

Review

Does motivational factor influence organizational commitment and effectiveness? A review of literature

Idris Adamu Alhaji* and Wan Fauziah bt Wan Yusoff

Faculty of Technology Management and Business, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia

Accepted 18 December, 2011

To survive into this Century, Leaders of organizations must offer a greater sense of meaning and purpose for their employees. In today's highly competitive environment, this paper will help managements to get the best from their employees and will increase more commitment effectiveness and can also reflect their inner values and provide opportunities for development. Empower the employees to bring about a transformational change in their personal and professional lives in the organization. It will enable the Leaders to become Masters of Change and be active role models in organizations. Generally, this would create a competitive advantage for the organization by having a competent workforce and sound workplace. The methodology adopted was the review of literature based on past researches, on the motivational factors, organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. This study is expected to help organizations and also academics towards having an insight on how to successfully run a business in an organization whether public or private. It's now known as proven by research that motivated employees are satisfied and will increase their inputs to the highest level, and they will also contribute to the overall success of the organization.

Keywords: Motivation; Organizational commitment; Organizational culture; Organizational effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION

The management of people at work is an integral part of the management process. To understand the critical importance of people in the organization is to recognize that the human element and the organization are synonymous. A well-managed organization usually sees an average worker as the root source of quality and productivity gains. Such organizations do not look to capital investment, but to employees, as the fundamental source of improvement. An organization is effective to the degree to which it achieves its goals. An effective organization will make sure that there is a spirit of cooperation and sense of commitment and satisfaction within the sphere of its influence.

This paper is intended to identify motivational factors that influence organizational commitment and

effectiveness, nowadays most of organizations do not put much emphasis on employee well-being be it public or private, most of the employees are not committed to their work, which is due to a lack of proper motivational factors that will influence their commitment, an employee rather, needs not a financial reward in order for him to be committed, another means by which an employer's motivate employees is through rewarding their hard work and appropriate compensating system, giving promotions as at when due and also efforts have to be acknowledge. This paper will bring some possible factors from previous researches which will contribute in enhancing and influencing employee commitment to their jobs.

Every organization struggles to remain in business by maintaining certain profit margins that would ensure sustainability. This profit could be in the form of monetary or otherwise, and because profitability in any given organization depends on the individual output of employees. Generally, employers use certain means to ensure their staffs contribute the best they have to the

*Corresponding Author Email: alhajiidris05@yahoo.com;
Mobile: +60169294918

job. Individuals working in any organization like to be associated with recognition; that also provides them satisfaction and motivation in one way or another (Maslow, 1954). In addition, well-motivated employees give their best to their job and such organizations will ultimately maintain a higher profit margin among its competitors. Without a proper motivation system however, the opposite happens.

Motivation

Motivation can be defined as 'the development of a desire within an employee to perform a task to his/her greatest ability based on that individual's own initiative' (Rudolf and Kleiner, 1989). By analysing this definition, one can ascertain, motivation to be the level at which an employee will perform a specified activity for the company, an imperative function for success.

Motivation can also mean employees "...strive to reach peak performance every day, ... enjoy the continual challenge of improving results, genuinely care about their peers and their company, and will maintain positive results" (Evenson, 2003), or as "the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the person's ability to satisfy some individual need" (Robbins, 1993 as cited in Lu, 1999).

The definitions of motivation, lead an organisation to believe their employees will perform their specified tasks better than the norm and will genuinely wish to do so, while this is important for the business, motivation can also have other benefits.

Carlsen (2003) believes a motivated workforce is essential, as the complete participation of employees will inevitably drive the profitability of the organisation. Another paramount concern for management in motivating their employees relates directly to the perceived increase in performance the employees will deliver from managements' participation in the exercising of motivation techniques, therefore, there is a direct relationship between the levels of motivation and management's participation. (Tyagi, 1982).

Certain academics have linked motivation as being a key determinant of job performance and how a poorly motivated force will be costly in terms of excessive staff turnover, higher expenses, negative morale and increased use of managements' time (Jobber, 1994). Therefore, managements need to know what exactly motivates their staff so resources are not misallocated and dissatisfaction does not develop among employees (Jobber, 1994). While motivation is a key determinant of performance, management must not neglect how motivation is also concerned with the educating of employees. Darmon (1974) believes motivation is the educating of employees to channel their efforts towards

organisational activities and thus increasing the performance of the said boundary spanning roles.

Theories of Motivation

There are a number of different views as to what motivates workers. The most commonly held views or theories are discussed below and have been developed over the last 100 years or so, unfortunately these theories do not all reach the same conclusions.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs' Theory

In 1954 Maslow identified what he called a "Hierarchy of Needs". Maslow's theory is built on the premise that humans are motivated by various needs which exist in a hierarchical order. Maslow identified five general types of needs in ascending order. These are: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem and self-actualisation (Daft, 2003). Maslow argued that once a need lower in the hierarchy is met; it ceases to be a motivator. It is then replaced by needs higher in the hierarchy.

The Hierarchy of Needs

Biological and Physiological needs - air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex and sleep; Safety needs - protection from elements, security, order, law, limits and stability; Belongingness and Love needs - work group, family, affection and relationships; Esteem needs - self-esteem, achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance and prestige; Self-Actualization needs - realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.

Achieving satisfaction, according to Maslow's model, is about fulfilling successive needs. This however does not mean that the needs have to be met fully before subsequent needs arise. The higher level needs begin to show up gradually as lower level needs are met. Additionally the relative importance of these needs changes during the psychological development of the individual.

Maslow's theory was considered flawed on three levels: The first is regarding how the needs are grouped at different levels. Maslow gives the impression that there is a standardized way in which these needs are grouped and therefore a standardized solution can be found for employee needs. The argument is that people's motivation and attitude is to some extent influenced by or likely to change with age, time, accumulation of work experience and type of job among others (Martin, 2005). Maslow's theory also emphasizes that human needs are

satisfied mainly through work. This has also been criticized as it is believed that not all people attach the same meaning to work. In other words, work may not be of central interest as people do not satisfy their needs, especially high level needs through work. Secondly, as Martin (2005) argues, it is very difficult to predict when a particular need sets in or becomes important. There is also no clear distinction between needs and behavior hence the application of standardised solutions is not possible. Thirdly, Maslow's theory is called a universal theory as he believes it applies to everybody. This has also attracted the criticism that it is not able to explain the differences between individuals or different cultures.

In spite of these limitations, Maslow has been commended to be the first to attempt to make a comprehensive list of these human needs. His thinking has influenced and continued to influence management decisions with respect to job design, pay and reward structures. This is also evident in Huczynski and Buchanan's (1991) statement that 'Many subsequent management fashions such as job enrichment, TQM, business process re-engineering, self managing teams, the 'new leadership' and employee empowerment incorporated Maslow's ideas in the search for practical motivational methods'.

Herzberg's Motivation- Hygiene Theory

Herzberg and his associates, writing in 1959 proposed one of the most famous and controversial theories of job satisfaction. Herzberg did not look directly at motivation, but at the causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the aim of trying to understand what motivates people (Beardwell et al., 2004). He took a psychological, but yet a contemporary view based on two human needs: the need to avoid pain and the need to grow. This theory is known as the "Two Factor," "Dual" or "Motivator-Hygiene Theory." The basis of this theory was that there are two entirely separate sets of factors that contribute to employees' behavior at work. One set was termed hygiene factors and the other motivators. Hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction even though their presence does not motivate. This includes factors like working conditions, company policies and administration, pay and interpersonal relationships. Motivators were considered as 'high level needs' believed to include achievement, recognition, responsibility and opportunity for growth. Additionally, jobs had specific factors, which were related to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Herzberg did not however, believe that all jobs can be enriched to bring about job satisfaction. The highlight of Herzberg's findings was that the hygiene factors listed above do not motivate, but prevent dissatisfaction and pain. They provide the right environment for work. Motivators allow

for growth towards self-actualisation. The illustration below provides a summary of Herzberg's job context/content continuum.

1. Job context continuum: Hygiene seekers

Poor hygiene factors	Good hygiene factors
Dissatisfaction	Satisfaction

2. Job content continuum: Motivation seekers

Poor motivation factors	Good motivation factors
Negative growth	Positive growth

Later research by Padilla-Velez (1993) and Bowen (1980) also named the following as motivator- hygiene factors: Recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, salary, interpersonal relations, supervision, responsibility, policy and administration, working conditions and the work itself.

Herzberg's theory has however been criticised by Moxley (1977), Padilla-Velez (1993), Poling (1990), Steers and Porter (1992), Bowen (1980). Bowen's assertion was that Herzberg's theory was not applicable to certain categories of workers like educators in Agriculture; as his theory was born out of studying accountants and engineers. Moreover, Bowen views all the factors as related to job satisfaction except that the hygiene factors explained a higher proportion of job satisfaction as compared to the satisfiers. Vroom's assertion of the two factor theory was that, it was just one of many conclusions that could be drawn from a research. Mullins (2005) has also commented that Herzberg's model has at least five theoretical interpretations.

The two general criticisms are therefore that the theory least applies to unskilled workers and people whose jobs are mostly repetitive and monotonous even though they happen to be in the majority and are the very people who often present management with the biggest problem of job satisfaction and motivation. Moreover, some workers do not seem to be interested in the job content of their work, or with motivators or growth factors.

The second general criticism is with the methodology employed by Herzberg. The view was that the method used had an influence on the responses. That is the critical incident method and the description of the sequence of events that give rise to good or bad feelings. Furthermore, the descriptions from the respondents were interpreted by interviewers who could also be influenced. It was argued that people were likely to attribute satisfying incidents at work (motivators) as a favourable reflection on their own performance. The dissatisfying incidents (hygiene factors) are more likely to be attributed to external influences and the efforts of other people (Mullins, 2005). Despite the criticisms of Herzberg's theory, it is believed to be a good attempt to practically look at the study of motivation. His work also drew

attention to job design and job enrichment. According to Crainer and Dearlove in Mullins (2005) 'the current emphasis on self-development, career management and self-managed learning can be seen as having evolved from Herzberg's insight'.

Equity Theory

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) considers the employment situation as an exchange relationship of benefits /contributions between employers and employees, where benefits include pay, recognition and promotions. Contributions include employee's education, experience, effort, and ability (Daft, 2003). The principle governing equity theory suggests that people evaluate the fairness of their input/output balance by comparing it with their perception of the input/outcome balance of another, where this other may be another person, a class of people, an organisation, or the individual relative to the individual's experiences from an earlier point in time.

The equity model postulates that under conditions of perceived equity the individual experiences job satisfaction. On the other hand, under conditions of perceived inequity (under-rewarded or over-rewarded relative to others) the individual experiences dissatisfaction. A state of equity is therefore said to exist whenever the ratio of one person's outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of another's outcomes to inputs, (Daft, 2003). According to Martin (2005) this can lead to tensions and some psychological discomfort. This may also be followed by a desire to do something about it or take action so as to lessen the tension being experienced. Adams (1963) suggests actions that an employee could employ to ease the tensions: modify inputs, seek to modify outputs, modify perception of self, modify perception of comparator, change comparator or leave the situation (Mullins, 2005). This is believed to restore a feeling of balance.

Even though the equity theory is considered straight forward, it cannot cover every contingency (Martin, 2005). Martin further added that even where inequities are perceived, employees are able to tolerate it to some extent provided that the reason for the inequity is justified. The equity theory therefore has three implications for human resource managers according to Martin (2005). His assertion is that employees will make comparisons, which are subjective. Jobs must therefore be marched properly in terms of the wage/effort bargain. Additionally, managers must be open regarding the basis on which the rewards are made to avoid wrong conclusions about equity. The equity theory illustrates the importance of performance management and reward systems in which, the outcomes are seen by individuals as relevant.

The second implication is that, there is a need for managers to redesign current compensation systems in order to avoid the destroying performance as a result of perceived inequities and thirdly, to ensure that the redesigned systems do not lead to over rewarding of performance as that will not guarantee higher productivity or improved performance.

The ARCS model of motivation

According to Keller, "There is nothing as practical as a good theory," an observation he attributes to the American philosopher William James. Keller notes that arriving at the acronym ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction) was from a purposeful attempt to make the model meaningful, consistent and easy to communicate. Because of its focus on matching motives to the unique affective characteristics of learners and its clear suggestions for strategies, the ARCS Model is practical indeed.

Keller first referred to the ARCS Model in a monograph (1983 b) published while in The Netherlands conducting research. He also discussed the ARCS Model in relation to teacher training (1984). Keller (1987 a, b, c) defined and described the basic components of the ARCS Model in a series of three key articles to be read by the larger public. In the final version of the ARCS Model, certain terms were changed to fit the acronym. "Interest" becomes "attention," and "expectancy" becomes "confidence" (Keller, 1987a, b, c). Keller (1987a) notes simply: "The ARCS Model is a method for improving the motivational appeal of instructional materials" . It has three distinct features. First, to establish the connection with motivational theory, there are four motivational concepts: (1) Attention, (2) Relevance, (3) Confidence, and (4) Satisfaction. Second, to enhance the appeal of instruction, sets of strategies are included. Third, the ARCS Model utilizes a systematic design process. Keller emphasizes (1987a) that the ARCS Model is a problem-solving, empirical approach to applying motivation to instructional design. Motivation is not only the learner's responsibility but is also the instructor or designer's responsibility. Each factor of the ARCS Model has three elements, which Keller (1987b) delineates. First, Attention includes (1) perceptual arousal--use of strategies to gain initial interest; (2) inquiry arousal--use of problem-solving, questioning, a sense of mystery and progressive disclosure to increase interest; (3) variability--use of variety (lecture with visuals, group activity, or game) for a change of pace. Second, Relevance, which is the concept of linking the content to the learner's needs and wants, which includes: (1) goal orientation, which may mean outcome of learning such as obtaining a job, reward, etc. or may imply the means of learning; (2)

motive matching involves the learner's choices about strategies of learning, such as by group interaction, competition, or individual work; (3) familiarity or connect to what one already believes and understands such as realistic graphics, people's names, personal learning experiences. Third, Confidence, which provides a sense of self-worth and success ability in challenging tasks, involves strategies to: (1) provide learning requirements in the form of clear objectives; (2) provide success opportunities early and often enough to establish the learner's belief in his or her ability to achieve. (3) Provide personal control over the learning with choices of content, objectives and activities. This relates success to one's choices and effort. Fourth, Satisfaction includes strategies to: (1) increase the natural consequences for use of the content, simulations, projects, real-life activity; (2) provide positive consequences--both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards; (3) assure equity of rewards so that they match achievements.

Keller (1987a) argues that designers often overlook motivational design components because they believe motivation is not a measurable aspect of learning and that motivation is too "unpredictable and changeable, subject to many influences" over which the teacher or designer has no control. Keller maintains, however, that motivation is not as unpredictable as has been assumed. Motivation can, in fact, be approached systematically with a model rooted in Instructional Systems Design (Keller, 1979).

Components of human motivation

Keller's (1998) ARCS model (See figure 1) identifies the four major components of human motivation:

Attention. Am I curious? Am I interested? Relevance- Does it matter to me? Confidence- Can I do it? Satisfaction- Do I like it?

If any of these components is not included in the intervention, the employee will be much less likely to perform as requested and required. However, "motivation follows a curvilinear relationship with performance. As motivation increases, performance increases, but only to an optimal point. Afterward, performance decreases as motivation increases to levels where excessive stress leads to performance decrements" (Keller, 1998). In other words, stress accompanies motivation, and employees can be under motivated or over motivated in any of the four components. Employers must carefully analyze the motivational problem and determine what type of stress contributes to the problem. Keller (1998) gives us descriptive examples of the two sides to motivational problems (Table 1):

From motivational theories, we understand what drives behavior; our challenge is to harness motivation to

produce desired performance. Using Keller's ARCS model, we can systematically analyze situations and design interventions that meet needs effectively and appropriately.

Factors of motivating employees

A "good manager" helps sub-ordinates feel strong and responsible, rewards them properly for good performance and sees that things are organised in such a way that subordinates feel they know what they should be doing" (McClelland and Burnham, 1997). As McClelland and Burnham (1997) outlined, managements should reward their employees for their performance and loyalty. Rewards can take two forms; extrinsic rewards or intrinsic rewards.

Extrinsic rewards

Extrinsic rewards as outlined by Rudolph and Kleiner (1989) and Sujan (1986) are those basic material requirements which management must meet for employees. Examples include; salary, fringe benefits, promotions and so on. The extrinsic rewards are usually viewed by employees as a given and a must. Extrinsic rewards are usually thought of in terms of money.

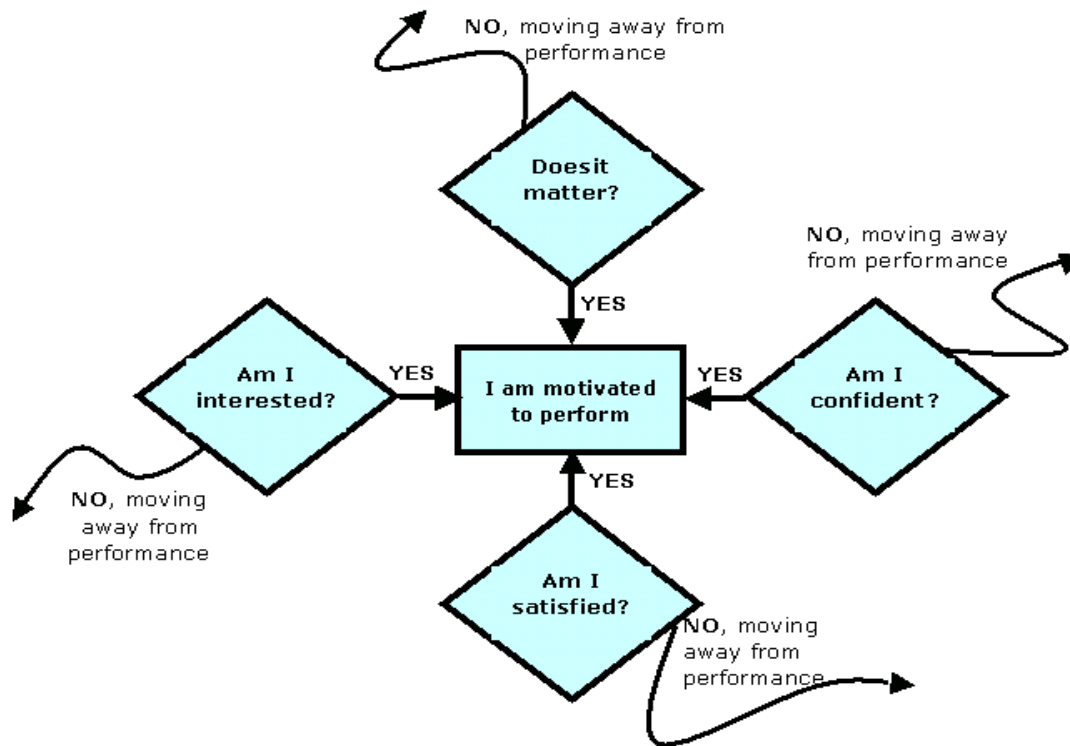
Darmon (1974) believes money or financial incentives are motivators of employees' behaviour and they can be used to influence their behaviour; this can be used in a variety of circumstances, which may arise within the organisation.

Dauten (1998) outlines how employees are best motivated, by having them bet on their own success. Therefore, management should tie their performance in with their bonuses; this will act as a motivator, as a challenge has been presented to them. Employees will want to achieve managements' goals as the greater their performance the greater the financial reward received.

Intrinsic rewards

Rudolph and Kleiner (1989) outline intrinsic rewards as psychological incentives, for example, input, thanks, job rotation, job enlargement and so on. The importance of intrinsic rewards is how they build a climate and environment of trust and co-operation among employees. Or as Sujan (1986) outlines, employees who are motivated intrinsically "enjoy performing job-related tasks, such as influencing customers and learning about the company".

Nelson (2003) contends that while money is a motivator, it is not as powerful as the following:



Adapted from Chung, Y (2003). *Week 10: Development of ID models*. Retrieved March 1, 2006 from IPT536 452/458 course database.

Figure 1. ARCS model

Table 1. Two sides of motivation

Component	Under motivation	Over motivation
Attention	Bored, not paying attention	Overwhelmed by job responsibilities or requirements
Relevance	No intrinsic interest, no advancement opportunities	Career success hinges on successful performance
Confidence	Don't believe in ability or competence to perform as required	Cocky, resist learning, make mistakes without noticing them
Satisfaction	Resentful; opportunity not chosen by the employee	Overly positive expectations that are unmet

Feeling of contribution to the job, having management tell us we are doing a good job, having the respect of our peers and colleagues, being involved and informed of developments and having meaningful and interesting work. While, Nelson (2003) finds these methods as good motivating tools, he outlines how the use of recognition is the ultimate motivator. The importance being, "recognition is not just for the person who performed well – it also sends a message to other employees as it communicates the standard of the company" (Nelson, 2003). Nelson (2003) implores to management, recognition will improve the level of performance by

employees, which inevitably improves the financial performance of the organisation.

Nelson (2003) believes the use of monetary rewards are becoming "viewed as a right as opposed to reward and therefore the ability for money to serve as incentive is diminished"(p.8). Money also distracts team members as their concentration is now focused on individual cash gains. Therefore, Nelson (2003) developed a number of ways in which an organisation can motivate their employees without incurring great financial costs. Much importance has been placed on intrinsic motivation in social psychology, because it is perceived as a type

of motivation leading to highly valued outcomes such as creativity, quality, spontaneity, and vitality (DeCharms 1968; Kruglanski, Friedman and Zeevi 1971; Deci 1978). Edward Deci has in particular stressed the importance of intrinsic motivation as it is associated with human well-being through the satisfaction of three universal psychological needs; autonomy, competence, and social relatedness (Deci and Ryan 2000; Gagné and Deci 2005). Within this stream of research, intrinsically motivated behavior is perceived as behavior freely engaged in, which the individual finds interesting and derives spontaneous satisfaction and enjoyment from (Deci 1971; Lepper et al., 1973; Gagné and Deci 2005). This type of motivation has recently been labeled “enjoyment-based intrinsic motivation” (Lindenberg, 2001).

In contrast, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation is most often associated with the engagement in activities because they lead to desirable consequences separate from the activity such as tangible rewards. Hence, the behavior is a means to an end and not involved in for its own sake (Deci 1972; Lepper et al., 1973; Skinner 1974; Bandura 1977; Flora 1990; Cameron and Pierce 1994; Gagné and Deci 2005). Whereas intrinsic motivation is often associated with the involvement in complex tasks, extrinsic motivation is claimed to be important in relation to unattractive and simple tasks (Osterloh and Frey 2000; Gagné and Deci 2005). Hence, both types of motivation are indeed required in organizations.

Interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

A considerable amount of literature within social psychology show that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are not merely additives, but that the two types of motivation can interact. In fact, much evidence illustrate that extrinsic rewards can have substantial negative effects on intrinsic motivation (DeCharms 1968; Deci 1971; Lepper et al. 1973; Harackiewicz, Manderlink and Sansone 1984; Rummel and Feinberg 1988; Wiersma 1992; Tang and Hall 1995; Deci, Ryan and Koestner 1999; Kohn 1999; Cameron and Pierce 2002). However, whether this undermining effect is likely to occur or not depends on the type of reward in question. The literature in particular distinguishes between five types of extrinsic rewards; verbal, unexpected tangible, expected and tangible, task-non-contingent, expected and tangible task-contingent, and expected and tangible performance-contingent.

Ways in which an organisation can install recognition as low-cost

Call employees into the office and say “thanks”;

Acknowledge individual achievements; Create employee “hall of fame”; Photo collage of successful project and those who worked on it; Place to display memos/posters as recognition of work of employees in their help in achieving goals; Behind – the – scenes awards for those out of limelight; Certificate program; Most importantly, be timely, sincere and specific.

Organizational commitment

A wide variety of definitions and measures of organizational commitment exist. Becker, Randal, and Riegel (1995) defined the term in a three dimensions:

- A strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization;
- A willingness to exert high levels of efforts on behalf of the organization;
- A define belief in and acceptability of the values and goals of the organization.

To Northcraft and Neale (1996), commitment is an attitude reflecting an employee's loyalty to the organization, and an ongoing process through which organization members express their concern for the organization and its continued success and well being. Organizational commitment is determined by a number of factors, including personal factors (e.g., age, tenure in the organization, disposition, internal or external control attributions); organizational factors (job design and the leadership style of one's supervisor); non-organizational factors (availability of alternatives). All these things affect subsequent commitment (Northcraft and Neale, 1996).

Mowday et al., (1982) saw commitment as attachment and loyalty. These authors described three components of commitment as:

- An identification with the goals and values of the organization;
- A desire to belong to the organization; and
- A willingness to display effort on behalf of the organization.

A similar definition of commitment emphasizes the importance of behaviour in creating it. Salancik (1977) conceives commitment as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and it is these actions that sustain his activities and involvement. From this definition, it can be inferred that three features of behaviour are important in binding individuals to act: visibility of acts, the extent to which the outcomes are irrevocable; and the degree to which the person undertakes the action voluntarily. To Salancik therefore, commitment can be increased and harnessed to obtain

support for the organizational ends and interests through such things as participation in decision-making.

Based on the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, there is a growing support for a three-component model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). All three components have implications for the continued participation of the individuals in the organization. The three components are:

- Affective Commitment: Psychological attachment to organization.
- Continuance Commitment: Costs associated with leaving the organization.
- Normative Commitment: Perceived obligation to remain with the organization.

Guest (1991) concludes that high organizational commitment is associated with lower turnaround time and absence, but there is no clear link to performance. It is probably wise not to expect too much from commitment as a means of making a direct and immediate impact on performance. It is not the same as motivation. Commitment is a broader concept and tends to withstand transitory aspects of an employee's job. It is possible to be dissatisfied with a particular feature of a job while retaining a reasonably high level of commitment to the organization as a whole. When creating a commitment strategy, Armstrong, 1999 asserts that "it is difficult to deny that it is desirable for management to have defined strategic goals and values. And it is equally desirable from management point of view for employees to behave in a way that supports those strategies and values." Creating commitment includes communication, education, training programmes, and initiatives to increase involvement and ownership and the development of performance and reward management systems.

Studies on commitment have provided strong evidence that affective and normative commitments are positively related and continuance commitment is negatively connected with organizational outcomes such as performance and citizenship behaviour (Hackett et al., 1994; Shore and Wayne, 1993).

CONCLUSION

Nowadays, it is known that motivation contributes to the overall working culture in an organization, and also found that the organizational commitment had attributed in the influence on organizational effectiveness through motivation. This is however not the case in the certain exceptional situations, where motivation does not necessarily translate into more employee working culture. It's now known that motivated employees contribute to

the overall success of an organizational, and this has been proven by the studies from around the world. This is however not the case in the certain exceptional situations, where motivational factors do not necessarily translate into more productivity. However, Different employees have different kinds of motivation factor. For employees with material motivation factor, they will be more concerned on distributive justice, however, employees with non-material motivation factor, fair procedure is more important. The supervisor or manager must be able to manage staff motivation factor and it is important for organizations to maintain justice in their practice. Justice provides an excellent business opportunity from reaping specific returns such as stronger employee commitment to gaining an overall tough-to-copy competitive edge that resides in a "culture of justice" (Cropanzano et.al., 2007). Motivation, and organizational commitment are significantly related (for private/public sector employees), organizations would only need to increase and maintain two variables (work motivation and job satisfaction) to achieve the positive effect on the organizational commitment. In other words for increasing organizational commitment, the controlling variables are work motivation and job satisfaction for the private/public sector employees. Thus human resource managers should remain focused on increasing job satisfaction and increasing work motivation of employees.

The ways to improve work motivation and overall organizational commitment and effectiveness may vary from job nature, organization and individual to individual. Increased commitment will result to efficiency and greater outputs which every organization desires, organizations should reward the hardworking employees either financially or non-financially; this will encourage employee commitment to work. Latest trends in management encourage the integration of the needs of employees with that of organisations. Maximising profit through growth/expansion and increased share value should not be the only motivation for organisations. Investment in people should be at the fore of business strategy and in developing human resources which invariably benefits the respective organisations. The role and effective use and management of human resources in enhancing organisational performance therefore cannot be overemphasized.

REFERENCES

- Adams JS (1963). 'Toward an understanding of inequity.' *J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol.* 67: 422-436.
- Becker TE, Randal DM, Riegel CD (1995). The multidimensional view of commitment and theory of reasoned action: A comparative evaluation: *J. Manage.* 21(4):617-638.
- Daft RL (2003). *Management* (6th Ed.). Thomson Learning.
- Darmon RY (1974). Salesman's response to financial incentives: an empirical study. *J. Market. Res.*, 11(3): 418 - 426.

- Darmon RY (1974). Salesman's response to financial incentives: an empirical study. *J. Market. Res.*, 11(3): 418 – 426.
- Dauten D (1998). The best way to motivate employees: have them bet on their own success. *New Hampshire Business Rev.*, 20(13): 8 –9.
- David CM (1961). *The Achieving Society*, New York: Van Nostrand Company
- David CM (1971). *Assessing Human Motivation*, Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.
- Deci EL, Ryan RM (2000). The “What” and “Why” of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychol. Inquiry* 11: 227-268.
- Deci EL (1971). Effects of Externally Mediated Rewards on Intrinsic Motivation. *J. Personality. Soc. Psychol.* 18: 105-115
- Deci EL (1972). Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Reinforcement, and Inequity. *J. Personality. Soc. Psychol.*, 22: 113-120
- Deci EL (1975). Notes on the Theory and Metatheory of Intrinsic Motivation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 15: 130-145
- Deci EL (1978). Applications of Research on the Effects of Rewards. In Lepper, M. R. and Greene, D. (Eds.) (1978). *The Hidden Cost of Rewards: New Perspectives on the Psychology of Human Motivation*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Deci EL, Koestner R, Ryan RM (1999). A Meta-Analytic Review of Experiments Examining the Effects of Extrinsic Rewards on Intrinsic Motivation. *Psychol. Bull.*, 125: 627-668.
- Evenson R (2003). Motivating to develop an all-star team. *American Salesman*, 48 (10): 21- 27.
- Gagné M, Deci EL (2005). Self-Determination Theory and Work Motivation. *J. Behav.*, 26: 331-362.
- Guest EA (1991). *Human resource management*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Harackiewicz JM, Manderlink G, Sansone C (1984). Rewarding Pinball Wizardry: Effects of Evaluation and Cue Value on Intrinsic Motivation. *J. Personality. Soc. Psychol.*, 47: 287-300
- Herzberg F, Mausner B, Peterson RO, Capwell DF (1957). *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion*. Pittsburg: Psychological Service of Pittsburg.
- Huczynski AA, Buchanan DA (1991). 'Organizational Behaviour'-An introductory text.(2nd Ed.) Prentice Hall (UK) Ltd. Pp436- 466.
- Jobber D, Lee R (1994). A comparison of the perceptions of sales management and salespeople towards sales force motivation and demotivation. *J. Market.*, 10(4): 325 – 332.
- Keller JM (1979). *Motivation and instructional design: A theoretical perspective*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. affective commitment with perceived organizational support. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 78: 774-780.
- Keller JM (1987a). Development and use of the ARCS model of instructional design. *J. Instruct. Develop.*, 10(3): 2-10.
- Keller JM (1987b). Strategies for stimulating the motivation to learn. *Performance and Instruction*. 26(8): 1-7.
- Keller JM (1983 a). Motivational design of instruction. In C.M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional design theories and models*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: 383-433.
- Kohn A (1999). *Punished by Rewards: The Trouble with Gold Stars, Incentive Plans, A'S, Praise, and Other Bribes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin
- Kruglanski AW, Friedman I, Zeevi G (1971). The Effects of Extrinsic Incentives on Some Qualitative Aspects of Task Performance. *J. Personality*, 39: 606-617
- Lepper MR, Greene D, Nisbett RE (1973). Undermining Children's Intrinsic Interest with Extrinsic Reward: A Test of the “Overjustification” Hypothesis. *J. Personality. Soc. Psychol.*, 28: 129-137.
- Lindenberg S (2001). Intrinsic Motivation in a New Light. *KYKLOS*, 54: 317-342.
- Martin J (2005). *Organizational Behaviour and Management* (3rd Ed). Thomson learning London. pp 420-466.
- Meyer JP, Allen NJ (1997). Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and Mooday, R.T., Porter, L.W., and Steer, R.M. (1982). *Employees organization linkages*. New York:
- Mia R (2006). No More Polarization, Please! Towards a More Nuanced Perspective on Motivation in Organizations. *J. Manage.*, Center for Strategic Management and Globalization Copenhagen Business School Porcelaenshaven DK-2000 Frederiksberg, Denmark
- Mullins LJ (2005). *Management and Organisational Behaviour* (7th Ed.) FT Prentice Hall.
- Nelson B (2003). Money is not the root of all motivation. *Health Care Registration*, 12(10): 7 –9.
- Osterloh M, Frey B (2000). Motivation, Knowledge Transfer, and Organizational Forms. *Organization Science*, 11: 538-550.
- Robbins SP (1993). *Organisational Behaviour*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall as cited in Lu L (1999). Work motivation, job stress and employees' well being. *J. Appl. Manage. Studies*, 8(1): 61 – 72.
- Rudolph PA, Kleimer BH (1989). The art of motivating employees. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 4 (5): 1 – 4.
- Rudolph PA, Kleimer BH (1989). The art of motivating employees. *J. Manage. Psychol.*, 4 (5): 1 – 4.
- Rummel A, Feinberg R (1988). Cognitive Evaluation Theory: A meta-Analytic Review of the Literature. *Soc. Behav. Personality*, 16: 147-164
- Shore LM, Wagner SJ (1993). Commitment and employees behaviour. Comparison of Staw and G. Salancik (ed), *New direction in organizational behaviour*. Chicago: St Clair Press, pp. 1-59.
- Sujan H (1986). Smarter versus harder: an exploratory attributional analysis of salespeople's motivation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 23 (4) February, pp. 41 – 49.
- Tang S, Hall VC (1995). The Overjustification Effect: A Meta-Analysis. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 9, 365-404 Trott, A.J. (Eds.). *Aspects of Educational Technology, Volume XVII*. London: Kogan Page, pp. 140 - 145. The Netherlands: Toegepaste Onderwijskunde, Technische Hogeschool Twente: 24
- Tyagi PK (1982). Perceived organisational climate and the process of salesperson motivation. *J. Market. Res.*, 19 (2): 240 – 254.
- Wiersma UJ (1992). The Effects of Extrinsic Rewards in Intrinsic Motivation: A Meta Analysis. *J. Occup. Organizational Psychol.*, 65: 101-114