, self-esteem becomes a "need," in the sense of a strong motive or desire.

CCLXXVI.

SDT does not organize the needs in a hierarchical fashion, maintaining instead that the basic psychological needs as well as the basic drives (i.e., physiological needs) are operative across the life span. As such, it is not necessary to have the so-called lower-order needs consistently well satisfied before the higher-order needs emerge.

CCLXXVII.

SDT focuses on the degree to which psychological needs are satisfied, rather than the strength of the needs, as a primary predictor of outcomes. Thus, for example, we would not use the strength of the higher-order needs as our central focus, but rather the degree to which these needs were satisfied on the job, to predict high-quality performance, work satisfaction, and other important employee outcomes.

CCLXXVIII.

Having had the basic need thwarted suggests insecurity.

CCLXXIX.

SDT „was founded upon an organismic meta-theory, which assumes an active organism inherently oriented toward mastering the environment and assimilating experiences into a unified set of inner processes and structures, referred to as self, that promotes autonomous motivation and behavior.“

CCLXXX.

Many studies have been accomplished using the SDT framework examining the relations of need satisfaction to workplace well-being and performance.

CCLXXXI.

If people’s long-term goals interfere with need satisfaction, greater ill-being is likely to result.

CCLXXXII.

From the SDT perspective [...] making the workplace more need satisfying for employees can in fact have a quite positive effect for the employees [...], and thus fewer employees will find themselves “waiting for the weekend.

CCLXXXIII.

Satisfaction of the basic psychological needs played an important role in explaining the impact of people’s work aspirations on psychological well-being and work engagement, as did their motivational (i.e., causality) orientations and the need supportiveness of the work environment.

CCLXXXIV.

The SDT proposition that the three basic psychological needs are universal necessities for all people’s healthy development, engagement, and well-being has been tested in cross-cultural research in diverse cultures, especially ones in which one or another of the needs is not valued by the culture.

CCLXXXV.

Thus, the more appropriate conclusion is that rewards should typically not be used explicitly and deliberately to try to motivate employees to do work tasks because it is likely that if they are the employees will experience the reward contingencies as controlling and thwarting of their autonomy and will thus tend to lose intrinsic motivation.

CCLXXXVI.

Compensation structures and other workplace rewards will be most effective and least detrimental when they are relatively nonsalient, reflective of good performance, noncompetitive, and equitable.

CCLXXXVII.

SDT, which has gained prominence in organizational psychology and management during recent years, proposes that all people have evolved psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness; and that it is important to differentiate types of motivation, the most important distinction being between autonomous and controlled motivation, when making predictions about effective performance and workplace adjustment.

CCLXXXVIII.

SDT says clearly that identification takes place because a value or an interest has been internalized.

CCLXXXIX.

A regulation that has been taken in by the person but has not been accepted as his or her own is said to be introjected and provides the basis for introjected regulation.

CCXC.

SDT research focuses not on the consequences of the strength of those needs for different individuals, but rather on the consequences of the extent to which individuals are able to satisfy the needs within social environments.

CCXCI.

SDT also addresses individual differences in people's orientations toward the initiation and regulation of their behavior.

CCXCII.

The primary difference between SDT and most other work motivation theories is that the focus of SDT is on the relative strength of autonomous versus controlled motivation, rather than on the total amount of motivation.

CCXCIII.

SDT not only has deep affinities to Aristotle's ethics, but also acknowledges the centrality of autonomy to human flourishing.

CCXCIV.

SDT can be understood as envisioning the motivational system as one which is driven by three primary desires. For a need is a desire that has normative force - it is a yearning that ought to be fulfilled because such fulfillment is necessary for flourishing.

CCXCV.

The need for autonomy is fully satisfied only if the individual engages in certain type of activity, specifically, a certain type of goal-oriented or teleological activity. [...] SDT conceives of autonomy as the presence of a special kind of teleological experience. SDT identifies autonomy as a goal-oriented experience, albeit one of a very specific kind.

CCXCVI.

Indeed, from the beginnings of intellectual history, there has been considerable debate about what defines optimal experience and what constitutes "the good life." Obviously, this debate has enormous theoretical and practical implications.

CCXCVII.

Many philosophers, religious masters, and visionaries, from both the East and West, have denigrated happiness per se as a principal criterion of well-being. Aristotle, for example, considered hedonic happiness to be a vulgar ideal, making humans slavish followers of desires. He posited, instead, that true happiness is found in the expression of virtue—that is, in doing what is worth doing.

CCXCVIII.

The term eudaimonia is valuable because it refers to well-being as distinct from happiness per se. Eudaimonic theories maintain that not all desires—not all outcomes that a person might value—would yield well-being when achieved.

CCXCIX.

Specification of basic needs defines not only the minimum requirements of psychological health but also delineates prescriptively the nutrients that the social environment must supply for people to thrive and grow psychologically.

CCC.

SDT does not, however, suggest that the basic needs are equally valued in all families, social groups, or cultures, but it does maintain that thwarting of these needs will result in negative psychological consequences in all social or cultural contexts.

3.2.2. SDT...

CCCI.

Siehe LIX.

CCCII.

SDT is based on the proposition that human beings are born with the tendency to seek out new and challenging situations, to grow, to learn, and to adapt, but that they require supportive conditions to reach their potential.

CCCIII.

SDT states that the process of engaging in challenging acts can be enjoyable and rewarding even (and maybe especially) in the absence of external rewards. However, the extent to which behaviors are perceived to be autonomous is an important part of fulfilling needs.

CCCIV.

Extrinsic motivation falls along a dimension of autonomous regulation ranging from external (i.e., to obtain a reward, no internalization; least autonomous), introjected (i.e. to boost perception of self-worth), identified (i.e., to support personal goals and values), to integrated (i.e., to meet fully assimilated goals; most autonomous).

CCCV.

With a view toward analysis and intervention, organizations should offer to their employees the necessary conditions to develop a self-determined work motivation, by taking into account the importance of individual and organizational factors. Such factors are capable to increase commitment and positive behaviors reducing the risk of turnover, and they are essential to work well-being.

CCCVI.

„Being motivated means being “driven” to do something. Someone who does not feel inspired to act toward a specific target is essentially considered as non-motivated.

CCCVII.

The prototype of autonomous motivation is intrinsic motivation. To be intrinsically motivated means that people engage an activity because they find it interesting and because they receive internal satisfaction from doing it.

CCCVIII.

„The peculiarity of the continuum postulated by SDT is that extrinsic motivation can vary assuming different forms (regulations) in the degree to which they are autonomous or controlled. The highest form of controlled motivation is the external regulation.

CCCIX.

Introjected regulation is a kind of extrinsic motivation whose regulation has been internalized but not completely accepted as one's own.

CCCX.

Identified regulation is an autonomous type of extrinsic motivation in which an individual identifies with the value of his or her behavior and considers it personally important. In doing so, the individual acts in a relatively autonomous and self-determined way.

CCCXI.

We think that motivation can increase or decrease over time dependent on whether commitment itself increases or decreases.

CCCXII.

Siehe CXLIV.

CCCXIII.

This makes us think that an emotionally involved employee, in line with objectives and values of the organization, displays stronger internalization of the organization's values and tends to persist longer in his/her behavior.

CCCXIV.

A strong bond with one's organization that is based on the perception that quitting would be a great sacrifice [...] determines a form of both introjected and external regulation.

CCCXV.

Results of [Battistellis, Gallettas, Portogheses and Vandenberghe] simple and multiple mediation tests [...] revealed that intrinsic motivation completely mediated the relationship of AC to altruism and civic virtue, and partially mediated the relationship of AC to job satisfaction and of AC to professional turnover intention.

CCCXVI.

Employees who are tied to their organization due to instrumental factors (i.e., career opportunities or the fear to lose benefits associated with seniority) or due to a lack of employment opportunities, are driven by a type of motivation that is not connected to a work pleasure per se.

CCCXVII.

The significance of Csikszentmihalyi's research was how intrinsically motivated people are driven by the work itself rather than by the accomplishment of the task. He included people in a wide range of occupations and activities and discovered a particular kind of experience where people's performance seemed effortless. They described the feeling of being able to continue forever in their task and wanting to learn additional skills to master more demanding challenges. The fun, sense of mastery, and the potential for growth of self was what he labeled flow. In addition, they were disappointed when the work was finished because they were no longer in the flow state. This flow state was very similar to Maslow's peak experiences at the self-actualization level.

CCCXVIII.

Siehe IX.

CCCXIX.

Although the emphasis may be on the congruence of the task with our beliefs, objectives, and anticipated rewards, motivation is seen as focused on the accomplishment of the task. The common assumption is that we are motivated by values based on result or outcome.

CCCXX.

Intrinsically motivated activities were defined as those that individuals find interesting and would do in the absence of operationally separable consequences.

CCCXXI.

Intrinsic motivation concerns active engagement with tasks that people find interesting and that, in turn, promote growth. [...] However, this active engagement, this involvement and commitment with interesting activities, requires the nutrients of need fulfillment, and, indeed, people will become more or less interested in activities as a function of the degree to which they experience need satisfaction while engaging in those activities.

CCCXXII.

Intrinsically motivated behaviors are those that are freely engaged out of interest without the necessity of separable consequences, and, to be maintained, they require satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and competence.

CCCXXIII.

The overarching hypothesis that has guided [...] [the work of Deci&Ryan] is that intrinsic motivation will be facilitated by conditions that conduce toward psychological need satisfaction, whereas undermining of intrinsic motivation will result when conditions tend to thwart need satisfaction."

CCCXXIV.

„Motivational strategies such as rewards and threats undermine autonomy and thus lead to nonoptimal outcomes such as decreased intrinsic motivation, less creativity, and poorer problem solving.

CCCXXV.

Intrinsic motivation involves people freely engaging in activities that they find interesting, that provide novelty and optimal challenge.

CCCXXVI.

The four regulatory styles [(regulatory processes)], ranging from external to integrated regulation and representing the four types of extrinsic motivation, fall along a continuum anchored by controlled and autonomous regulation.

CCCXXVII.

The self-determination continuum, showing the motivational, self-regulatory, and perceived locus of causality bases behaviors that vary in the degree to which they are self-determined.

CCCXXVIII.

Intrinsic motivation and well-internalized extrinsic motivation are the bases for autonomous or self-determined behavior.

CCCXXIX.

External and introjected regulations are the processes through which behavior is controlled.

CCCXXX.

The internalization and integration of values and regulations is assumed in SDT to be a natural developmental tendency.

CCCXXXI.

Together, these results suggested that even highly efficacious individuals may experience less than optimal well-being if they pursue and successfully attain goals with more extrinsic than intrinsic contents.

CCCXXXII.

When people pursue extrinsic aspirations for autonomous reasons there would not be negative effects, and, further, it would imply that because pursuit of extrinsic aspirations has consistently been found to relate negatively to well-being, extrinsic aspirations are usually pursued for nonautonomous reasons.

CCCXXXIII.

The autonomous regulation of goal pursuits is associated with better performance and mental health than is the controlled regulation of goal pursuits, because integrated regulation allows fuller satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs.

CCCXXXIV.

Research showed that the frustration of basic needs was associated with less intrinsic motivation, more controlled regulation and amotivation, and stronger extrinsic aspirations, which in turn lead to diminished experience, performance, and wellness.

CCCXXXV.

The two most important implications of all the studies of reward effects on intrinsic motivation are that it is important to keep rewards relatively nonsalient, and that, when given, they should convey a sense of acknowledgment for performance well done.

CCCXXXVI.

Autonomous motivation, which recruits the whole-hearted efforts of employees, has payoffs in terms of productivity, creativity, and lower burnout and turnover. Substantial research in the psychological laboratory and in work organizations has supported this viewpoint, and managers who have adopted orientations and procedures that support rather than thwart their subordinates' basic needs have been shown to be more effective.

CCCXXXVII.

Autonomous motivation refers to acting with volition, as when employees engage in their job for the inherent pleasure and satisfaction they experience (intrinsic motivation) and/or because they personally endorse the importance or value of their tasks (identified regulation).

CCCXXXVIII.

Controlled motivation refers to behaviors that are enacted under internal or external pressure, as when employees perform their job to gain a sense of self-worth or to avoid feelings of anxiety and guilt (introjected regulation) and/or because they are pressured by demands, threats or rewards by an external agent (external regulation).

CCCXXXIX.

The quality of work motivation plays a significant role in employee functioning. The form of motivation, or the reason that individuals engage in their work, is a prime determinant of employee commitment and job strain.

CCCXL.

The form of motivation (i.e. whether it is autonomous or controlled) has a differential impact on commitment and exhaustion. Specifically, autonomous motivation shows a stronger effect than controlled motivation. This suggests that behaving with a full sense of volition and choice (e.g. "I want to do it") is more determinant of commitment and exhaustion than feelings of internal or external pressure (e.g. "I have to do it").

CCCXLI.

The fact that autonomously motivated employees may require less monitoring and less support to sustain their engagement implies that as long as leaders ensure that psychological needs are fulfilled, they may need to monitor and reward employees less in order to get high performance.

CCCXLII.

Trust can be studied from different angles. Not only do managers need to learn to trust that their employees "have it in them" to be autonomously motivated, but employees must also trust their manager.

CCCXLIII.

Identified regulation is driven by values and goals, whereas intrinsic motivation is driven by emotions that emerge while engaging in the activity.

CCCXLIV.

Gagné, Chemolli et al. (2008) „argue that it is still important to distinguish between motivation and commitment by treating them as constructs with different targets. [...] [They] therefore propose that the target of commitment is an entity (e.g., organization, person or event), whereas the target of motivation is a course of action (for which movement is necessary). [...] [They] similarly argue that there is considerable conceptual overlap between types of motivation and types of commitment.

CCCXLV.

Intrinsic motivation involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself.

CCCXLVI.

Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, requires an instrumentality between the activity and some separable consequences such as tangible or verbal rewards, so satisfaction comes not from the activity itself but rather from the extrinsic consequences to which the activity leads.

CCCXLVII.

Central to SDT is the distinction between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomy involves acting with a sense of volition and having the experience of choice.

CCCXLVIII.

Autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional, and together they stand in contrast to amotivation, which involves a lack of intention and motivation.

CCCXLIX.

Intrinsically motivated behavior, which is propelled by people's interest in the activity itself, is prototypically autonomous. However, an important aspect of SDT is the proposition that extrinsic motivation can vary in the degree to which it is autonomous versus controlled.

CCCL.

Within SDT, when a behavior is so motivated it is said to be externally regulated—that is, initiated and maintained by contingencies external to the person. This is the classic type of extrinsic motivation and is a prototype of controlled motivation.

CCCLI.

According to SDT, internalization is an overarching term that refers to three different processes: introjection, identification, and integration.

CCCLII.

Internalization is defined as people taking in values, attitudes, or regulatory structures, such that the external regulation of a behavior is transformed into an internal regulation and thus no longer requires the presence of an external contingency (thus, I work even when the boss is not watching).

CCCLIII.

With identified regulation, people feel greater freedom and volition because the behavior is more congruent with their personal goals and identities.

CCCLIV.

The fullest type of internalization, which allows extrinsic motivation to be truly autonomous or volitional, involves the integration of an identification with other aspects of oneself—that is, with other identifications, interests, and values.

CCCLV.

SDT posits a self-determination continuum [...]. It ranges from amotivation, which is wholly lacking in self-determination, to intrinsic motivation, which is invariantly self-determined. Between amotivation and intrinsic motivation, along this descriptive continuum, are the four types of extrinsic motivation, with external being the most controlled (and thus the least self-determined) type of extrinsic motivation, and introjected, identified, and integrated being progressively more self-determined.

CCCLVI.

The self-determination continuum showing amotivation, which is wholly lacking in self-determination; the types of extrinsic motivation, which vary in their degree of self-determination; and intrinsic motivation, which is invariantly self-determined. Also shown are the nature of the regulation for each and its placement along the continuum indexing the degree to which each represents autonomous motivation.

CCCLVII.

SDT postulates that when people experience satisfaction of the needs for relatedness and competence with respect to a behavior, they will tend to internalize its value and regulation, but the degree of satisfaction of the need for autonomy is what distinguishes whether identification or integration, rather than just introjection, will occur.

CCCLVIII.

Autonomy support is the most important social-contextual factor for predicting identification and integration, and thus autonomous behavior.

CCCLIX.

Field and lab studies have found that supports for the basic needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy facilitate internalization and integration of extrinsic motivation, with supports for autonomy being the most important for facilitating integration.

CCCLX.

SDT distinguishes between amotivation (i.e., lack of motivation) and motivation. Amotivation involves not having an intention to act, whereas motivation involves intentionality.

CCCLXI.

Within motivation, SDT distinguishes between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation.

CCCLXII.

Autonomous motivation includes intrinsic motivation and well-internalized extrinsic motivation.

CCCLXIII.

Controlled motivation consists of external regulation (the only type of extrinsic motivation that was considered when research focused on the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) and introjected extrinsic motivation. Thus, the degree of one's controlled motivation reflects the degree to which one feels coerced or seduced by external contingencies or by their introjected counterparts.

CCCLXIV.

The central motivational issue in most theories is the amount of total motivation a person has for a task, so the type of motivation is not considered in making predictions.

CCCLXV.

Many studies indicate that autonomous motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation and integrated extrinsic motivation) maximizes heuristic performance, citizenship, trust, commitment, satisfaction, and wellbeing.

CCCLXVI.

One important similarity between the SDT model of flourishing and Aristotle's, concerns the centrality of intrinsically motivated activity. [...] Indeed, intrinsic motivation is central to Aristotle's account of flourishing.

3.2.3. TCM...

CCCLXVII.

The TCM was developed initially to integrate existing conceptualizations of commitment into a single multidimensional framework.

CCCLXVIII.

One of the strongest situational influences on employee affective and normative commitment is fair treatment of employees by their supervisor. It is recommended that managers treat employees with dignity and respect and provide them with sufficient information about decisions and processes in the organization.

CCCLXIX.

To avoid potential confusion, a few key terms are clarified here as to how they are used [.] First, affective, continuance, and normative commitment are referred to as mindsets (not types or kinds of commitment). Second, the different things to which one can be committed (e.g., organizations, goals, supervisors, career) are referred to as either commitment foci or targets.

CCCLXX.

Commitment is differentiated from related constructs (e.g. identification) and discussed as both an independent and dependent variable in the study of other I/O [(Industrial and Organizational)] psychology topics (e.g. performance, withdrawal).

CCCLXXI.

Most dictionaries provide multiple definitions of commitment. The commitment literature provides even more variation with respect to the nature and meaning of commitment.

CCCLXXII.

However, continued variation and absence of consensus on the definition of commitment leads to confusion surrounding the terminology, nature, and function of commitment.

CCCLXXIII.

The explicit study of commitment was largely absent from workplace literature prior to the early 1960s. Before then, the study of commitment was found primarily in the fields of psychology and sociology.

CCCLXXIV.

In evaluating these eight conceptualizations,“ Klein, Molloy et al. „concluded that commitment has, in many cases, been described in a manner that is confounded with the antecedents or consequences of commitment.

CCCLXXV.

In addition to describing the different ways in which commitment has been defined, [...] [Klein, Molloy et al. (2009)] have also distinguished among those depictions that, from [...] [their] perspective, in light of the accumulated evidence, are best viewed as either antecedents or consequences of commitment and not part of commitment itself.

CCCLXXVI.

These bases reflect different processes by which commitment can develop. Each basis is associated with a different mindset, a different way an individual may perceive their singular commitment (defined as a binding force). Specifically, the desire basis is associated with the affective commitment mindset, whereas perceived cost is associated with the continuance mindset, and felt obligation is associated with the normative mindset.

3.2.4. Das...

CCCLXXVII.

The TCM parallels SDT in several respects, most notably in the notion of multiple mindsets. One of the more notable differences, however, is that the primary focus of the TCM has been on organizational engagement.

CCCLXXVIII.

Among other things, we know that employees are more likely to remain with their employer when they are committed, and that effort when their commitment reflects an affective attachment, a sense of obligation, or both, than when it is based on the perceived costs of leaving.

CCCLXXIX.

The key to moving employees along the continuum toward full engagement is the satisfaction of employees 'basic psychological needs.

CCCLXXX.

According to SDT, some individuals are more predisposed to engagement than others. These individuals have a greater internal locus of control (that is, believe they can control their own destinies) and an autonomous causality orientation (that is, are more proactive in seeking out situations that allow them to fulfill their basic needs).

CCCLXXXI.

For both the activity and organizational foci, the model makes distinctions between three categories of engagement: (1) disengagement, (2) contingent engagement, and (3) full engagement. Employees who are disengaged are expected to experience what is referred to in SDT as amotivation: the absence of intentional regulation or goal-directed activity. At the organization level, they have little commitment of any form and therefore can be expected to leave at their convenience. By contrast, fully engaged employees are autonomously regulated. This can be experienced as intrinsic motivation, where performance of task-relevant activities is enjoyable, or as identified regulation, where the work is not intrinsically interesting but is valued and meaningful. At the organizational level, fully engaged employees are likely to have

a strong affective commitment, perhaps accompanied by strong normative commitment reflecting a sense of moral duty to remain and contribute to the success of the organization.

CCCLXXXII.

A key to the integration of the TCM and SDT was the correspondence between the commitment and motivational mindsets.

CCCLXXXIII.

One of the major contributions of SDT to commitment theory is the introduction of need satisfaction as a potential basis for the development of commitment.

3.3. Mitar...

3.3.1. The...

CCCLXXXIV.

Siehe XLV.

CCCLXXXV.

Siehe XLVI.

CCCLXXXVI.

Schneider and Macey „propose that fairness leads to trust and trust in turn yields improved likelihood that people will take risks to be engaged.

CCCLXXXVII.

Siehe CCCLXXXVIII

CCCLXXXVIII.

Having choice on how to complete work tasks satisfies the need for autonomy. Setting expectations, explaining the purpose of work to employees, and providing performance feedback increases employee perceptions of competence which translates into higher levels of engagement and helping behaviors at work.

CCCLXXXIX.

When employees perceive their organization as supportive, they are likely to reciprocate positive organizational treatment with a greater desire and obligation to stay in the organization and contribute to its success.

CCCXC.

Schneider and Macey „learned from the trust literature that there are three foci for trust - peers, supervisors, and the system as a whole - and these same foci apply to the issue of fair treatment as well.“

CCCXCI.

The creation and maintenance of a climate of fairness and the trust engendered by it yields feelings of psychological safety that result in engagement.

CCCXCII.

Siehe CCXIX

3.3.2. In...

4. Zus...

4.1. Log...

CCCXCIII.

Siehe XLIII.

CCCXCIV.

Siehe CCCLXXIX

CCCXCV.

In a discussion on the topic <Cultural Evolution as Viewed by Psychologists (1961)> Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1904-1990), a Professor of Psychology, said: "You arrange conditions under which things happen, and they happen not because you force them to happen, but because you give them the opportunity. One can arrange for spontaneous combustion, not by setting something on fire, but by arranging conditions under which it catches fire.

CCCXCVI.

There is also a large body of research demonstrating that human beings derive their sense of identity, at least in part, based on their associations with other individuals and groups.

CCCXCVII.

Presumably, employees want to remain in organizations that provide them with positive work experiences because they value these experiences and expect them to continue.

CCCXCVIII.

Siehe CXLI.

4.2. Zu...