

Study of Employee Engagement In The Light Of Certain Motivational Theories

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Abstract: Employees may be motivated on the job by many things, such as a sense of achievement, recognition, enjoyment of the job, promotion opportunities, responsibility, and the chance for personal growth. Employee motivation and performance are tied directly to the style of management that is applied and to principles of positive or negative reinforcement. Employee engagement is the level of commitment and involvement an employee has towards their organization and its values. An engaged employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organization. It is a positive attitude held by the employees towards the organization and its values. The present paper focuses to analyze the employee engagement concept in the light of prominent motivation Theories.

Key words : Employee engagement , motivation .

Key Concepts

Motivation: A term referring to the factors that activate, direct, as well as sustain goal- directed behavior. Though motivation cannot be observed, it can be inferred that it exists based on behavior we can observe (Nevid 2013). To be motivated is to be moved to do something (Deci & Ryan 2000, 54).

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: Intrinsic motivation is when a person does an activity (is moved) because it is inherently satisfying, rather than for a separable outcome. An intrinsically motivated person is moved to act because of the enjoyment or the challenge of the activity, and not because of external incentives or rewards. Contrastingly, extrinsic motivation is when a person is moved to act by external pressures, prods or rewards for a separable outcome (Deci & Ryan 2000, 56).

Employee motivation: The intrinsic enthusiasm that drives individuals to accomplish personal and organizational goals. Competing theories stress either incentives or employee involvement and empowerment. (Inc. 2017.)

Employee engagement: Is a workplace approach aimed at creating conditions in which employees are committed to their organization's goals and values, are motivated to contribute to organizational success, and offer more of their capability and potential with an enhanced sense of their own well-being (Engage for Success 2015).

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I. Introduction

The effectiveness of an organization, though dependent upon its subsystems like structure, technology and tasks; is largely determined by the way the individuals perform in an organization. The concept of employee engagement is a measurement of how happy employees are with the respective job, working environment and how efficient their performance levels are? Managing high morale among the employees can be of remarkable benefit to any organization's actively engaged workers who are more productive and are likely to stay loyal and longer with company. Military history has time and again proved that those armies equipped with relatively inferior weapons have won the battles because they were more motivated. On one hand it's the man behind machine who matters and on the other it is the man behind the weapon. In Short it is an employee giving results who matters for an organisation and for whose practical performance, the theories on Employee Engagement or for motivation have come up in the field of Human Resource Development.

II. Objectives And Research Methodology

The present paper aims to understand basic concept of motivation as applicable to engaged employee of a company in the light of prominent motivational theories. The paper will be based upon following:-

- A. Review of literature .
- B. Analysis of results ,discussion, findings
- C. Conclusion and scope for further research.

III. Limitations

The research is limited to organizational psychology, management journals, online journals to identify status of employee engagement practices at work, combat motivational issues and motivational theories.

IV. Review Of Literature

EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

The studies of morale or groups willingness to accomplish organizational objective began in 1920's Little, Beverly, Phillips in their "Employee Engagement: Conceptual issues", research paper explore the construct of employee engagement definition and contrasts with other existing, well validated constructs. As per them in its present usage the full term Employee engagement was coined by Gallup organization as a result of 25 years of extensive interviewing and surveying the employees and managers. Their main intent was to create measure of work place which could be used for comparisons by various organizations. The original book coming out of Gallup, Buckingham and Coffman (1999) report, refines set of employee opinion questions and relates to organizational outcomes along with statistically supported wok popularly called as Gallup Work Place Audit (1999) W.A. Kahn (1990) one of the first in the field of psychology discussed the term engagement and related it to the concept of disengagement and thus is known as the pioneer in the field of engagement (Avery et al. 2007; Stairs and Galpin, 2010). He first developed the theory of personal engagement and disengagement at work. He concluded that to become highly engaged, employees need three psychological conditions in their work: psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability. According to Kahn, engagement means, to be psychologically as well as well as physically present when occupying and performing an organizational role. Most often employee engagement has been defined as emotional and intellectual commitment to the organization (Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006 and Shaw, 2005) or the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their job (Frank et al., 2004). Although it is acknowledged and accepted that employee engagement is a multi-faceted construct, as previously suggested by Kahn (1990); Truss et al. (2006) defines employee engagement simply as 'passion for work', a psychological state which is seen to encompass the three dimensions of engagement discussed by Kahn (1990). Two theories thus simultaneously emerged :-

A. Engagement at Work place was conceptualized by Kahn (1990) as harnessing of organizational members to their work role. In engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during their role performance.

B. Engagement in organizational behavior as a notion of flow was advanced by Csikszentmihalyi (1975,1990). He defined flow as holistic sensation that people feel when they act with total involvement. Flow is a state where there is little distinction between self and environment and in this state little conscious control is necessary for their actions.

CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYEES

According to Gallup consulting organization there are three different types of employees

A. **Engaged.** Engaged employees are builders. They want to know the desired expectations of their role so they can meet and exceed them. They are naturally curious about their company and their place in it. They perform consistently at high levels. They want to use their talents and strengths at the place of work. They work with passion and drive innovation helping move their organization forward.

B. **Not engaged.** Not engaged employees tend to concentrate on tasks rather than goals and outcomes they are expected to accomplish. They want to be told what to do so they can do it and say they have achieved it. They focus on accomplishing tasks than achieving outcomes .These employees tend to feel that their contribution and share being overlooked and their potential is not tapped. They feel this way as they don't have productive relationship with their managers and coworkers.

C. **Actively Disengaged.** Actively disengaged employees are "Cave Dwellers". They are as a concept against every thing. They are not just happy at work but busy acting their unhappiness. They sow seeds of negativity at every opportunity. They undermine what their engaged co workers accomplish. Thus problems and tensions are fostered by these actively disengaged workers which cause damage to organizational harmony and functioning.

MOTIVATION AND MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

The term motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere' meaning to move (Kretiner, 1998). Motivation represents those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions

that are goal oriented (Mitchell, 1982, p.81). Motivation as defined by Robbins (1993) is the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organizational goals, conditioned by the effort and ability to satisfy some individual need. A need in this context is an internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within the individual. These drives then generate a search behavior to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and lead to the reduction of tension (Robbins, 1993). The inference is that motivated employees are in a state of tension and to relieve this tension, they exert effort. The greater the tension, the higher the effort level as illustrated in Figure 1. Motivational theorists differ on where the energy is derived and on the particular needs that a person is attempting to fulfill, but most would agree that motivation requires a desire to act, an ability to act, and having an objective.

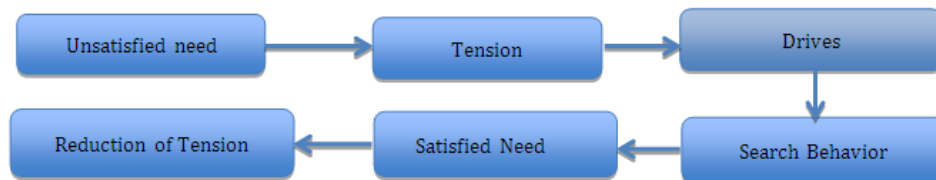


Fig 1 : The Motivation Process. Adapted from Organizational Behavior: Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, (Robbins, 1993, p.206).

There are numerous theories of motivation. The author identified the most relevant theories and explained the respective theories of motivation and how motivation may impact employee commitment in an organization. Five methods of explaining behavior and needs, reinforcement, cognition, job characteristics, and feelings/emotions underlie the evolution of modern theories of human motivation (Kretiner, 1998). In this motivational theory effort, the following motivation theories were selected **(1) need theories, (2) equity theory, (3) expectancy theory, and (4) job design model** given their emphasis and reported significance on employee retention.

NEED THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Need theories attempt to pinpoint internal factors that energize behavior. Needs as defined previously are physiological or psychological deficiencies that arouse behavior. These needs can be strong or weak and are influenced by environmental factors. Thus, human needs vary over time and place.

MASLOW’S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

Maslow’s defining work was the development of the hierarchy of needs. According to Stephens (2000), Maslow believed that human beings aspire to become self-actualizing and viewed human potential as a vastly underestimated as illustrated in Figure 2.

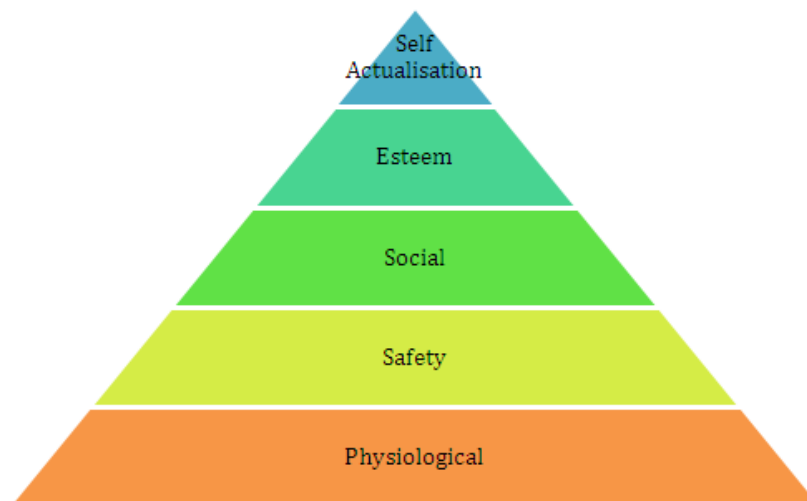


Figure 2 : Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality,1954

Maslow believed that there are at least five sets of goals which can be referred to as basic needs and are physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow (1943) stated that people, including employees at organizations, are motivated by the desire to achieve or maintain the various conditions upon which these basic satisfactions rest and by certain more intellectual desires. Humans are a perpetually wanting

group. The average member of society is most often partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied in what one wants (Maslow, 1943). The implications of this theory provided useful insights for managers and other organization leaders. One of the advise was for managers to find ways of motivating employees by devising programs or practices aimed at satisfying emerging or unmet needs. Another implication was for organizations to implement support programs and focus groups to help employees deal with stress, especially during more challenging times and taking the time to understand the needs of the respective employees (Kreitner, 1998).

When the need hierarchy concept is applied to work organizations, the implications for managerial actions become obvious. Managers have the responsibility to create a proper climate in which employees can develop to their fullest potential. Failure to provide such a climate would theoretically increase employee frustration and could result in poorer performance, lower job satisfaction, and increased withdrawal from the organization (Steers & Porter, 1983, p.32). In addition, the level and type of need of employees may vary. Champagne and McAfee (1989), stated that managers who use these strategies are generally viewed more favorably by managers and are thought to be more considerate, supportive, and interested in their employees welfare.

MCCLELLAND'S NEED THEORY

Some people who have a compelling drive to succeed are striving for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success per se. These people have the desire to do something better or more efficiently than it has been done before (Robbins, 1993). McClelland's in the publication *The Achieving Society*, published in 1961 described the theory of needs focusing on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. The need for achievement was defined as the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed. The need for power was defined as the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise. The need for affiliation was defined as the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships. Achievement theories propose that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of one's need for achievement (Kreitner, 1998). The need for achievement proposes that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of one's need for achievement and is defined as a desire to accomplish something difficult. Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) cite Murray (1994) explained the need for achievement as mastering, manipulating, or organizing physical objects, human beings, or ideas. McClelland proposed that high achievers are more likely to be successful entrepreneurs. The need for affiliation suggested that people have the desire to spend time in social relationships and activities. People with a high need for affiliation prefer to spend more time maintaining social relationships, joining groups, and wanting to be loved. Individuals high in this need are not the most effective managers or leaders because they have a hard time making difficult decisions without worrying about being disliked (Kreitner, 1998). The need for power reflects an individual's desire to influence, coach, teach, or encourage others to achieve. Because effective managers must positively influence others, McClelland proposes that top managers should have a high need for power coupled with a low need for affiliation (Kreitner, 1998).

EQUITY THEORY

Equity theory recognizes that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive. Based on one's inputs, such as effort, experience, education, and competence, one can compare outcomes such as salary levels, increases, recognition and other factors. When people perceive an imbalance in their outcome-input ratio relative to others, tension is created. This tension provides the basis for motivation, as people strive for what they perceive as equity and fairness (Robbins, 1993). One of the prominent theories with respect to equity theory was developed through the work of J.S. Adams. Adams theory is perhaps the most rigorously developed statement of how individuals evaluate social exchange relationships (Steers, 1983). The major components of exchange relationships in this theory are inputs and outcomes. In a situation where a person exchanges her or his services for pay, inputs may include previous work experience, education, effort on the job, and training. Outcomes are those factors that result from the exchange. The most important outcome is likely to be pay with outcomes such as supervisory treatment, job assignments, fringe benefits, and status symbols taken into consideration also. Equity theory rests upon three main assumptions (Carrell, 1978). First, the theory holds that people develop beliefs about what constitutes a fair and equitable return for their contributions to their jobs. Second, the theory assumes that people tend to compare what they perceive to be the exchange they have with their employers. The other assumption is that when people believe that their own treatment is not equitable, relative to the exchange they perceive others to be making, they will be motivated to take actions they deem appropriate. This concept of equity is most often interpreted in work organizations as a positive association between an employee's effort or performance on the job and the pay she or he receives. Adams (1965) suggested that individual expectations about equity or fair correlation between inputs and outputs are learned during the process of socialization and through the comparison with inputs and outcomes of others. To further

establish the causes of perceived and actual inequity in organizations, Pinder (1984) stated that feelings of inequitable treatment tend to occur when people believe they are not receiving fair returns for their efforts and other contributions. The challenge therefore for organizations is to develop reward systems that are perceived to be fair and equitable and distributing the reward in accordance with employee beliefs about their own value to the organization.

EXPECTANCY THEORY

Expectancy theory holds that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce desired combinations of expected outcomes (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1999, p.227).

VROOM'S THEORY

Essentially, the expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Robbins, 1993). Expectancy theory states that motivation is a combined function of the individual's perception that effort will lead to performance and of the perceived desirability of outcomes that may result from the performance (Steers, 1983). Although there are several forms of this model, Vroom in 1964 developed the formal model of work motivation drawing on the work of other researchers. Vroom's theory assumes that the choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior (Vroom, 1964, p. 15). This is basically saying that people's behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives, and these choices are systematically related to psychological processes, particularly perception and the formation of beliefs and attitudes (Pinder, 1984). There are three mental components that are seen as instigating and directing behavior. These are referred to as Valence, Instrumentality, and Expectancy. These three factors are the reason why the expectancy theory is referred to as the VIE theory. Vroom (1964) defined the term valence as the affective (emotional) orientations people hold with regard to outcomes. An outcome in this case is said to be positively valid for an individual if she/he would prefer having it or not. The most important feature of people's valences concerning work-related outcomes is that they refer to the level of satisfaction the person expects to receive from them, not from the real value the person actually derives from them. As in other models, there is the emphasis on the level of motivation and the outcome of performance. Performance as an outcome as defined by Vroom is the degree to which the individual believes that performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome. Work effort results in a variety of outcomes, some of them directly, and some of them indirectly and can include pay, promotion, and other related factors. Figure 3 provides a simplified model of the theory.



Fig 3: Organizational Behavior

JOB DESIGN

This theoretical approach is based on the idea that the task itself is key to employee motivation. Specifically, a boring and monotonous job stifles motivation to perform well, whereas a challenging job enhances motivation. Variety, autonomy, and decision authority are three ways of adding challenge to a job. Job enrichment and job rotation are the two ways of adding variety and challenge.

THE MOTIVATOR-HYGIENE THEORY

One of the earliest researchers in the area of job redesign as it affected motivation was Frederick Herzberg (Herzberg, 1959). Herzberg and his associates began their initial work on factors affecting work motivation in the mid-1950s. Their first effort entailed a thorough review of existing research to that date on the subject (Herzberg, 1957). Based on his survey, Herzberg discovered that employees tended to describe satisfying experiences in terms of factors that were intrinsic to the content of the job itself. These factors were called 'motivators' and included such variables as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Conversely, dissatisfying experiences, called 'hygiene' factors, largely resulted from extrinsic, non-job-related factors, such as company policies, salary, coworker relations, and supervisory styles (Steers, 1983). Herzberg argued, based on these results, that eliminating the causes of dissatisfaction (through hygiene factors) would not result in a state of satisfaction. Instead, it would result in a neutral state. Satisfaction (and motivation) would occur only as a result of the use of motivators. The implications of this model of employee motivation are clear: Motivation can be increased through basic changes in the nature of an employee's job, that is, through job enrichment (Steers, 1983). Thus, jobs should be redesigned to allow for increased challenge and responsibility, opportunities for advancement, and personal growth, and recognition.

According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors that create job dissatisfaction can bring about peace, but not necessarily motivation. They will be placating their workforce rather than motivating them (Robbins, 1993). Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) highlight one of Herzberg's findings, where managers rather than giving employees additional tasks of similar difficulty (horizontal loading), vertical loading consists of giving workers more responsibility. This is where employees take on tasks normally performed by their supervisors. Herzberg (1968) in his article 'One More Time: How do You Motivate Employees' he advised to follow seven principles when vertically loading jobs.

SEVEN PRINCIPLE MOTIVATORS INVOLVED

- a) Removing some controls while retaining accountability Responsibility and personal achievement
- b) Increasing the accountability of individuals for their own work Responsibility and recognition
- c) Giving a person a complete natural unit of work Responsibility, achievement, and recognition (module, division, area, and so on)
- d) Granting additional authority to an employee in one's activity; job freedom Responsibility, achievement, and recognition
- e) Making periodic reports directly available to the worker directly rather than to the Internal recognition supervisor
- f) Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled Growth and learning
- g) Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks, enabling them to become Responsibility, growth, and advancement experts

(From One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees/ by F. Herzberg, 1968, Harvard Business Review 46, p. 58. Copyright 1967 by the President and Fellows of Harvard College.)

In essence, there are more to a managers role in motivating employees other than compensation, good working conditions, and similar factors. Herzberg argued that for an employee to be truly motivated, the employee's job has to be fully enriched where the employee has the opportunity for achievement , recognition, stimulation ,responsibility and advancement

Mc. Gregor's Theory X and Theory Y:

Douglas Mc. Gregor has presented two opposite views of human behaviour in the organisation in the form of what he calls Theory 'X' and Theory 'Y'. Theory 'X' represents the traditional view of human nature and behaviour, and emphasises the need for control and direction over man. On the other hand, Theory 'Y' indicates the individual and organisation behaviour both and highlights the need for improving and utilizing inner motivation

THEORY 'X':

According to the traditional view of human behaviour, the following assumptions hold good about the work behaviour of people:-

- i. The average individual has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
- ii. Most people must, therefore, be pressurized, controlled, directed, and threatened by punishment by their superiors to get them put forth adequate efforts towards organizational objectives.
- iii. The average human being prefers to be led, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition.
- iv. The average person actually prefers to be directed to being led on his own.
- v. Most people are by nature resistant to change and look for security above all.
- vi. An average human being is inherently self-centered, and indifferent to organizational goals.

The above assumptions are negative in nature. According to Mc. Gregor, an organisation built upon Theory 'X' approach will be one in which there is close supervision and control of subordinates and high centralization of authority. Leadership in such organisation will tend to be autocratic, and the workers will have very little say in decisions affecting them.

THEORY 'Y':

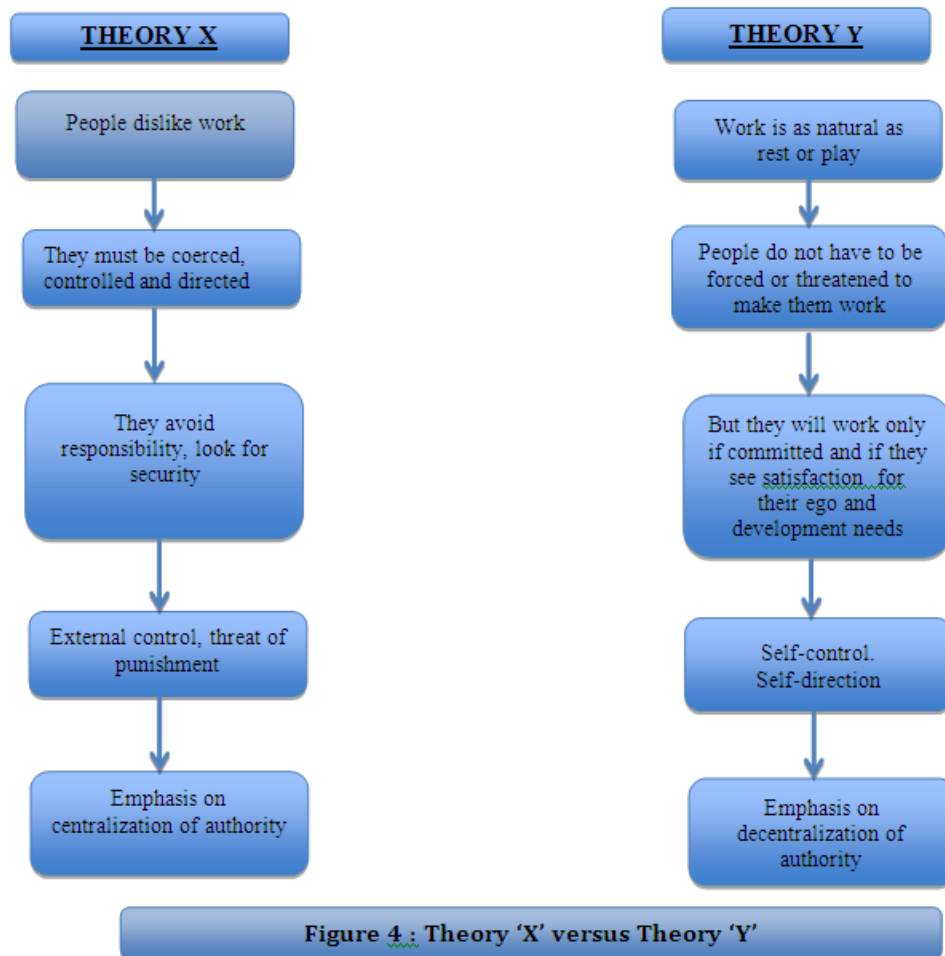
Mc. Gregor recognised certain needs that Theory 'X' fails to take into account. These relate to self-fulfillment, ego satisfaction and the social needs of the individual workers. To meet these human needs in the organisation, Mc. Gregor suggested a counter- approach to motivation in management called Theory 'Y'.

Theory 'Y' is based on the following assumptions:

1. People like to work. It is as natural as rest or play.
2. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

External control or threat of punishment is not the only means of motivating people to work and achieve organisational goals.

3. People commit themselves to those objectives which promise them the satisfactions they want.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept responsibility but also to seek it.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely distributed in the population.
6. Under conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of people are only partially utilised. In reality, people have unlimited potential.
7. Since the other needs of most of the people in work organisations are pretty well- satisfied, the management authority can achieve better results through them by appealing to their ego and development needs.



Theory 'Y' represents a modern and dynamic nature of human beings. According to this theory, the manager is in charge of work, not people. So he delegates freedom rather than authority. An organisation designed on the basis of Theory 'Y' is characterized by decentralization of authority, job enrichment, participative leadership and two-way communication system. The focus is on self-control and responsible jobs. Theory 'X' places exclusive reliance on external control of human behaviour, while Theory 'Y' relies on self-regulation. If we relate Theory 'X' and Theory 'Y' to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, it may be said that Theory 'X' may be more applicable where a man is concerned with the lower level of needs. Once he has an adequate level of satisfaction of the basic physiological and safety needs, Theory 'Y' may be used for making an appeal to the higher level needs.

JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL

Perhaps the most popular current perspective on job design is that which has been developed by Richard Hackman, Greg Oldham, and their associates (Pinder, 1984). Their approach is similar to that of Herzberg's, in so far as it proposes a set of features that should be built into jobs in order that they be satisfying and motivating, although the two approaches differ somewhat with regard to the specific characteristics of work that make it desirable.

According to Hackman and Oldham (1980) and as cited in Pinder (1984), an employee will experience internal motivation from her/his job when that job generates three critical psychological states. First, the employee must feel personal responsibility for the outcomes of the job. Second, the work must be experienced as meaningful by the employee. This is where the employee feels that her/his contribution significantly affects the overall effectiveness of the organization. The third aspect deals with the employee being aware of how effective she/he is converting her/his effort into performance. Pinder (1984) summarized this approach saying that jobs should be designed so as to generate experiences for the employee of meaningfulness, responsibility, and a knowledge of the results of one's effort. To generate experienced meaningfulness, Hackman and Oldham (1980) stated that three specific core factors of jobs are particularly needed for making work feel meaningful. These factors are skill variety, task identity, and task significance. Skill variety is the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 78).

Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed that jobs which require the use of multiple talents are experienced as more meaningful, and therefore more intrinsically motivating, than jobs that require the use of only one or two types of skills. Pinder (1984) pointed out that the inclusion of task variety as an element of job design is consistent with the concept of growth need satisfaction, as well as with more psychological approach taken by activation theory. It is not consistent, however, with Herzbergs approach, which refers to the simple addition of tasks as horizontal job loading or as job enlargement. Herzberg after proposing job enrichment did not emphasize job enlargement. The difference between the Hackman/Oldham approach and that of Herzberg is crucial because, the addition of varied tasks to a job can be one practical means of generating some of the key features prescribed by both theories. Figure 5 provides an illustration of Hackman's and Oldham's model.

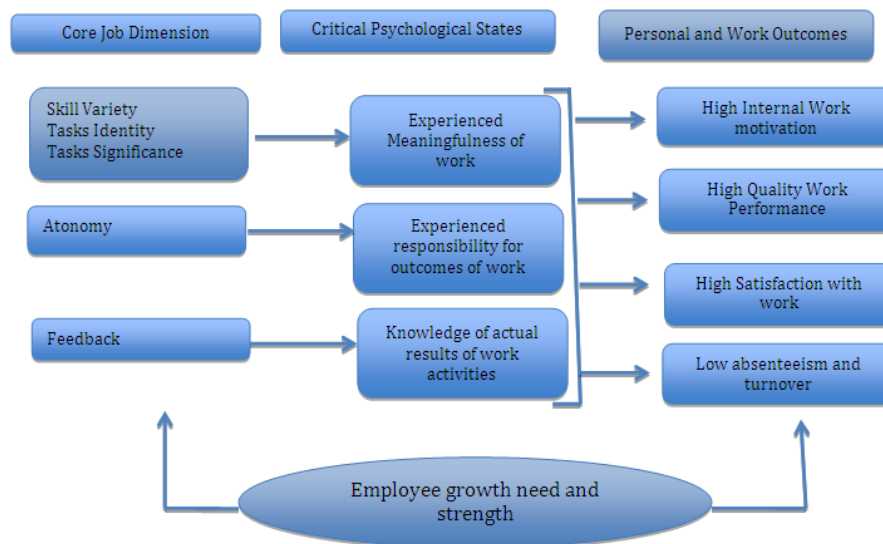


Figure 5 : The Job Characteristics Model Hackman and Oldham (1980)

The second job characteristic used to generate experienced meaningfulness as described by Hackman and Oldham is referred to as task identity. Task identity is the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p.78). Work is experienced as more meaningful, according to Hackman & Oldham, when employees are capable of gaining a greater understanding of how their jobs fit in with those of other employees, and with the completion of an integral unit of product or services. According to Pinder (1984), Herzberg's approach would probably admit that task identity contributes to the motivator factor referred to as interesting work. Hackman & Oldham (1980) defined the third factor, task significance, as the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large. This is where the employee may perceive her/his work as significant and thus may contribute to the satisfaction of esteem needs. In addition to the three job factors contributing to feelings of meaningfulness, autonomy is required for an employee to experience the psychological feelings of responsibility and feedback is needed to understand how one is performing on the job. Autonomy is the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p.79). This suggestion that autonomy is motivating is consistent with other perspectives and approaches to job design. Porter (1962, 1963) treated autonomy as a separate category of higher-order need in his adaptation of Maslows need hierarchy

for studying managerial job attitudes. McClelland (1962) also recognized autonomy in his theory of achievement. Finally, the third critical psychological in this model is called knowledge of results. This feedback includes information from other people and the job itself. Hackman & Oldham (1979) in the model suggested that feedback is a critical factor in reducing absenteeism and employee turnover. In general, one finds strong relationship between job characteristics, and behavioral outcomes (Alera, 1990). Further, feedback is effective in delivering the personal and behavioral outcome variables (Fried, 1986). Having synthesized and critically analyzed the motivation theories, the author compiled the major factors from the respective theories and explained how they could affect employee retention efforts. The factors are as follows.

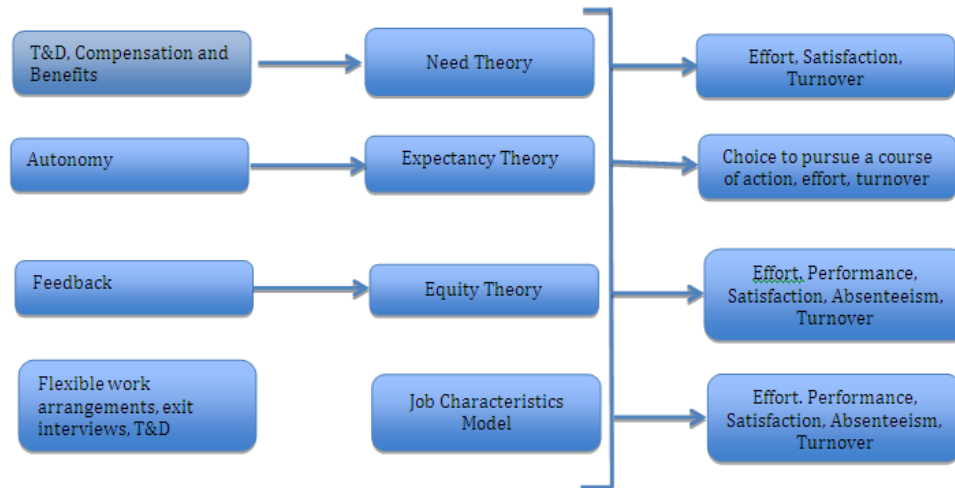


Fig 6: Motivational Theories as strategic approach to increase organisational performance (cumulative effort)

V. ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION, FINDINGS

Engagement is an active agreement to do something for someone. Motivation is the will to do something. Both are critical to creating high performance teams, but employee motivation and engagement are two different things and both are critical in building a great team.

How do you know if you have a highly motivated, engaged workforce? We all know that on some days it is hard to find motivation at work and your level of engagement can vary from day to day, but in general you'll notice the difference between engaged employees and motivated workers. The examples below will elucidate the difference between intrinsic motivation at work and employee engagement. You'll find that there is a strong relationship between motivation and employee engagement.

Employee Motivation and Engagement Examples:

1. Employees have an emotional commitment to their work. (Engagement)
2. Employees feel like their work is meaningful. (Motivation)
3. Employees continually learn and seek knowledge. (Engagement)
4. Employees take the initiative on tasks and projects. (Motivation)
5. Employees are persistent in their personal and company goals. (Engagement)
6. Employees are working towards a bonus. (Motivation)
7. Team is working towards a common goal. (Engagement)

The Relationship Between Motivation and Engagement

Typically, engaged employees are intrinsically motivated. They love what they do, strive to master new skills and are enthusiastic about applying their talents. And there's a lot to be said for how an engaged workforce can boost any company's bottom line. Conversely, if your employees are extrinsically motivated, they more than likely need constant prodding in order to produce. This approach may work for a short time, but it's unsustainable in the long run. Not every task or project can be rewarded with cash or perks. In addition, if employees' sole source of motivation is fear-based — like fear of displeasing their manager or losing their jobs — they can burn out quickly. In that case, what's left is a group of disillusioned, disengaged employees who can impact the bottom line negatively.

How to Spark and Build Intrinsic Motivation

Managers can spark intrinsic motivation in anyone – and in the process, create an engaged employee – by providing members of their team with:-

- **Defined roles:** Simply put, employees who understand what they are supposed to do tend to be more productive than those who do not. Ensure employees are aware of the responsibilities and duties of their role.
- **Goals:** When employees have something to strive toward, they become passionate about tackling the tasks they need to in order to get there. And that feeling of progress is a positive, intrinsic motivator that appeals to almost everyone.
- **Purpose:** Employees want to know that what they do matters. For millennials, who are on track to make up the majority of today's workforce by 2020, this is especially important. Show them how their contribution fits into the bigger picture.
For example, if you have video testimonials that cover some of your clients' biggest success stories, share them. Inspire employees by showing them the difference your organization makes in the everyday lives of the customers you serve.
- **Recognition:** Just because employees are intrinsically motivated doesn't mean they don't require extrinsic rewards to keep their fire burning. The reason why that doesn't make them *extrinsically* motivated is that they've already *done* the job when the reward comes, as opposed to *needing* the reward to do the job. Recognition can come in the form of bonuses, awards or even a sincere "thank you." Showing your appreciation for the good work your engaged employees do goes a long way toward fueling their passion *and* performance for years to come. Intrinsic motivation is an important ingredient in the stew of employee engagement, and employee engagement is critical to competitive success. Fortunately, inspiring your workforce to passionate productivity is possible with the right strategy only.

CERTAIN COMMON FACTORS AMONG THE RESPECTIVE MOTIVATION THEORIES AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT PRACTICES

- **Needs of the Employee** - Employees have multiple needs based on their individual, family, and cultural values. In addition, these needs depend on the current and desired economic, political, and social status; career aspiration; the need to balance career, family, education, community, religion, and other factors; and a general feeling of one's satisfaction with the current and desired state of being.
- **Work Environment** - Employees want to work in an environment that is productive, respectful, provides a feeling of inclusiveness, and offers friendly setting.
- **Responsibilities** - Given that one feels competent to perform in a more challenging capacity and has previously demonstrated such competencies, an employee may feel a need to seek additional responsibilities and be rewarded in a fair and equitable manner.
- **Supervision** - Managers and other leaders more frequently than others feel a need to teach, coach, and develop others. In addition, these individuals would seek to influence the organizations goals, objectives and the strategies designed to achieve the mission of the organization.
- **Fairness and Equity** - Employees want to be treated and rewarded in a fair and equitable manner regardless of age, gender, ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation, geographic location, or other similarly defined categories. With increased effort and higher performances employees also expect to be rewarded more significantly than counterparts who provide output at or below the norm. The employees effort and performance at a particular level is influenced by her/his individual goals and objectives and which would vary by each individual. An outcome or reward that is perceived to be highly significant and important can result in a higher level of effort and performance by the individual employee.
- **Effort** - Even though employees may exert higher levels of effort into a position based on a perceived significant reward, this could be a short-term success if the task itself does not challenge or provides satisfaction to the employee.
- **Employees Development** - Employees prefer to function in environments that provide a challenge, offers new learning opportunities, significantly contributes to the organization's success, offers opportunities for advancement and personal development based on success and demonstrated interest in a particular area.
- **Feedback** - Individuals prefer to have timely and open feedback from their supervisors. This feedback should be an ongoing process during the year and not limited to formal performance reviews once or twice per year. In addition, the feedback should be from both the employee and the supervisor.

VI. Conclusion

There are several reasons why employee motivation is important. Mainly because it allows management to meet the company's goals. Without a motivated workplace, companies could be placed in a very risky position. Motivated employees can lead to increased productivity and allow an organisation to achieve

higher levels of output. Imagine having an employee who is not motivated at work. They will probably use the time of work for personal pleasure or even in looking for another job. This is a waste of time and resources. Try picturing the majority of employees doing the same thing. This is not a position anybody wants to be in. Thus the concept of Employee engagement comes into play where an employee is not only motivated but inherently becomes contentious of his role for the organization and willingly involves himself to produce best of jobs. Line managers onwards play a vital role in his bringing up this way by ensuring close communication, giving him all the facilities, training, incentive, balancing his work life , to cheerfully put in his best.

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