



Effects of Management Use of Motivation on Workers' Job Commitment: An Empirical Investigation of Tertiary Institutions in South-Western Nigeria

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Abstract

This paper examines the perceived effects of management use of motivation on workers' job commitment in tertiary institutions in South-western Nigeria. The empirical study was conducted via the administration of 2,680 questionnaires on teaching and non-teaching staff of selected institutions. Using the framework from Aborisade and Obioha (2009) and Khong (2005), factors manifesting employee's job commitment were regressed on the key factors manifesting successful motivation. The dataset from the sample underwent series of statistical analysis (validity and reliability analysis, factor analysis-exploratory and confirmatory- and hypothesis testing). This study confirmed that motivation had a significant association on workers' job commitment. The empirical analysis conducted on the data revealed that workers of the institutions were not well motivated. The motivation schemes designed for the workers were not adequate and able to meet up with the level of expectation of the employees. The findings could be used by Nigerian universities to compose strategies to optimise their management of workers job commitment and motivational/reward policies. Policy implications were highlighted at the end of this report.

Keywords: motivation; job commitment; tertiary institution; Nigeria.

1 Introduction

In the increasingly competitive business environment of recent years, finding ways to motivate employees has become a pressing concern for many organisations (Ali and Ahmad, 2009; Annamalai et al., 2010; Oluseyi and Ayo, 2009). Motivating employee for better commitment can sometimes be particularly problematic for many organisations if the right motivational factors are not in place. Despite this, motivation still remains a big force that energises behaviour, gives direction to behaviour, and underlies the tendency to persist (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Börjesson and Löfsten, 2012; Hilton Barrett, et al., 2012). For the goals of an organisation to be realised, human resources, amongst the various factors of production, must be properly utilised. The labourers and entrepreneurs utilise both capital and land towards the realisation of the corporate objective(s). However, the degree to which human resources of an organisation are utilised effectively depends on a number of factors, among which are their skills, knowledge, and the level of motivation to put them into judicious use (Aborisade and Obioha, 2009). Hence, it is imperative for organisations to maximally utilise the various motivational factors, so as to generate the right attitude and morale from employees to generate the needed level of job commitment for the attainment of the pre-determined objectives (Aborisade and Obioha, 2009; Sahlman and Haapasalo, 2011; Vouzas, 2009; Winter, 2012).

For a service organisation operating in Nigeria, greater efforts is required by the management of Nigerian universities to improve the level of its employee's productivity, and by extension, contributing toward the development of a society besieged by all sort of problems ranging from economic, political, ethnic, religious and institutional failures (Abadi et al., 2011; Ali and Ahmad, 2009; Abiola, 1992; Ibrahim, 1989). According to Kennish (1994), endless mixes of employee benefits – such as healthcare, life insurance, profit sharing, employee stock ownership plans, exercise facilities, subsidised meal plans, child care availability, company cars, and more – have been used by organisations in their efforts to maintain happy employees in the belief that happy employees are motivated employees. However, due to the complexities involved, finding ways to motivate employees has become a pressing concern for many organisations. Hence, the aim of this study was to investigate workers' attitudes and perception of the various motivational factors, as well as the perceived effects of management use of motivation on workers job commitment in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

2 Review Of Relevant Literature

2.1 What is motivation?

Motivation is a word that is rather cumbersome to define in a meaningful manner. According to Adams and Jacobson (1964), motivation deals with all the conditions that are responsible for variation in the intensity, quality and direction of behaviour. From an organisation point of view, motivation deals with everything that a manager knows or can use to influence the direction and rate of individual's behaviour towards job commitment (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Aborisade and Obioha, 2009; Börjesson and Löfsten, 2012). Therefore, employee's motivation is the level of energy, commitment, and creativity that a company's workers apply to their jobs. However, motivating employee for better commitment can sometimes be particularly problematic for many organisations if the right motivational factors/policy mix is not in place. Hence, organisations should be mindful of such pitfalls, for the effects of low employee motivation on productivity can be devastating; these often include poor commitment, complacency, declining morale, absenteeism,

high turnover and widespread discouragement. For an employee to be satisfied, Parker (2001) suggested that there are three basic characteristics of a ‘motivating’ job: It must allow a worker to feel personally responsible for a meaningful portion of the work accomplished, it must provide outcomes which have intrinsic meaning to the individual, and lastly, it must provide the employee with feedback on the work performed, this is important to a worker’s level of job satisfaction and motivation (Ali and Ahmad, 2009; Annamalai et al., 2010).

2.2 Theoretical framework

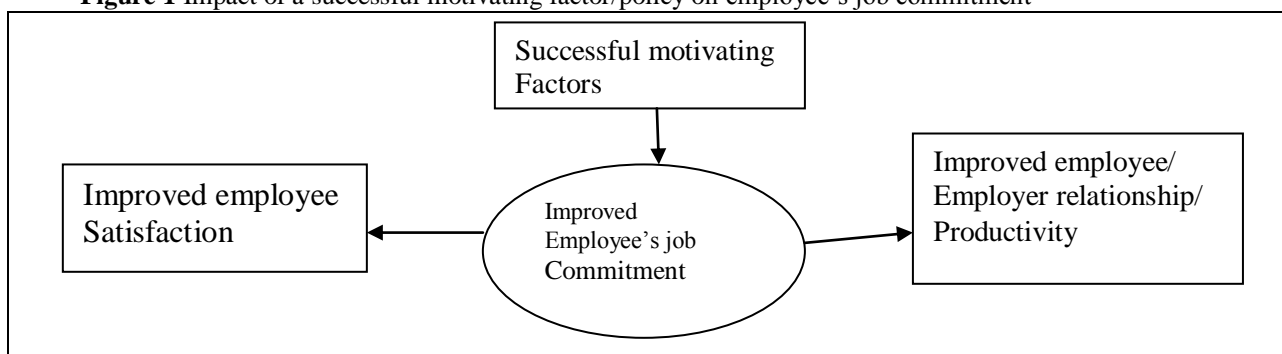
Efforts to understand the motivational process, through theories, have centred on several major elements: needs, cognitive activities, and reward and reinforcement issues (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Aydin and Ceylan, 2009). The core ideas of the theory of scientific management, a theory of management that analysed and synthesised workflows, were developed by Frederick Winslow Taylor, the father of ‘scientific management’ (Aitken, 1985; Hilton Barrett et al., 2012). Taylor noticed the natural differences in productivity between workers, which were driven by various causes, including differences in talent, intelligence, or motivations. Taylor observed that some workers were more talented than others, and that even smart ones were often unmotivated. He observed that most workers who are forced to perform repetitive tasks tend to work at the slowest rate that goes unpunished. However, via time and motion studies and based on a high level of managerial control over employee work practices, Taylor (1911), propounded the following assumptions: one best method of performing a task; one best way of recruiting, training and motivating workers; and one best way of encouraging labour and management cooperation (Beissinger, 1988; Sahlman and Haapasalo, 2011). He posited that time and motion studies combined with rational analysis and synthesis could uncover one best method for performing any particular task, and that prevailing methods were seldom equal to these best methods (Taylor, 1911; Danish and Usman, 2010) and thereby advised that if each employee’s compensation was linked to their output, their productivity would go up (Beissinger, 1988; Fard et al., 2010). In addition, Taylor decided that labour should include rest breaks so that workers have time to recover from fatigue. Unfortunately, implementations of scientific management (Aitken, 1985) usually failed to account for several inherent challenges: that individuals are different from each other, hence, the most efficient way of working for one person may be inefficient for another; and that the economic interests of workers and management are rarely identical, so that both the measurement processes and the retraining required by Taylor’s methods are frequently resented and sometimes sabotaged by the workforce (Taylor, 1911; Kamalian et al., 2010).

On the other hand, need theories argue that we all behave the way we do because we have internal needs we are attempting to satisfy? Maslow argues that our needs form a five-level hierarchy, ranging from physiological to self-actualisation needs (Maslow, 1946; Bartol and Martin, 1998). Societies develop when people reach a particular level in Maslow’s hierarchy. Once people meet their physiological needs and they feel safe, they begin to develop a culture needed for improved productivity (Maslow, 1946; Thompson, 1967). Herzberg’s two-factor theory contends that hygiene factors are necessary to keep workers from feeling dissatisfied, but only motivators can lead workers to feel satisfied and motivated. While the hierarchy of needs theory view certain needs as inherent, McClelland’s acquired-needs theory argues that needs are acquired or learned on the basis of our life experiences. His work has focused particularly on needs for achievement, affiliation, and power, as well as on how these needs affect managerial success (Maslow, 1946; Bartol and Martin, 1998). Cognitive theories attempt to isolate the thinking patterns we use in deciding whether or not to behave in a certain way. Expectancy theory posits that in deciding how much effort to expend in a given direction, we often consider three issues: effort-performance expectancy (i.e., the probability that our efforts will lead to the required performance level), performance-outcome expectancy (the probability that our successful performance will lead to certain outcomes), and valence (the anticipated value of the various outcomes of rewards) (Mintzberg, 1979; Bartol and Martin, 1998). Equity theory indicates that we prefer situations of balance, or equity, which occurs when we perceive the ratio of our inputs and outcomes to be equal to the ratio of inputs and outcomes of a comparison other(s). Goal-setting theory highlights the importance of goal commitment, specific and challenging goals, and feedback. Goal setting works by directing attention and action, mobilising effort, increasing persistence, and encouraging the development of strategies to achieve the goals (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Vouzas, 2009).

2.3 Empirical framework

In this paper, as depicted in figure 1, an empirical framework was created to assess the impact of motivating factors on employee’s job commitment. This is based on the fact that, a business that institutes effective ways – whether tangible (such as good salaries and fringe benefits) or intangible (say, increased responsibility/authority) – of rewarding employees for good work can be an avenue for improved employees satisfaction and job commitments, hence, improved organisation’s productivity and employer/employee relations.

Figure 1 Impact of a successful motivating factor/policy on employee’s job commitment



Source: Adapted from Allen and Meyer (1990)

Involving your workers in setting their own direction, showing them that you care about how their job is progressing, and fostering a more positive relationship will create beneficial productivity impacts (Khalid and Irshad, 2010; Khan et al., 2010).

2.3.1 Motivation methods

The performance of employees will make or break a company; this is why it is important to find a variety of methods of motivating employees. Since, motivation is the willingness to do something; hence, it is conditioned by this action's ability to satisfy some need for the individual. Every employee within a company is different and, therefore, is motivated to perform well for different reasons. Due to the differences within an organisation, it is important for a manager to get to know her employees and understand what motivates their performance. In the words of Frase-Blunt (2001), there are as many different methods of motivating employees today as there are organizations operating in the global business environment: empowerment, creativity and innovation, learning, quality of life, monetary incentives, etc. Giving employees more responsibility and decision-making authority increases their realm of control over the tasks for which they are held responsible and better equips them to carry out those tasks. As a result, feelings of frustration arising from being held accountable for something one does not have the resources to carry out are diminished (Malik et al., 2011; Coates and Jarratt, 1994).

On the contrary, increasing working hours often left many workers wondering how to meet the demands of their lives beyond the workplace; hence, companies that have instituted flexible employee arrangements have gained motivated employees whose productivity has increased (Kennish, 1994; Winter, 2012). In all motivating factors, money still occupies a major place in the mix; the sharing of a company's profits gives incentive to employees to produce a quality product, perform a quality service, or improve the quality of a process within the company. Money is effective when it is directly tied to an employee's ideas or accomplishments. Nevertheless, if the above methods are not coupled with other non-monetary motivators, its motivating effects may be short-lived (Kinni, 1994). However, study after study has found that the most effective motivators of workers are non-monetary. Proven non-monetary (such as letters of commendation and time off from work) positive motivators often foster team spirit and include recognition, responsibility, and advancement. In addition, over the longer term, sincere praise and personal gestures are far more effective and more economical than awards of money alone (Mani, 2010; Parker, 2001). Moreso, one of the most significant motivating factors reported are personal recognition and extrinsic motivation. According to McGarvey (1997), when employees are motivated by extrinsic rewards such as additional compensation, gift certificates or material rewards, managers may see improved performance. In the end, a programme that combines monetary reward systems and satisfies intrinsic, self-actualising needs may be the most potent employee motivator.

2.4 Employee's job commitment

According to dispositional theorists, work commitment often include work ethic, job involvement, affective commitment, and continuance commitment; individuals possess relatively stable characteristics that affect their attitudes and behaviour (Davis-Blake and Pfeffer, 1989; Talib et al., 2012). As personality influences attitudes, attitudes, in turn, affect motivation, which then leads to behavioural outcomes. Based on the above, Morrow (1983) surmised that work commitment is a function of personal characteristics, including dispositional qualities, and presents a facet design of work commitment that includes work ethic, career commitment, organisational commitment (affective and continuance), and job involvement (Morrow, 1993). Work ethic, also called the Protestant work ethic (PWE), has been defined for "an individual as a value or belief concerning the place of work in one's life that either (a) serves as a conscious guide to conduct or (b) is simply implied in manifested attitudes and behavior" (Siegel, 1983).

According to Weber's classic conceptualisation of PWE, which stemmed from Calvinistic and Quaker philosophies of individualism and asceticism (Macoby, 1983), work is "performed as if it were an end in itself, a calling" [Weber, (1958), p.62]. Individuals with a strong work ethic are committed to the values of hard work and embrace the Calvinistic tradition of frugality, hard work, conservatism, and success (Weber, 1958).

However, the culture today does not necessarily support the same conventions and values as in earlier days. Work values constantly change and evolve, so the notion that the work values of 1958 would not be applicable today is consistent with historical trends. A redefinition of work values has occurred. Bernstein (1997) describes contemporary employees as 'inner-directed', people "who clearly place their personal wants and aspirations above those of their employers". Work schedules and business priorities are secondary to self-fulfilment (Oluseyi and Ayo, 2009; Yazdani et al., 2011; Sinetar, 1980). In light of the prevailing values, cultures, and mores, it is possible for an individual to score high on the hard work scale but low on non-leisure, asceticism, or independence. Compliance with the norms and values of today's society could lead an individual to respond to the PWE instrument in a manner that would contradict the PWE construct, which requires high scores on all four facets: hard work, asceticism, independence, and non-leisure. Hard work appears to be the only component of PWE that is applicable in today's society (Naquin and Holton, 2001). Organisational commitment: recent research efforts have focused on three types of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1984).

Allen and Meyer (1990) defined affective commitment as an emotional attachment to the organisation such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organisation. Continuance commitment is based on the individual's recognition of the costs (or lost side bets) associated with discontinuing the activity (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment, however, is not included in Morrow's (1993) work commitment conceptualisation, one of the foundational premises of the present study, and was thus excluded from it. For job involvement, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined job involvement as the degree of daily absorption a worker experiences in work activity. Job involvement leads individuals to exceed the normal job expectations (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995) and is a key component in employee motivation (Lawler, 1986). Brown (1996) confirmed a relationship between job involvement and work ethic endorsement with growth need strength, a facet of

conscientiousness, concluding that motivation may be both an antecedent and an outcome of job involvement. Clark (1990) found a positive relationship between training motivation and job involvement, and Hensey (1987) found that the effectiveness of training programmes suffered among workers who were less involved with their jobs.

3 Research Methodology

Given a descriptive research of the survey type, multistage sampling method was used for this study. This method will enable the eligible participants to have equal chances of being selected for the study, as well as selecting the participants in their natural occurring group in order to increase the precision of the sample (Oluseyi and Ayo, 2009; Yazdani et al., 2011; Sinetar, 1980). The population was limited to all permanent staff, both male and female, in states and federal government owned tertiary institutions in South-western Nigeria. The South-western, Nigeria consists of six states namely, Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo. The institutions included states and federal governments public colleges of education, polytechnics and universities in the six states. Federal government owned four colleges of education, four polytechnics and five universities. The corresponding state government owned tertiary institutions are seven colleges of education, seven polytechnics and ten universities at the period of this study. In the first stage of the multistage sampling technique, using simple random sampling, three states namely Lagos, Ekiti, and Osun were selected out of the six states in the South-western, Nigeria.

The second stage entailed the use of clustering, stratified and purposive sampling techniques in selecting the tertiary institutions. In clustering sampling, institutions with the same characteristics were grouped together, thus there were three clusters (University, Polytechnic and College of Education). This was then followed by the stratification of the institutions into federal and state government owned. Then purposive sampling of the institutions was done to ensure that both federal and state institutions are adequately represented. In the University cluster, the three universities selected are University of Lagos, Lagos State; University of Ado Ekiti, Ekiti State; and Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State. In the second cluster, with six polytechnics, the three polytechnics selected are Lagos State Polytechnics, Isolo, Lagos State; Federal Polytechnic, Ado Ekiti, Ekiti State; College of Technology Iree, Osun State. Lastly, in the third cluster, with six Colleges of Education, the three selected Colleges of Education for the study are Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Ijanikin, Lagos State; College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti, Ekiti State and College of Education, Ilesa, Osun State.

In the last stage, a proportionate sampling technique was used to select the number of participants per institution, based on the number of employees at the time of this survey. After due consultation with six experts and three professors in this field, the total participant were settled at 2,680. The final selection of respondents to represent the allotted questionnaires in each institution involved the use of simple random sampling, after due consideration to the number of faculties and schools in the Universities and Polytechnics/Colleges of Education respectively. Thus, since the main objective of this study was to investigate the perceived effects of management use of motivational factors on workers job commitment; based on the reviewed literatures, the various motivational factors used by management and as desired by employees are depicted in Table 1. While the various key factors manifesting Employees Job Commitment, as derived from the three constructs of Morrow's (1993) conceptualisation – work ethic, organizational commitments, and job involvement, are depicted in Table 2.

Table 1 Key factors manifesting successful motivation

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Key factors manifesting successful motivation</i>
A1	Good salaries and fringe benefits
A2	Recognition of performance
A3	Achievement in the company
A4	Content of my job
A5	Increased responsibility/authority
A6	Opportunity for further training
A7	Ownership scheme
A8	Company policy and admin
A9	Positive working environment
A10	External rewards/recognition

Table 2 Key factors manifesting employee job commitment

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Key factors manifesting employees job commitment</i>
B1	I am very happy and committed to the values of hard work in my present employment
B2	I wish to continue with my present employment without seeking for immediate alternative
B3	My present reward/remunerations is worth the present time spent at work
B4	I wish to add extra hours to my regular working hours if there is a favourable pay
B5	I am not prepared to leave my present job for another if there is a favourable pay
B6	My present employment is capable of meeting my basic expectations and aspirations
B7	I am proud to be a team member of the university
B8	I do not wish to quit my job because the costs associated with discontinuing my job is so high

Based on variables in Tables 1 and 2, a questionnaire, tagged 'Effectiveness of Motivation on Employees Job Commitment Questionnaire' (EMEJCQ) was constructed, validated and accepted by experts and administered to the respondents at the pilot stage. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate their perception of the various key factors manifesting successful motivation, and its impacts on key factors manifesting employees job commitment, based on an interval scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is 'strongly disagree' while 5 is 'strongly agree'. Based on the framework adapted by Aborisade and Obioha (2009) and Khong (2005), and using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-AMOS), the data from the questionnaire was analysed using the following methodologies in sequential order: validity and reliability analysis, factor analysis-exploratory and confirmatory- and hypothesis testing.

4 Results and Discussion of Findings

4.1 Validity and reliability analysis

Discriminant validity (construct validity) was tested on the proposed constructs. Factor analysis, via ‘principal components extraction’, was the technique used to test discriminant validity. The factor analysis results provide evidence of discriminant validity, since the extraction of two factors, was consistent with the two variables used in the researcher’s model (Khong and Richardson, 2003). On the other hand, reliability is the “extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure” (Hair et al., 1998). Reliability of the instrument (questionnaire) was determined via coefficient alpha-internal consistency (Hair et al., 1998). Reliability analysis is conducted in order to measure the internal consistency of variables, measured by interval scale items, in a summated scale. In this paper, the summated scales are successful Motivation and employee’s job commitment. The result of reliability analysis using SPSS, a statistical software package, are shown in Table 4. Their Cronbach’s ‘ α ’ is above the 0.7 threshold. This indicates that the survey instrument (questionnaire) can be a reliable tool to measure the two concepts (successful motivation and employee’s job commitment) consistently. In addition, the robustness of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, at 0.667 (Table 3); and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity (chi-square = 1,679.897) were used to accept the fact that the population correlation matrix is an identity matrix. Thus, factor analysis was presumed appropriate technique for analysing the correlation matrix.

Table 3 KMO and Bartlett’s test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.667
Bartlett’s test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square 1,679
	Df 780
	Sig. .000

Table 4 Reliability internal consistency test (Cronbach’s alpha)

Concept/construct	Cronbach’s ‘ α ’	Recommended Cronbach’s α
Successful motivation	0.8196	0.7 or above threshold
Employees job commitment	0.8405	

4.2 Factor analysis

This analysis is used to reduce numerous variables to a more manageable set of factors; hence, the purpose of factor analysis, in this study, was to reduce the 18 variables, of which ten are manifesting successful motivation and eight manifesting employee job commitments, to a more manageable set of factors (Aaker and Day, 1986). Using SPSS, the results of this factor analysis, with the assumption of extracting via principal components method and rotating via varimax, are shown in Tables 5 to 6. In order to define which factors determine the motivational measures/factors and employee job commitment, confirmatory factor analysis method was used; and it is common that variables with high factor loadings will be assigned to describe the respective factors, while variables that have low loadings on respective factors are constrained to zero (Hair et al., 1998). The component matrix for successful Motivation and employee job commitment revealed only two significant factors, that is, factors A and B respectively; and the two factors were extracted. Consequently, factor A will manifest the construct of successful motivation while factor B will manifest employee job commitment. Given a suggestion by Carmines and Zeller (1979) that, the acceptable threshold for factor loadings is 0.7 or above; variables with 0.7 and above factor loadings will be assigned to manifest the respective constructs, while variables with lower factor loadings will be constrained to zero (Hair et al., 1998). The results of this stage of factor analysis are shown in Tables 7 to 8.

Table 5 Component matrix of variables manifesting successful motivation

Variables	Component factor A
A1	0.899
A2	0.645
A3	0.599
A4	0.624
A5	0.780
A6	0.625
A7	0.871
A8	0.557
A9	0.649
A10	0.619

Note: The extraction method is principal component analysis

Table 6 Component matrix of variables manifesting employees job commitment

Variables	Component factor B
B1	0.809
B2	0.598
B3	0.589
B4	0.899
B5	0.825
B6	0.729
B7	0.629
B8	0.588

Note: The extraction method is principal component analysis.

Table 7 Variables retained to manifest successful motivation

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Component construct A (successful motivation)</i>
A1	0.899
A5	0.780
A7	0.871

Note: Variables A2, A3, A4, A6, A8, A9, and A10 were omitted from further analysis.

Table 8 Variables retained to manifest employee job commitment

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Component construct B (PBPM)</i>
B1	0.809
B4	0.899
B5	0.825
B6	0.729

Note: Variables B2, B3, B7, and B8 were omitted from further analysis.

Table 9 The ranking derived from the extent of variables manifesting successful motivation and employees' job commitment

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Construct A</i>	<i>Construct B</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Successful motivation			
A1	0.899		Rank 1
A7	0.871		Rank 2
A5	0.780		Rank 3
Employees job commitment			
B1		0.809	
B4		0.899	
B5		0.825	
B6		0.729	

From Tables 9 and 10, variables A1, A7, A5 and B1, B4, B5, B6 were retained for manifesting successful motivation and employees job commitment respectively, because their factor loadings are above the 0.7 threshold. The retained variables were subsequently used in estimating the proposed hypothesis, via regression analysis.

4.3 Hypothesis testing

The aim of this paper was to examine the relationship between management uses of Motivation and employee job commitment in Nigerian tertiary institutions. In order to examine the relationship, the following hypotheses are set.

H0 Successful motivation has no positive effects on employee job commitment ($y = 0$).

H1 Successful motivation has positive effects on employee job commitment ($y \neq 0$).

Table 10 Testing the hypothesis

<i>Construct association</i>	<i>'α' level</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Significant (yes/no)</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>
(Motivation with employee job commitment)	0.05	0.002	Yes	Reject H0 Accept H1

Note: α level denotes significant level.

Based on the empirical results (using SPSS-AMOS) in Table 10, it is observed that the 'exogenous construct' (motivation) has a positive and significant association with the 'endogenous construct' (employee job commitment). Thus there was sufficient evidence to conclude that successful Motivational factors/policy had positive effects on employee job commitment in Nigerian tertiary institutions (do not reject H1). From the analysis of the questionnaire, majority of the respondent (72%), especially the junior and the first/middle line staff, believed that they were not motivated in the course of performing their duties as against 28% that opted otherwise. However, 55 percent of the top management staff believed they were properly motivated by the management. This may not be unconnected with the believe that top management officers are usually involved in policy formulation and decision making process and are likely to draft organisation's policies that favours them (Chizea, 1990). With a mean score of 4.3, a greater majority of the workers believe that they are not motivated; hence, this paper posited that, an unmotivated worker will equally be an unsatisfied worker and this has adversely affected their rate of commitment towards their job (Chizea, 1990; Aborisade and Obioha, 2009). Expectedly, employees were unanimous in their view that they are not satisfied with their present employment; this may not be unconnected with the fact that workers were not properly motivated. It could also be deduced that workers' attitude and perception of the various motivational factors differs. With a Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.899, majority of the respondents were unanimous in their responses to perceived sources of motivation by indicating good salaries and fringe benefits (variable A1) as their best source of motivation. In addition, opportunity to some form of ownership scheme was ranked second (Variable A7 = 0.871); while increased responsibility/ authority (Variable A5 = 0.780) was ranked third in that order. Although other motivational factors are also important, in the context of this study, they were found not to be statistically significant, hence, omitted from further analysis. Judging by the overwhelming perception of workers that good salaries and fringe benefits was the major motivating factor, this paper concur with the classical theory of motivation, developed by Taylor (1911).

5 Conclusions and Implications for Practice

5.1 Conclusions

In this paper, an empirical framework was created to provide a holistic view of workers attitudes and perception of the various motivational factors, as well as, examines the perceived effects of management use of motivation on employee's job commitment in Nigerian tertiary institutions. From the analysis of data generated from the administered questionnaires, a majority of the respondents, especially junior and the first/middle line staff, believed that they are not being properly motivated leading to poor employee job commitment. It was also deduced that workers' attitudes and perceptions of the various motivational factors differs. Majority of respondents unanimously indicated good salaries and fringe benefits as the ultimate source of motivation. Opportunity to some form of ownership scheme and increased responsibility/authority followed in that order. There was also sufficient evidence to conclude that successful Motivational factors/policy had positive effects on employee job commitment in all the institutions surveyed; hence, for management to improve the level of staff productivity, greater efforts must be placed on the perceived motivating factors.

5.2 Theoretical implications

This study seems to be among the few examining the success of motivational factors/policy, and the related employee job commitment, in the perspective of how organisations fare after implementing specific motivational policy. The notion of motivation success was analysed explicitly by assessing the value derived, in terms of employee job commitment, from implementing the policy. This gap was originally positioned as a critical area for future research by Ali and Ahmad (2009). Another contribution of this study is the measurement of employees' job commitment, which was not limited to or focused on financial metrics or single measure, but encompasses diverse indicators and perspectives, as derived from the three constructs of Morrow's (1993) conceptualisation – work ethic, organisational commitment, and job involvement. Oluseyi and Ayo (2009) specifically identified this gap in the literature. This is on the premise that many researchers often use objective measures such as turnover and profit as a form of measuring employees' job commitment.

However, according to Oluseyi and Ayo (2009), perceived measures can replace objective measures of employees' job commitments? In addition, this study seems to be one of the few that aims at investigating motivation's success in a developing economy, like Nigeria, by proposing a model and attempting to validate it empirically. Lastly, Aborisade and Obioha (2009), contends the stringent necessity to provide a model that amalgamates successful motivational factors with motivations' success. Hence, this study integrates specific motivational factors, with employees' job commitments as related drivers of the effectiveness motivational practices in a developing economy, like Nigeria. Very few studies have been performed to investigate and understand this issue. Therefore, the that can be considered as a step forward in developing an integrated model toward investigating the relationship between the specific motivational factors and its success, in terms of improved employees' job commitments and might serve as a basis for future research. Finally, this research adds to the body of knowledge by providing new data and empirical insights into the relationship between the motivational factors and employees job commitments in tertiary institutions in South-western Nigeria.

5.3 Managerial implications

Tertiary institutions in Nigeria should consider motivation as an innovative tool for improving employees' job commitments in today's dynamic business environment. The measurement model provides predictive implications on improved employees' job commitment, given the activities of critical factors manifesting successful motivation. Moreover, the corroborated findings provide valuable implications for practice. This study is expected to provide specific direction to companies contemplating a successful motivational policy, hence, the study is expected to be beneficial to Nigerian tertiary institutions, policy makers in private and public schools of higher learning in Nigerian by, enabling better strategic and tactical judgements with regards to their motivational policies. However, based on the conclusion of this study, it is recommended that management and policy makers in Nigerian tertiary institutions should concentrated efforts in providing good salaries and fringe benefits to employees, provides opportunities to ownership schemes, as well as increased responsibility/authority, by way of promotions to all cadres of employee, especially the junior workers.

However, in compliance with Taylor (1911), if each employee's compensation is linked to their outputs, their level of productivity would increase. Furthermore, although money is often perceived to be the most important motivator for employee performance, it is also important for organisations to find other ways to motivate their employees. This may involves getting to know their employees and what drives them, then making sure they utilise appropriate motivational techniques with each employee. Finally, the organizations should take steps to incorporate the vision of employees for the company with his or her own vision. This will motivate employees to contribute to the organisation's goals, as well as help prevent stagnation in its direction and purpose (McGarvey, 1997). However, since the use of specific sampling techniques and approaches cannot obliterate the problems of population misrepresentations (Khong and Richardson, 2003), but can only minimise the probability of misrepresentations of the sample in the sampling frame, hence, predictions of this study are values only to perceive them as guidelines and not mandatory axioms; the parameters set in these models are snapshots of the conditions of the institutions at that particular time and place. Since this paper is exploratory in nature, in an empirical manner, a second phase of this research can entail the impact of how management use of motivating factors can improve organizational performance-objective and perceived measures, using different raters including experts and customers. The empirical/theoretical framework will be more complex, but will entail a more realistic and holistic view of the impact of employee motivation on business performance.

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