Research Article

Researches on Multidisiplinary Approaches 2025, 5(SI-IXASC2025): 49-62

ISSN:2791-9099

The Relationship Between Motivation and Organizational Commitment: A Meta-Analytic Review¹ ©

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Abstract

This study employed a meta-analytic approach to explore the impact of motivation on organizational commitment. Meta-analysis is a structured synthesis technique used to aggregate and analyze the results of multiple quantitative studies conducted across different time periods and contexts, providing a comprehensive estimate of the overall effect size. For this research, a systematic literature search was carried out using Google Scholar and ProQuest databases, with the keywords "job motivation" and "organizational commitment." The initial search yielded 609 studies published between 2020 and 2025. After a detailed screening process, 20 studies that directly examined the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment were selected. These studies collectively involved a total of 6,790 participants, and were included in the final meta-analysis.

The $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Q}}$ and $\ensuremath{\mathsf{I}}^2$ test results indicated a high level of

variance (heterogeneity) among the studies analyzed (Q = 402.197, I^2 = 95.276). Therefore, a random effects model was employed to conduct the meta-analysis. According to the findings, a positive and significant relationship was found between organizational silence and burnout (r = 0.584, p < 0.05). Analyses conducted using Fisher's Z transformation showed that the confidence intervals supported this relationship. To assess publication bias, various methods were utilized, including Egger's test, Duval and Tweedie's trim-and-fill test, and Begg and Mazumdar's rank correlation test. These analyses indicated no significant publication bias. Funnel plot analyses also demonstrated a low risk of bias.

Keywords: Motivation, Organizational Commitment, Meta Analysis.

JEL Codes: D23

¹This article is derived from a study originally presented at the IX. ASC 2025 Spring Congress (May 15–18, 2025), hosted by İstanbul Gedik University in İstanbul, Türkiye, and has been substantially revised to meet the academic and editorial standards required for publication.

Citation: Akdemir Ömür, G. (2025). The Relationship Between Motivation and Organizational Commitment: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Researches on Multidisciplinary Approaches (Romaya Journal)*, 5(SI-IXASC2025): 49-62.

1. Introduction

Motivation is defined as the outcome of the direction, intensity, and persistence of the internal drive that leads an employee toward a particular behavior. Motivation is considered a key driving factor in both employees' individual competencies and their job performance. In this regard, motivation is frequently examined in the relevant literature within the context of organizational psychology and organizational behavior, and in relation to various constructs such as organizational citizenship (Kanwal & Tarig, 2016), job satisfaction (Anwar & Shukur, 2015; Tella et al., 2007), and organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002; Bytygi, 2020). Accordingly, the dynamics of the relationship between motivating forces (motivators) and the outcomes of such behavior (organizational commitment) shape both the scope of studies in the field and the theoretical frameworks on which they are based (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Whitener, 2001; Wayne et al., 2002).

The link between motivation and organizational commitment is frequently examined within the theoretical frameworks of Social Exchange Theory and Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Defined by Deci (1971), Self-Determination Theory focuses on the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors on individual behavior. This theory examines the factors that lead to either motivation or lack thereof, and how these factors affect behavior, distinguishing between those driven by intrinsic satisfaction and those prompted by external outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When employees are amotivated, they do not perceive any valid reason to engage in behavior. In other words, they do not find sufficient value in the reasons that would otherwise lead them to act, and therefore, they are not adequately motivated to exert effort (Van den Broeck et al., 2021; Green-Demers et al., 2008).

While Self-Determination Theory (SDT) draws attention to the underlying psychological needs and behaviors that facilitate motivation, Social Exchange Theory emphasizes the role of expectations and reciprocal benefits in driving actions. Thus, SDT highlights the internal mechanisms of motivation, whereas Social Exchange Theory focuses on the external, relational dynamics that influence employee engagement and commitment.

In defining the intersection between motivation and organizational commitment, the significance of Social Exchange Theory (SET) is frequently emphasized within the conceptual framework. Originally conceptualized by Homans (1958), Social Exchange Theory was later expanded by Blau (1964), who linked it to the concepts of exchange and power. According to Blau (1964), social exchange is defined as the authority of one party to influence the actions of the other through rewarding responses. In this context, individuals are voluntarily motivated to act based on

the anticipated rewards they expect to receive as a result of their actions. While SET posits that an exchange must be initiated by one actor, it also recognizes that individuals may trigger passive forms of behavioral change internally, even without external stimuli, especially in reaction to negative emotions (Ahmad et al., 2023).

Social Exchange Theory emphasizes that employees' contributions to the organization are shaped by their perception that employers value their efforts and are genuinely concerned with improving their well-being. (e.g., Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Whitener, 2001; Wayne et al., 2002). In this context, placing humanistic practices at the forefront within organizations not only facilitates the redefinition of organizations as entities with human-like characteristics in terms of organic relationships, but also leads to a shift in perceptions among employers, organizations, and employees. This shift may enhance employees' perception of organizational support (Darolia et al., 2024, p. 70). Moreover, Social Exchange Theory offers insights into employee engagement, motivation, and the intention to remain within the organization. It specifically explains how motivation-related factors—such as employee involvement, rewards, job security, and empowerment function within organizational settings (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). According to Social Exchange Theory, various outcomes may arise based on employees' psychological expectations, such as burnout, organizational citizenship behavior, task performance, etc. (Yin, 2018). Consequently, it is crucial to revisit the link between motivation and organizational commitment to gain a deeper understanding of how these concepts interact.

2. Conceptual Framework

Motivation is defined as a conscious reason that transforms into a driving force for action. This motivation may or may not trigger an action that contributes to the achievement of the organization's goals (Andreas, 2022). Motivation is seen as a concept related to the fulfillment of employees' needs, their perceptions of the goal-setting process, and their expectations of rewards for their efforts. Organizations can strengthen employees' organizational commitment by enhancing motivation related to achievement and self-actualization. Furthermore, providing feedback and the nature of the job also play a crucial role in increasing employee motivation (Darolia et al., 2024).

The nature of the job, the relationships among individuals in the work environment, employees' needs, organizational climate, rewards, and employee policies are factors that influence employee motivation (Darolia et al., 2024). Motivation, defined as the decision-making process, is described as the behavior aimed at achieving a goal (Hemakumara, 2020).

The motivation process typically begins when an individual recognizes an unmet need. A goal is set to address this need, and the need is subsequently fulfilled. Rewards and incentives can motivate employees. Additionally, motivation levels are also influenced by the social context (Anwar & Shukur, 2015).

Organizations focus on motivating human resources, which are difficult to imitate, in order to survive and remain competitive in a dynamic environment. In this context, it is essential to predict the types of motivation within organizations and the behaviors associated with them (Figure 1).

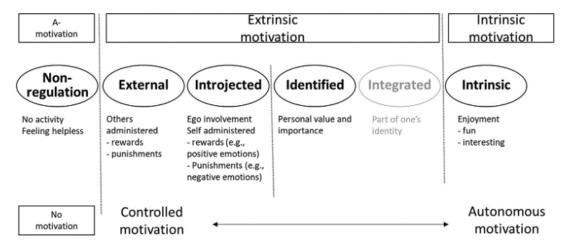


Figure 1. Types of Motivation's Impact on Employee Behavior Source: Van den Broeck etc.,2021

Figure 1 illustrates the types of motivation that influence employee behavior. Motivation is a process that includes both intrinsic and extrinsic regulations, as well as the absence of motivation itself. Intrinsic motivation involves introjection, which refers to an internal pressure. Introjection can lead to both positive and negative outcomes. However, Van den Broeck (2021) emphasizes that external regulations may have a negative impact on well-being, with limited interaction in terms of employee behavior. It is also stated that amotivation, defined as a lack of motivation, triggers negative outcomes. When employees perform a task to either receive a reward or avoid punishment, external regulation has been enacted. Examples of external conditions include receiving a bonus, the risk of being fired, or avoiding social criticism (Gagné et al., 2015).

Intrinsic motivation occurs when employees are self-motivated by fulfilling their personal needs. Employees tend to engage in tasks they believe will help them meet these needs. They are intrinsically motivated by jobs that align with their personal goals and offer characteristics such as responsibility, autonomy, opportunities for skill development, and engaging or meaningful tasks (Ali & Anwar, 2021). When employees are intrinsically motivated, they adopt work activities as goals in themselves. As a result, activities and goals become mutually reinforcing. This alignment enhances job satisfaction, as employees experience a greater sense of fulfillment when their activities and goals are in harmony (Fishbach & Woolley, 2022).

Intrinsic motivation has been found to influence organizational commitment (Mohsan et al., 2010). Employees with high levels of intrinsic motivation

tend to experience greater job satisfaction and demonstrate better job performance. However, these outcomes may also result from external factors (Schulze & Steyn, 2003). Extrinsic motivation is defined as the desire to fulfill needs and wants that are not directly related to the work itself (Salleh et al., 2016). It occurs when external agents make an effort to motivate the individual. In extrinsic motivation, behavior is driven by the reward management system, and is often triggered by salary, praise, or promotion (Ali & Anwar, 2021).

Organizations recognize that when they ensure employee productivity, responsiveness, efficiency, and a sense of being appreciated, job satisfaction is likely to increase (Ali & Anwar, 2021). High levels of employee motivation lead to greater productivity, encouraging employees to work more efficiently and effectively. When motivation is high, employees are expected to demonstrate higher performance, which naturally results in greater rewards. Motivation enables employees to focus on their tasks, helping them identify opportunities for workplace improvement and creating a sense of responsibility for self-development (Rachman, 2022).

3. The Intersections Between Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the alignment with the organization's goals and values. This alignment also includes a psychological aspect, reflecting an employee's willingness, necessity, and sense of duty to stay with the organization, which in turn shapes the employee-organization relationship (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational commitment reflects

the degree of alignment between an individual and the organization. When employees experience high organizational commitment, they are more inclined to invest effort and contribute to the organization (Porter et al., 1974; Steers, 1979; Mowday et al., 1979). Organizational commitment arises as a result of positive feelings that individuals have toward their jobs. The connection between individual characteristics, job-related factors, and job performance also contributes to creating a favorable environment for strengthening organizational commitment (Yin, 2018).

Organizations rely on strong organizational commitment from employees to take precautions and overcome difficulties during times of crisis. For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, when workers in sectors such as healthcare, retail, and transportation were confronted with unforeseen events, organizational commitment emerged as a crucial factor in navigating through the crisis. Employees with high levels of organizational commitment were able to adapt to new roles, take on non-routine tasks, and respond quickly to changes by reorganizing their work processes (Nembhard et al., 2020). Anand et al. (2023) explored the effects of benevolent leadership, job security, and burnout on employee commitment during crisis periods. According to the findings of their study, although benevolent leadership has a mediating role, both job insecurity and burnout negatively affect employees' organizational commitment (Anand et al., 2023).

A key reference in the field of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997), identified the affective commitment dimension, which refers to employees' sense of belonging, attachment, and involvement within the organization. Affective commitment is strongly positively correlated with factors such as employee engagement, job satisfaction, productivity, organizational citizenship behavior, and overall well-being. Consequently, understanding the link between affective commitment and employee motivation is especially crucial (Meyer et al., 2002).

Studies in the relevant literature emphasize that motivation positively influences employee performance through the mediating role of organizational commitment (Jufriadi et al., 2020; Astuti & Amalia, 2021; Darolia et al., 2024; Mohsen et al., 2004; Nguyen, 2020; Bytyqi, 2020). Jufriadi and Kusuma (2020) discovered that job motivation positively and significantly influences job performance, work engagement, and organizational commitment. According to the findings of their study, organizational commitment plays a mediating role in the relationship between job motivation and employee performance. Similarly, Astuti and Amalia (2021) demonstrated that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job motivation and employee performance. Additionally, their study found that organizational commitment also functions as a moderating variable in the link between psychological capital, job satisfaction, and employee performance. In other words, organizational commitment, job motivation, and job satisfaction collectively play a critical role in influencing employee performance.

Darolia et al. (2024) explored the impact of job motivation, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment and on individual performance among male employees across different departments in India. The findings indicated that perceived organizational support has a positive impact on employee performance. Furthermore, perceived organizational support was identified as a significant catalyst affecting other variables. The study also revealed a positive correlation between motivation, organizational commitment and job performance (Darolia et al., 2024). According to Salleh et al. (2016), motivated employees tend to experience less pressure, enjoy their work, and thus demonstrate higher levels of organizational commitment. In contrast, unmotivated employees are more likely to be absent and show lower performance at work. In addition, normative commitment refers to the employee's perceived duty to remain with the organization. Employees with strong normative commitment feel morally and ethically compelled to stay, even if the benefits offered by other organizations appear more attractive. Opportunistic behavior and knowledge sharing are concepts associated with organizational commitment. Furthermore, normative commitment, as a sub-dimension of organizational commitment, exerts both direct and indirect effects on employee motivation (Nguyen, 2020).

In organizations where employees exhibit high levels of motivation, organizational commitment is also more likely to be present. Motivated employees who are committed tend to deliver high-quality services to customers (Mohsen et al., 2004). Although there is a positive relationship between motivation and organizational commitment, motivation accounts for only 36% of the variance in organizational commitment. In a study conducted in Vietnam with 639 entrepreneurs, it was found that opportunistic behavior and knowledge sharing play a mediating role in the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment. Affective commitment was found to have an indirect effect on motivation, while continuance commitment was shown to have both direct and indirect effects through opportunistic behavior. The findings also revealed that opportunistic behavior negatively affects knowledge sharing among employees in businesses. Furthermore, motivated employees tend to demonstrate increased performance (Bytygi, 2020). In their study, Tella et al. (2007) identified a link between motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. However, their results also suggested a negative relationship between motivation and commitment. Although variations in job satisfaction were noted,

no significant correlation was identified between organizational commitment and years of experience. In contrast, Salleh et al. (2016) discovered a positive association between organizational commitment and motivation in their study involving employees from an engineering company.

In summary, considering the studies in the relevant field, the factors influencing organizational commitment are limited to motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, interpersonal relationships at the workplace, person-organization fit, and turnover intention (Bozeman & Perrew, 2021). In an effective organization, the goal is to foster a sense of commitment, satisfaction, fulfillment, and a spirit of collaboration. To achieve employee satisfaction and organizational commitment, both individual and organizational-level effective motivation are essential (Tella et al., 2007, p.1).

4. Method

4.1. The Purpose and Significance of the Study

This study employed a meta-analytic approach to assess the impact of motivation on organizational commitment. Meta-analysis can be described as a systematic approach to synthesizing research findings, and it involves combining the findings of surveys, correlational studies, experimental and quasi-experimental research conducted at different times and in various locations on the same subject. It enables the prediction of outcomes through analyses of analyses, utilizing larger sample sizes and stronger quantitative data by applying quantitative techniques (Rothstein, Higgins, Borenstein, Hedges, 2014 – Translated by S. Dinçer).

4.2. Population and Sample of the Study

In line with the purpose of the study, a systematic search was conducted in the "scholar.google" and "ProQuest" databases to identify relevant research to be included in the analysis. To determine the appropriate studies, the keywords ["job motivation" AND "organizational commitment"] were used, focusing on publications from the year 2020 onwards. As a result of the initial search, a total of 609 studies were identified. After applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria, 20 studies were deemed suitable for the meta-analysis.

Inclusion Criteria: The following criteria were used to determine the eligibility of studies for inclusion in the meta-analysis:

- The study must have been conducted using empirical methods.
- The study must report either a correlation coefficient and sample size together, or provide effect

size values.

- The concept of commitment must be examined exclusively in terms of organizational commitment.
- The study must be published as a journal article.
- The publication must be in English.
- Tables and data must be accessible.
- Exclusion Criteria: The following studies were excluded from the meta-analysis:
- Studies in which the effect size was reported within a multiple regression table along with other variables,
- Theses and conference proceedings,
- Studies that used non-empirical methods (e.g., qualitative, bibliometric, or systematic reviews),
- Publications that were not written in English.
- Coding Process:
- The names of the studies, their sample sizes, and the correlation coefficients between the two variables were recorded by the researcher in Table 1, as part of the coding process for the meta-analysis.

Data Analysis

The analyses of the study were conducted using the CMA 3.0 software (Comprehensive Meta Analysis 3.0). To assess the effect of motivation on organizational commitment, pooled correlation coefficients and Fisher's Z transformation, along with Z-statistics and p-values, were evaluated. A significance level of 0.05 (p < 0.05) was considered in the analyses. Prior to the analysis, homogeneity-heterogeneity assessments were conducted. In meta-analytic studies, if the studies are homogeneous, their weights are similar, and a fixed-effects model is employed; if the studies are heterogeneous, a random-effects model is used. To determine which model (fixed or random effects) to apply, Q and I^2 statistics are utilized to test for homogeneity.

The Q-value provides limited information regarding heterogeneity. Specifically, if Q is smaller than the degrees of freedom (i.e., the number of studies minus one), the variance is estimated as zero. In contrast, if Q exceeds the degrees of freedom, the variance is estimated as positive. However, it is important to note that the Q statistic and the degrees of freedom offer only this specific information. Using the Q-value as an index of dispersion would be a methodological error. Despite this, researchers occasionally employ the Q statistic or the p-value derived from the heterogeneity test as indicators of heterogeneity, which is considered a mistake (CMA, 2024a: 130)

In this study, heterogeneity was determined based on the fact that the $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Q}}$ statistic was greater than the

degrees of freedom and the I² statistic was greater than 75. In certain research fields, it is common practice to categorize heterogeneity as low, moderate, or high based on the I² value reported in studies. However, this approach is fundamentally flawed. I² is a proportion, not an index of absolute dispersion, and as such, it does not provide information on the degree to which effects vary. The concept of using I² to create categories of dispersion is logically inconsistent. There are two key reasons why classifying heterogeneity as low, moderate, or high based solely on the I² value is erroneous. First, I² merely represents a proportion, not an absolute measure of variance, and therefore does not indicate the extent of variation. Second, categorizing heterogeneity without additional context is problematic, as the level of heterogeneity considered high in one context may be regarded as low in another (CMA, 2024a: 116). In this study, the Q and I^2 statistics were used solely to detect heterogeneity. Researchers often assume that heterogeneity reduces the utility of the analysis. However, the situation is more nuanced. The statistic that provides a clear indication of dispersion is the prediction interval. Despite its importance, researchers seldom report this interval and frequently confuse it with the confidence interval (CMA, 2024a: 80). In this study, the prediction interval (Fisher's Z statistic) is presented in Table 3. The bias assessment of the obtained results was conducted using Egger's regression intercept, Duval and Tweedie's trim and fill method, Begg and Mazumdar's rank correlation, Rosenthal's classic fail-safe N, and Orwin's fail-safe N test. The Egger test suggests evaluating the same bias by using precision to predict the standardized effect. When the t-value of the Egger statistic is lower than the critical t-value (p > 0.05), it indicates the absence of publication bias. Egger's linear regression approach, akin to the rank correlation test, assesses the bias identified through the funnel plot. Unlike Begg and Mazumdar's test, which is based on rank data, Egger's method utilizes the actual effect sizes and their associated precision. In this test, the standardized effect (calculated by dividing the effect size by the standard error) is regressed against precision, defined as the inverse of the standard error. Small studies typically have low precision, which is indicated by a high standard error. In the absence of bias, these studies are expected to show small standardized effects, while larger studies would exhibit larger standardized effects. This would produce a regression line with an intercept near the origin. However, if the intercept deviates from this expected pattern, it may indicate the presence of publication bias. For instance, this could happen if small studies are disproportionately linked to larger effect sizes. As with the rank correlation test, the significance test should be conducted

with a two-tailed approach (CMA, 2024b: 92).

The Funnel Plot, utilized to identify potential missing studies and assess their impact on the meta-analysis, reveals that the difference between the observed values in Duval and Tweedie's Trim and Fill test and the adjusted values to account for publication bias is zero, indicating the absence of missing studies (i.e., a count of zero). This suggests that missing studies do not significantly affect the results of the meta-analysis. If the meta-analysis had included all relevant studies, the funnel plot would be expected to display symmetry, with studies evenly distributed on both sides of the overall effect. Therefore, an asymmetric funnel plot, characterized by a disproportionate number of small studies (representing large effect sizes) clustered to the right of the mean effect and fewer studies to the left, implies that studies on the left side may be missing from the analysis (CMA Report).

Duval and Tweedie developed a method to address this issue by imputing the missing studies. Specifically, their method estimates where the missing studies are likely to fall, incorporates them into the analysis, and recalculates the combined effect. The Trim and Fill method is grounded in the principle of the funnel plot, which assumes that, in the absence of bias, the plot should display symmetry around the overall effect. If there are more small studies on the right side than on the left, the concern arises that studies may be missing on the left. The Trim and Fill method imputes these missing studies, incorporates them into the analysis, and subsequently recomputes the summary effect size (CMA, 2024b: 89). To determine whether the number of studies included in the analysis influences the pooled correlation coefficient, Kendall's tau-b test was used. When the Z statistic obtained from this test exceeds the critical value (p > 0.05), it suggests that the number of studies does not significantly affect the result, indicating that the findings are reliable. To determine the number of studies required to invalidate the results, Rosenthal's classic fail-safe N test was applied. This test estimates how many additional studies would be needed for the pooled correlation coefficient to become non-significant, as well as the critical correlation coefficient and the required value for the pooled correlation (mean correlation) in those studies (Borenstein, Hedges, & Rothstein, 2007).

5. Findings

5.1. Descriptive Findings

The studies included in the research and the sample sizes are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Information on the Studies Included in the Research

Study Name	r	n
Bytyqi 2020	0,599	207
Garaika & Jatiningrum 2020	0,575	367
Idoko & Nebo & Ukenna 2020	0,782	277
Manalo & Castro & Uy 2020	0,520	1098
Shahid & Siddiqui 2020	0,782	257
Soutloglou & Theriou 2020	0,280	132
Yılmaz & Vardarlıer 2021	0,280	216
Abuzaid & Al.Haraisa & Alateeq 2022	0,754	186
Kristanto 2022	0,393	96
Lu & Chen 2022	0,439	550
Malik et al. 2022	0,446	172
Chen 2023	0,412	485
Fauziyah, Akerina & Sugiharto 2023	0,839	75
Mmakola & Majola 2023	0,215	159
Dagondon 2024	0,497	378
Hsieh & Chiu 2024	0,885	212
Jung & Moon 2024	0,590	976
Kara & Acar 2024	0,609	391
Lin & Liu & Li 2024	0,680	450
Pelchona 2024	0,368	106
TOTAL	0,547	6790

A total of twenty studies investigating the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment, comprising a sample size of 6,790 participants, were included in the analysis. The average correlation observed across these studies was found to be 0.547.

4.2. Meta-Analysis Findings

Model Selection

The results of the Q and I² tests for heterogeneity/ homogeneity, which determine the appropriate model to be used in the meta-analysis, are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Test Results for Determining the Appropriate Model

		Value	df	SE / Variance	Р	Result	Model
	Q	402,197	19	-	0,000	Heterogeneous	Random effect
Test	12	95,276	-	-	-	Heterogeneous	Random effect
	Tau2 / Tau	0,062 / 0,249	-	0,026 / 0,001	-	Heterogeneous	Random effect

The results of the Q (Q = 402.20 > df = 19) and I^2 ($I^2 = 95.28 > 75$) tests for heterogeneity/homogeneity indicated a high level of variance (heterogeneity), suggesting that the random-effects model is the appropriate choice. Considering the expected study weights (100/20 = 5.000), it was observed that in

the fixed-effects model, the study weights deviated significantly from the expected value (ranging from 1.07% to 16.27%), whereas in the random-effects model, the study weights were closer to the expected value and more evenly distributed (ranging from 4.40% to 5.30%) (Table 2; Figure 2)

Weight (Fixed)	Weight (Random)	
Relative weight	Relative weight	
3,03 5,41 4,07 16,27 3,77 1,92 3,16 2,72 1,38 8,13 2,51 7,16 1,07 2,32 5,57 3,11 14,46	4,99 5,15 5,08 5,30 5,06 4,78 5,00 4,95 4,59 5,23 4,91 5,21 4,40 4,88 5,16 5,00 5,29	
5,77 6,64 1,53	5,17 5,19 4,65	

Figure 2. Plot of Study Weights for the Relationship Between Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Meta-Analysis Results

The results of the meta-analysis examining the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment are presented in Table 3

Table 3. Meta-Analysis Results For The Relationship Between Motivation And Organizational Commitment

Statistic	Model: Random Effect		
N	20		
r	0,584		
r (Lower Limit)	0,504		
r (Upper Limit	0,653		
Fisher's Z	0,668		
SE	0,058		
Variance	0,003		
Fisher's Z (Lower Limit)	0,555		
Fisher's Z (Upper Limit)	0,781		
Z	11,561		
р	0,000		

A random-effects meta-analysis was carried out to assess the impact of motivation on organizational commitment. The results indicated that the effect of motivation on organizational commitment was statistically significant (Z=11.56; p<0.05). Due to heterogeneity, the random-effects model was deemed

appropriate. The average correlation (r=0.584) and Fisher's Z (Fisher's Z=0.668) statistics suggest that the effect of motivation on organizational commitment is of a large magnitude ($R^2=0.446>0.25$), with the effect expected to range from 0.308 to 0.610 (Table 3, Figure 3).

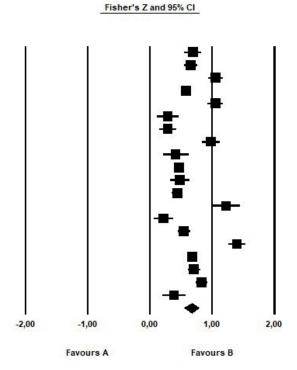


Figure 3. Effect Size Plot with 95% Confidence Interval

Findings on Bias

Table 4 presents the meta-analysis findings regarding the number of studies needed to nullify the

results due to publication bias, the influence of potentially missing studies on the analysis, the overall pooled correlation, and the Fisher's Z statistics.

Table 4. Findings on Bias

Test	Statistic	Value	Result	
_	Value	1,345		
_	SE	2,985		
Egger	t	0,450	vNo publication bias	
	p (1-tailed)	0,328		
	p (2-tailed)	0,657		
_	Point estimate (Observed Values)	0,668		
_	Point estimate (Adjusted Values)	0,668		
	Lower limit (Observed Values)	0,555	(Observed values - Ad-	
Duval and Tweedie's	Lower limit (Adjusted Values)	0,555	justed values =0)	
Trim and Fill	Upper limit (Observed Values)	0,781	Possible missing stu- dies have no effect on	
	Upper limit (Adjusted Values)	0,781	the meta-analysis	
	Q (Observed Values)	402,19		
	Q (Adjusted Values)	402,19		

Tau b	Value (Without continuity correction)	0,010	
	Value (With continuity correction)	0,005	The results in this study were not affected by
	Z (Without continuity correction)	0,064	the number of articles used
	Z (With continuity correction)	0,032	— usea
	p (1-tailed) (Without continuity correction)	0,474	
	p (1-tailed) (With continuity correction)	0,487	
	p (2-tailed) (Without continuity correction)	0,948	
	p (2-tailed) (With continuity correction)	0,974	
	Observed Z	50,883	
Classic Fail-Safe N	(Rosenthal)	0,000	— The number of studies
	Alpha	0,050	is 222 required to bring
	Tails	2,000	the P value > alpha (according to Orwin's
	Z	1,960	fail-safe N).
	Number of Observed Studies	20	
Orwin's Fail-Safe N	Fisher's Z in observed studies	0,653	
	Correlation in observed studies	0,574	
	Criterion for a "trivial" Fisher's Z	0,100	
	Mean Fisher's Z in missing studies	0,050	
	Criterion for a "trivial" correlation	0,010	
	Mean correlation in missing studies	0,050	

According to the results of the Egger test for studies examining the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment, no publication bias was found in the studies included in the research (Egger = 1.345; t = 0.450; p > 0.05) (Table 4). To evaluate

the impact of missing studies on the meta-analysis, the Funnel Plot was analyzed, revealing a symmetric distribution of studies on both sides of the funnel (Figure 4). Similarly, the results of Duval and Tweedie's Trim and Fill test showed that the diffe-

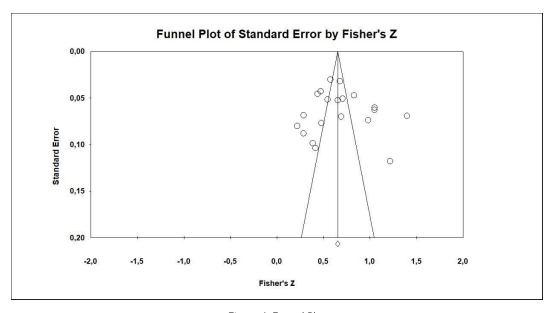


Figure 4. Funnel Plot

rence between the observed values and the adjusted values to correct for publication bias was 0.000 (0.668 - 0.668 = 0.000). Based on this finding, it was concluded that the impact of missing studies on the meta-analysis was negligible (Table 4). To determine the relationship between study size (number of studies) and effect size, the results of Kendall's Tau b test indicated that the number of studies included in the analysis had no effect on the obtained effect size (Tau b = 0.000; Z = 0.000; p > 0.05) (Table 4). In order to assess how many studies would be required to invalidate the obtained effect size, the results of Orwin's fail-safe N test revealed that 222 studies would be necessary for the pooled correlation coefficient to become non-significant (p > 0.05). The non-significance thresholds were Fisher's $Z \le 0.100$ and the correlation coefficient ≤ 0.100. Therefore, the average Fisher's Z correction value in these 222 studies would need to be 0.050, and the pooled correlation would need to be 0.100. Based on the overall findings related to publication bias summarized in Table 4, it can be concluded that publication bias does not influence the meta-analysis results of this study.

6. Conclusion

A meta-analysis was performed to investigate the connection between motivation and organizational commitment, incorporating 20 studies with a combined sample size of 6,790 participants. The analysis revealed a significant positive correlation between motivation and organizational commitment (r = 0.584). Moreover, motivation demonstrated a substantial effect on organizational commitment (R² = 0.446). To assess potential publication bias, an Egger test was applied, and the results confirmed the absence of any publication bias in the studies examining this relationship.

Considering the positive correlation between motivation and organizational commitment, it can be concluded that employees with higher motivation are more likely to show stronger organizational commitment. The Funnel Plot analysis revealed that the possible presence of missing studies does not have a significant effect on the meta-analysis outcomes. Additionally, the results from Kendall's Tau-b test indicated that the number of studies included in the analysis does not significantly influence the overall effect size.

According to the meta-analysis results, factors influencing motivation—particularly intrinsic motivation—play a significant role in enhancing organizational commitment. In other words, the individual's self-driven desire to achieve job-related goals through intrinsic motivation is also expected to increase job satisfaction. Given the positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, it can be inferred that an incre-

ase in motivation may also indirectly enhance organizational commitment (Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Studies in the relevant literature have examined the interrelationships between motivation and several other constructs that are both directly and indirectly affected by it, such as job satisfaction (Astuti & Amalia, 2021; Van den Broeck et al., 2021), performance (Astuti & Amalia, 2021), organizational citizenship behavior (Bozeman & Perrew, 2021), and organizational commitment.

Based on the findings, the relationship between motivation and job performance appears to be direct, and the level of job engagement may also play a significant role in this relationship (Jufriadi et al., 2020; Astuti & Amalia, 2021). In addition, job satisfaction is also considered to be an important factor influencing both motivation and performance (Astuti & Amalia, 2021). Similarly, in the context of intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, the expectation of rewards in return for one's actions may influence the level of organizational commitment (Fishbach & Woolley, 2022; Schulze & Steyn, 2003). In their meta-analysis exploring the relationship between Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and types of motivation, Van den Broeck et al. (2021) found that the identified types of motivation are consistent with the theoretical framework. This finding aligns with the results of the current study. In particular, intrinsic motivation was found to be the most significant type of motivation in terms of employees' well-being, behaviors, and attitudes. It was also identified as an important antecedent of job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. Moreover, factors such as salary, recognition, and interpersonal relationships among employees were identified as key motivators in the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment. It was also found that affective commitment is strongly associated with high levels of motivation, while continuance commitment exhibits the weakest relationship with motivation (Madi et al., 2017). Additionally, Bang et al. (2013) further highlighted that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between motivation and affective commitment, one of the core dimensions of organizational commit-

Madi et al. (2020) identified a strong relationship between motivation and organizational commitment. According to the findings of the study, "good wages" and "gratitude for a job well done" were found to be significant factors in the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment. According to the findings of a meta-analysis conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990), which reviewed 48 studies on the relationship between organizational commitment and motivation, attitudinal and calculative types of organizational commitment were emphasized as moderator variables. Riketta (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of 93 studies to examine the relationship between attitudinal orga-

nizational commitment and job performance. The findings revealed that extra-role performance was stronger than in-role performance. Furthermore, white-collar employees demonstrated higher levels of performance and organizational commitment compared to blue-collar workers. It was also found that self-evaluations yielded higher levels of performance and organizational commitment than supervisor ratings or objective indicators. This suggests that work environments that enable employees to engage in self-assessment may enhance both performance and organizational commitment. Additionally, age, tenure, and job level were found to have no significant impact on organizational commitment or performance. According to Riketta (2002), the relationship between organizational commitment and performance may vary across different cultural contexts. Eby et al. (2020) found that intrinsic motivation plays a partial mediating role in the relationship between extrinsic motivation and job attitudes. In this mediation model, extrinsic motivation variables were defined in terms of job characteristics and job context, while job attitudes were represented by affective organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction. The study particularly concluded that affective commitment has a significant and determining influence on the other variables. Trivellas (2011) highlighted the mediating role of organizational commitment in the relationship between employees' job motivation and job performance. According to the findings of the study, motivated employees demonstrated better performance as a result of mandatory human resource practices. Tett and Meyer (1993) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover, using 178 samples from 155 studies. According to the findings of the study, job satisfaction and commitment play a mediating role in the intention to leave the job. In addition, job satisfaction has a significant and strong effect on organizational com-

The literature often highlights the significance of job satisfaction in the relationship between organizational commitment and motivation (Van den Broeck et al., 2021; Astuti & Amalia, 2021; Ali & Anwar, 2021). Additionally, organizational commitment is commonly found to act as a mediating variable in the connection between motivation and other constructs, such as job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, the connection between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment necessitates a multidimensional perspective, especially when examining factors such as organizational psychology, organizational behavior, and structural dynamics. It can be concluded that the factors influencing employee motivation are largely shaped by working conditions and the characteristics of the job itself.

It is noteworthy that studies examining the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment have been particularly concentrated up to the year 2020. Following the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, the widespread shift toward digitalization necessitated a reorganization of work routines across organizations. As a result, it is believed that organizations were compelled to re-evaluate the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment. This study aims to assess the relationship between motivation and organizational commitment by focusing on research conducted between 2020 and 2025, and to identify other relevant concepts that influence this relationship. It is believed that conducting a meta-analytical evaluation based on post-2020 studies, in the context of shifting work paradigms, will offer valuable contributions to the field. Therefore, this study, by highlighting various concepts associated with motivation and organizational commitment, is expected to serve as an important reference for future research in this area. In summary; these findings may provide new insights for future studies intending to explore the interaction between motivation and organizational commitment. Therefore, in studies conducted particularly after 2020, it is expected that elements such as artificial intelligence and digitalization, which significantly affect the working environment, will generate new research questions within the context of this relationship.

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