

## The Virtuous Circle of Professional Life: A Proposition of a Model

<sup>1</sup>Mario Teixeira Reis Neto, <sup>1</sup>Varda Kendler, <sup>2</sup>Jorge Felipe da Silva Gomes and

<sup>1</sup>Jose Marcos Carvalho Mesquita

<sup>1</sup>FUMEC University, Belo Horizonte, Brazil

<sup>2</sup>Lisbon University, Lisbon, Portugal

---

**Abstract:** Individuals hold a set of personal values that are the basis for their behavior and affect their motivation. The individual needs motivation, commitment and rewards to respond to market productivity demands which are drivers of their professional performance. Focusing on effective people management by organizations, this study aims to evaluate how is the association of the constructs values, motivation, commitment, performance and rewards for low education and income workers. The approach is quantitative, based on a structured questionnaire with data processing done by multivariate statistical tools and guided in a hypothetical structural model containing 6 hypothesis. The research covered 580 low income workers of urban and countryside areas.

**Key words:** Values, motivation, commitment, performance, rewards, low-income workers

---

### INTRODUCTION

In the contemporary context, organizations need to face challenges to their survival and expansion in a qualified manner. They should consider the effects of a new society of knowledge, drivers of changes in organizational setting, requiring different perspective to the management models and new expectations and attitudes with regard to the workforce.

At the heart of this issue is the performance of organizations, linked to the achievement of the results obtained by the human capital, consisting of individuals which are different from each other with their expectations, skills and ways of perceiving the facts. Each with its own set of values composed of needs, attitudes, beliefs and perspectives about life. Personal values explain the motivational bases of attitudes and behaviors of individuals (Schwartz, 2006).

Given the high level of competition in this context, organizations need to develop and nurture their human capital (Kehelwalatema and Premaratne, 2013). It becomes relevant to consider the motivation of employees, since, this represents an important driver of corporate performance (Aarabi *et al.*, 2013). For Kumar (2011), the great challenge of most managers is to work with individuals motivated to produce results continuously.

Organizations are adopting ways to reward its employees, seeking to satisfy the needs that generate motivation to work. However, it is necessary to pay

attention to the individual values that guide and direct the actions, behavior and assessments of individuals (Schwartz, 1999) and seek ways and models of individual recognition and measurement of performance, to structure decisions and leverage financial results.

In this chain, organizations we must also consider the type of individual's commitment, that represents a force that connects it to a course of action to achieve the proposed target and may be accompanied by different intentions that play an important role in the development of behavior (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

It appears, therefore, that personal values permeate the choices that individuals make in different situations in their lives. Based on the prerogative that the values affect the motivation, this has been studied, aiming to explain what makes individuals choose one behavior over another and why different individuals respond differently to the same motivational stimuli. The way the individual chooses a behavior impacts on their commitment to the organization. Each individual has a kind of link with the organization to which he or she belongs and his/her commitment can bring a positive impact on organizational results, especially when there is a motivational stimulus linked to the rewards related to his/her performance (Stephens *et al.*, 2004).

The basis of this research is the understanding of the concepts of human values, motivation, commitment, performance and rewards. It is presented, hereafter, a theoretical background of these concepts to support the study.

**Values:** By Kamakura and Novak (1992), human values have received great attention in studies related to the identification of the reasons that lead individuals to adopt certain behaviors, once they suggest contents that help to understand the motivation behind their actions. According to Schwartz (2006, 2012), the values are used to characterize societies and individuals, to trace change over time and to explain the motivational bases of attitudes and behaviors. Values can be characterized as what the individual sees as desirable in relation to certain aspects of life that direct their actions and evaluations. They are influenced both by society and the personal experiences, establishing various forms of attitudes towards different experiential aspects, sorted according to the relative degree of importance as guiding principles of life (Schwartz, 1999).

By Kamakura and Novak (1992), there is the propensity of individuals to adopt similar values, potentially triggering delimitation of groups characterized by people who shows an homogeneous behavior. This leads to the understanding that there is a structure of values between culturally different groups which suggests the existence of a universal organization of human motivations. Individuals and groups have different values, priorities and hierarchies (Schwartz, 1999, 2012).

The values that are essential to people's lives in their decisions and resolutions of conflict is a valuable tool in times when the individual is faced with conflicting moments or decision-making situations in relation to his/her own life (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). Values influence action when they are relevant in a context that is important to the person. Values are critical motivators of behaviors and attitudes (Schwartz, 2012).

**Motivation:** The employee motivation is a topic of interest in developing theories focused on the effective practices of management (Steers *et al.*, 2004) and represents an important driver of organizational performance (Aarabi *et al.*, 2013). The process of motivation begins in the moment that the individual recognizes the needs to be satisfied. In order to achieve something intentions and desires are created. The individual sets out goals that, through a selection of favorable attitudes and behaviors will allow the satisfaction of their needs and when the individual can reach them, the needs are met. This creates a continuous process of new needs to be satisfied and allows the definition of items affecting the level of effort that people employ in their research as volunteers behaviors and levels of commitment and contribution (Armstrong,

2007). One motive is the reaction to do something, to move in a certain direction. Thus, individuals are motivated to perform a certain action because they believe that the realization of this activity will enable the achievement of his objectives (Armstrong, 2007). By Locke (2000), the key concepts representing the motivation are: needs, values, emotions, goals and intentions. Therefore, the word "motive" combines values and emotions and is the desire to reach a certain goal or value. Deci and Ryan (2000) define motivation as forces arising from within a person, responsible for the active engagement and the intentional targeting of their efforts.

By Aworemi *et al.* (2011), the motivation has benefits for organizations: put human resources into action, improves the level of employee efficiency, leads to the achievement of organizational goals, build friendly relationship and leads to a stability in the workforce. In the present scenario, a motivated workforce is an important competitive advantage. The motivation of employees should be treated strategically by administrators (Steers *et al.*, 2004) because it plays an important role in the establishment of organizational commitment in achieving better performance and greater productivity and thus in achieving organizational results. By Lut (2012), motivation is a set of forces, internal and external energies that initiates and directs human behavior for a particular purpose or objective. Job motivation is a very important aspect both for employees as work represents the central area of human activity, since, people spend most of their adult life in a state of employment and for employers, due to the direct implications of motivation on performance.

**Commitment:** Increasing studies about organizational commitment are based on the assumption that high employee commitment levels lead to the improvement of performance, providing positive results for themselves and the organization (Bastos, 1993; Mowday, 1999; Stephens *et al.*, 2004) and therefore, more organizational effectiveness.

The organizational commitment is like a psychological state that connects the individual to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990) and determines the relationship between the employee and the organization, producing implications for the employee's decision to remain in it. It can have different forms and be oriented towards various goals or focus (Meyer *et al.*, 2004).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), organizational commitment is multidimensional in nature, due to the possibility of conceptualize and measure the redundant dimensional model of three components of commitment:

affective the individual has an affectionate relationship with the organization, identifies with its values, sets high involvement and feels fully integrated into the work environment; instrumental the individual's stay in the organization is tied to the costs (monetary, psychological, etc.) resulting from his/her departure, that would be too high and normative the individual feels compelled to remain in the organization in a process of social norms pressure that define the employee's relationship with the company. Most studies focus on affective commitment, since, it corresponds to that which has the more favorable consequences to the organizations and therefore, the most desirable (Mohamed *et al.*, 2006).

Besides the commitment model by Allen and Meyer (1990) the career commitment has been investigated. Blau (2003) clarify this kind of commitment to the action of an individual in relation to his/her profession or vocation. Somers and Birnbaum (2000) believe that individuals are faced with a dilemma about where to place their loyalty: career or organization.

The organizational commitment is a dynamic process that must be continuously worked. It can affect elements such as absenteeism, turnover and performance (Bastos, 1993). Attention should be paid to the fact that studies of organizational commitment do not take into account that the employees/organization relationship must be bilateral, that commitment must occur in both parts and not only by employees (Baruch, 1998). In this course, the remuneration for example, may be conceived as a form of commitment from the organization because it is directly related to the appreciation and recognition of employee work.

**Performance and rewards:** The performance presents many measurement challenges, being influenced by the systemic nature of the organization by regulatory restrictions, among others, over which individuals have little or no influence. Performance may be affected by colleagues, managers, equipment, suppliers and other variables. It emphasizes the importance of reward in the organizational context as greatly influences the motivation, commitment and performance of the employees and organizational results (Reis *et al.*, 2012). It is recurrent in the literature the performance analysis related to commitment, treating it as a consistent factor or resulting from organizational commitment. An existing premise in several studies that address the commitment issue and its relationship to performance is that high commitment levels generate high levels of performance (Medeiros and Albuquerque, 2005).

By Camara (2006), the reward systems represent the set of instruments that are coherent and aligned with the company's strategy which are the counterpart of the

contribution made by the employee to business results through their professional performance. According to the researcher, they can be material and immaterial in nature and are designed to enhance the motivation and productivity of the worker. The management of traditional compensation in organizations consists of three areas: functional remuneration involves plans for positions and salaries (monthly salary, 13th salary and vacation); Variable Remuneration (VR) is based on the recognition of the contribution of people (awards and profit sharing) (Ghenot and Berlitz, 2011) and benefits insurances, medical care, transportation, basic food basket, dental care and scholarship (Marras, 2012). Marras (2012) adds that any VR system permeates the employee's performance and the knowledge, skills and attitudes that this individual must have as characteristics. Armstrong (2007), emphasizes that the objectives of the rewards systems contemplate that: the individual is paid according to his/her value; there is alignment between compensation practices with business goals and employee value and their needs; the compensation is adequate to employees; the attraction and retention of qualified individuals which organizations need is promoted; the motivation of individuals is improved; a greater employee integration and commitment is stimulated and a high performance culture is developed. Jensen *et al.* (2007) complement that a careful analysis of the particularities of each organization is required to establish consistent compensation programs with the organizational culture and that it is necessary to know the exact value that each individual represents to know how to reward him/her appropriately.

The theoretical foundation presents, therefore, the integration of the constructs values, motivation, commitment, performance and rewards. Values refer to desirable principles that motivate action (Schwartz, 1999, 2006). By Kamakura and Novak (1992), values help to identify the reasons that lead individuals to adopt certain attitudes and behaviors. The motivated employee is guided by the goals that he or she must achieve, channeling their efforts in this direction (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2014) in other words, a commitment, that is a force that drives the individual to certain behavior (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Reis *et al.* (2012) found in a study, that the performance of committed sellers is better than those who are not committed. It emphasizes the need to implement actions to stimulate the commitment of individuals to enable organizational development arising from the involvement of employees (Bezerra *et al.*, 2014). In this course, performance is a key component of the motivation model in which a greater effort leads to higher performance and higher performance leads to rewards. If employees do not perceive this as a fair relation, the

performance is compromised (Murray and Gerhart, 1998). According to the presented motivational theories, it appears that individuals behave according to the expected rewards received by his/her performance at work (Vroom, 1964; Locke and Latham, 1990). If the rewards do not occur or are below expectations, they feel frustrated and the commitment and performance may be shaken.

In our research, we aim to investigate how the constructs values, motivation, commitment, performance and rewards are associated and understand how groups of individuals endowed with different values behave guided by relations of these constructs in an integrated manner. We seek to instigate an academic and managerial discussion around these integrated constructs in order to think about on people management practices based on the theoretical and hypothetical model proposed.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Using a quantitative and descriptive method, this study sought to determine the relationship between established constructs in hypothesis which constitute the hypothetical structural model (Fig. 1) created from the theoretical basis underlying this study.

### Characteristics of the population and research field:

Lower class population with family income around US\$840, (Brazilian money converted to dollar) characterizing, therefore, as 'low income', obtained through formal or informal work. The fieldwork was conducted in the metropolitan region of Belo Horizonte Minas Gerais State with workers of building material stores and in South municipalities of Minas Gerais with predominantly agricultural economy (emphasis on coffee sector), working in countryside.

**Sampling process:** The elements of the sample were collected for convenience, composed of 580 individuals (333 workers from rural areas and 247 workers in the urban area). There was no absence of values in the questionnaire. On this basis, it was conducted an analysis of multivariate extreme values by Mahalanobis distance as suggested by Hair *et al.* (1995). The 11 individuals were classified as outliers ( $p < 0.001$ ), considering the indicators used in the structural model. Extreme cases were retained in the analysis, so that, it could verify if the results are distorted to the point of highlight the real need for their exclusion; however, no distortion was observed. So, the worked sample consisted of 580 respondents.

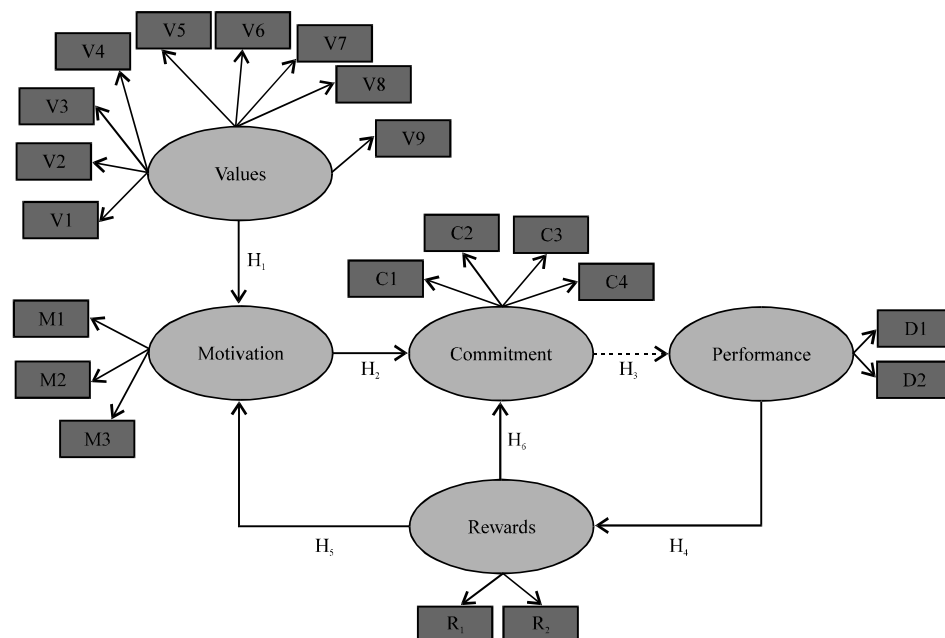


Fig. 1: Structural equations model research original, adapted from Rokeach (1973), Rokeach and Regan (1980), Allen and Meyer (1990), Kamakura and Novak (1992), Bastos (1993), Jaros *et al.* (1993), Randall and O'Driscoll (1997); Mowday (1999), O'Driscoll and Randall (1999), Locke (2000), Meyer *et al.* (2004), Steers *et al.* (2004); Camara (2006), Mohamed *et al.* (2006), Steel and Konig (2006), Schwartz (2006, 2012), Armstrong (2007), Jensen *et al.* (2007) and Liou (2008)

Table 1: Average, standard deviation and confidence interval for items of the constructs

Sources	General				Rural				Urban			
	Average	SD	CI	-95%	Average	SD	CI	-95%	Average	SD	CI	-95%
<b>Values</b>												
Hedonism	8.39	1.88	8.23	8.53	8.22	1.83	8.00	8.45	8.63	1.98	8.41	8.83
Materialism	6.23	2.62	6.01	6.44	6.20	2.37	5.92	6.51	6.27	2.73	5.98	6.57
Family attachment	8.67	1.40	8.56	8.79	8.58	1.29	8.42	8.75	8.80	1.39	8.65	8.95
Internal harmony	9.57	0.75	9.51	9.63	9.50	0.77	9.40	9.59	9.67	0.60	9.60	9.73
Affection	9.36	1.08	9.27	9.45	9.24	1.05	9.11	9.37	9.52	0.85	9.42	9.61
Affiliation	9.24	1.08	9.15	9.32	9.25	1.09	9.11	9.38	9.23	1.03	9.12	9.34
Challenge	9.60	0.74	9.53	9.66	9.57	0.73	9.48	9.66	9.63	0.66	9.55	9.69
Benevolence	9.78	0.65	9.72	9.83	9.72	0.67	9.63	9.80	9.85	0.50	9.79	9.90
Rationality	9.29	0.84	9.22	9.36	9.43	0.78	9.33	9.52	9.12	1.03	9.01	9.23
<b>Commitment</b>												
Affective	7.21	1.71	7.06	7.34	6.85	1.45	6.66	7.03	7.69	1.80	7.50	7.89
Instrumental	6.40	2.42	6.21	6.60	7.15	1.82	6.92	7.38	5.40	2.61	5.11	5.67
Normative	6.07	2.40	5.87	6.26	6.09	2.02	5.82	6.33	6.03	2.62	5.78	6.34
Professional	5.25	2.19	5.08	5.44	4.89	1.89	4.64	5.11	5.74	2.45	5.48	6.01
<b>Reward</b>												
Monetary	6.73	2.21	6.55	6.91	7.33	1.78	7.12	7.56	5.92	2.69	5.61	6.19
Nonmonetary reward	7.65	1.84	7.50	7.80	7.63	1.61	7.43	7.84	7.67	2.07	7.43	7.88
<b>Motivation</b>												
Q56	8.88	1.74	8.74	9.02	9.24	1.49	9.05	9.42	8.39	2.38	8.12	8.63
Q57	9.02	1.63	8.88	9.15	9.40	1.17	9.25	9.54	8.50	2.15	8.26	8.72
Q58	9.18	1.55	9.06	9.31	9.52	1.13	9.37	9.65	8.73	2.11	8.50	8.95
<b>Performance</b>												
Goals achievement	8.31	1.41	8.19	8.42	8.72	1.15	8.57	8.86	7.75	1.49	7.60	7.92
Absence of complaints and conflicts	8.74	1.33	8.63	8.84	8.95	1.16	8.79	9.08	8.45	1.38	8.30	8.60

**Data collection instrument and fieldwork:** For the pre-test in each of the research groups an anonymous structured questionnaire was used, subsequently adjusted. Each of the chosen and characterized variables was investigated through a set of correctly validated questions in previous studies, available in the scientific literature. In the metropolitan area of Belo Horizonte, the professionals were surveyed on their workplaces. In the municipalities of the south of Minas Gerais, the questionnaire was applied on weekends in the residence of the respondents. Considering that many members of the investigated population have low education, the questionnaire was made verbally.

**Processing and analysis of data:** Aiming to describe the variables related to the socio-demographic and occupational profile of respondents, the absolute and relative frequencies for qualitative variables and the average and standard deviation for quantitative variables were calculated. In the presentation and comparison of indicators for each construct was used the average, the standard deviation and the Bootstrap percentile confidence interval of 95%. The Bootstrap method is widely used in the calculation of inferences when you do not know the probability distribution of the variable of interest (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993). The evaluation of indicators for each construct is shown in Table 1.

To check the validity of the measurement theory, the convergent and discriminant validity was verified from the

confirmatory factor analysis. The criterion of convergent evaluation assesses the degree to which two of the same construct measures are correlated while discriminant evaluation measures the degree to which a construct is truly different from the rest (Hair *et al.*, 1995). To verify the convergent validity, the Extracted Variance (EV), the Construct Reliability (CR) and the Factor Loadings (FL) were used. According to Hair *et al.* (1995) for convergent validity of a construct, it is expected that the Extracted Variance (EV) is larger than 0.50, the Construct Reliability (CR) is larger than 0.70 and that any load factor is lower than 0.50. For discriminant validity, it was used the criterion by Fornell and Larcker (1981) which ensured that the Extracted Variance (EV) of a construct should not be lower than the shared variance of this construct with others.

After the validity tests of the measurement model, the modeling of structural equations was performed (Hair *et al.*, 1995) to check the adjustment capability of the measurement model to the proposed theory. In the normality analysis, it was observed through tests by Shapiro and Wilks (1965), that the indicators were not normally distributed because they were in a scale of 0-10. The non-normality does not impact on the consistency of estimators but in the standard errors estimation. Therefore, the inference "calculation of p-value" may be compromised. To resolve this, robust estimators for covariance structure of the structural model were used with the test statistic re-scaling method by

Satorra and Bentler (1994). Thus, it was possible to perform the nomological validation of the proposed measurement model.

To verify the adjustment quality, it was used the indicators  $\chi^2/\text{G.L.}$ , CFI, TLI and the RMSEA. According to Hair *et al.* (1996), for a good adjustment, it is expected that  $\chi^2/\text{G.L.}$  is lower than 3, CFI and TLI are bigger than 0.90 and the RMSEA is lower than 0.07.

The confirmatory analysis and the structural model were adjusted into different groups to enable the study of metric equivalence, scalar equivalence and equivalence in the regression structures. Groups were defined by regions: urban and rural. To perform the grouping was used a hierarchical analysis of grouping through the method by Ward (1963), using the Euclidean distance.

For the adjustment of the confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation models were used, respectively, the functions `cfa()` and `without()` of the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) of the R software Version 3.0.2.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Respondents profile:** The socio-demographic profile of the research sample shows the average age of the respondents is 35.7 years. Most are women (60.9%), especially in rural areas where women work at home and in temporary jobs as in coffee harvest season, to complement the family budget. In urban areas, the majority (61.5%) of workers are single and 56.3% did not have children while in rural areas, 81.6% of the respondents have children. In urban areas, 81% of respondents have secondary school education while in rural areas, 88% have only elementary school education. It appears, therefore, that the marital status, number of children and the educational level of urban and rural professionals are different. Regarding the occupational profile, 86.3% of respondents have a formal contract the Employment Record Card signed by the employer (in the countryside, the percentage was 76.6% and in urban areas, 99.6%). A minority of respondents (14%) had at least a salary increase for merit in the last 12 months and in urban areas, this percentage was 19.5%. Some of the respondents (78.4%) have not changed jobs in the last 12 months (in the countryside, this percentage was 85.9%). Functionally, it can be observed that 96.6% of the respondents do not occupy management positions and 30.3% are in the current occupation less than a year, highlighting that 56.9% of the urban area respondents are in the current occupation for less than a year while 25.6% of the rural area respondents are in the current

occupation for more than 25 years. The type of remuneration was balanced between fixed salary (40.2%) and payment by production (49.4%), highlighting that 84.3% of the respondents from rural areas receive payment for production.

**Analysis of the constructs:** Table 1 shows the average, the standard deviation and the confidence interval for the constructs value, commitment, rewards, motivation and performance of all the sample and the rural and urban groups.

Among the value construct indicators, materialism was the one with the lowest average (6.23), while benevolence had the highest (9.78). Hedonism indicator showed the most difference between rural and urban areas. Among the indicators of commitment, professional commitment was the one with the lowest average (5.25) while the affective commitment was the one with the highest average (7.21). The instrumental commitment was the indicator that presented the greatest difference between rural and urban areas. For reward indicators, the non-monetary category showed the highest average (7.65) and the monetary reward was the one with the biggest difference between rural and urban areas. For motivation indicators, question number 58 “I have great enthusiasm to push myself at work” showed the highest average (9.18). All motivation indicators had higher averages in the countryside. For performance indicators, the absence of complaints and conflicts showed the highest average (8.74). All performance indicators had higher averages in the countryside.

**Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA):** Table 2 shows the factor loadings and commonalities for each of the items of the five constructs investigated verified in the overall sample and between the two groups formed.

Except the construct value, all the others presented all items with factor loadings above 0.50 (minimum acceptable for convergent validation, according to Hair *et al.* (1996) in all groups. Although, there has been substantial change in the factor loadings depending on the group, the result presented by the latent variables commitment, rewards, motivation and performance, remained the same, regardless of the groups. In construct value is observed three items with factor loadings lower than 0.50, namely: ‘hedonism’, ‘materialism’ and ‘family attachment’ which does not contributed, however, to the conceptual measurement of the construct. According to Hair *et al.* (1996), items with low factor loadings should be excluded to improve the capacity to measure the model. In this study, we chose to keep the items ‘hedonism’, ‘materialism’ and ‘family attachment’ which had factor

Table 2: Factor loading and commonalities of the confirmatory analysis

Sources	General		Urban		Rural	
	FL	Com.	FL	Com.	FL	Com.
<b>Value</b>						
Hedonism	0.251	0.063	0.240	0.058	0.257	0.066
Materialism	0.113	0.013	0.049	0.002	0.154	0.024
Family attachment	0.339	0.115	0.294	0.086	0.360	0.130
Internal harmony	0.811	0.658	0.569	0.324	0.857	0.734
Affection	0.537	0.288	0.660	0.436	0.510	0.260
Affiliation	0.628	0.394	0.552	0.305	0.657	0.432
Challenge	0.850	0.723	0.684	0.468	0.895	0.801
Benevolence	0.819	0.671	0.537	0.288	0.882	0.778
Rationality	0.715	0.511	0.711	0.506	0.800	0.640
<b>Commitment</b>						
Affective	0.669	0.448	0.798	0.637	0.677	0.458
Instrumental	0.610	0.372	0.674	0.454	0.647	0.419
Normative	0.965	0.931	0.915	0.837	0.946	0.895
Professional	0.606	0.367	0.536	0.287	0.693	0.480
<b>Reward</b>						
Monetary	0.913	0.834	0.879	0.773	0.904	0.817
Nonmonetary	0.772	0.596	0.848	0.719	0.822	0.676
<b>Motivation</b>						
Q56	0.864	0.746	0.920	0.846	0.779	0.607
Q57	0.951	0.904	0.951	0.904	0.946	0.895
Q58	0.826	0.682	0.855	0.731	0.752	0.566
<b>Performance</b>						
Goals achievement	0.716	0.513	0.436	0.190	0.907	0.823
Complaints/conflict	0.724	0.524	0.999	0.998	0.568	0.323

Table 3: Comparison of latent variables between rural and urban areas

Latent variables/groups (zone)	N	Average	EP	1st Q	2nd Q	3rd Q	p-values
<b>Value</b>							
Rural	333	-0.021	0.030	-0.018	0.197	0.282	0.007
Urban	247	0.028	0.019	-0.147	0.124	0.249	
<b>Commitment</b>							
Rural	333	0.015	0.062	-0.178	0.070	0.823	0.805
Urban	247	-0.020	0.069	-0.823	0.113	0.863	
<b>Rewards</b>							
Rural	333	0.407	0.101	-0.878	0.566	1.933	0.000
Urban	247	-0.549	0.128	-2.104	-0.046	0.938	
<b>Motivation</b>							
Rural	333	0.381	0.071	0.297	0.953	1.031	0.000
Urban	247	-0.513	0.114	-1.099	-0.018	0.963	
<b>Performance</b>							
Rural	333	0.236	0.046	-0.109	0.483	0.828	0.000
Urban	247	-0.319	0.049	-0.783	-0.194	0.214	

loadings below 0.50, so that, the model could be applied to other samples and also because in the overall analysis (N = 580) there were no factor loadings below 0.50, thus indicating that, possibly, there is no metric equivalence between groups, that is depending on the personal characteristics of the respondents, the way to interpret the questions and use the scale may be different.

**Comparison of latent variables:** In Table 3, it can be seen comparisons of latent variables between rural and urban areas. As can be seen, it was found a significant difference ( $p = 0.007$ ) of the values between zones and in the urban area, there were higher scores of the values than in the

countryside. There was no significant difference ( $p = 0.805$ ) of the construct commitment between zones. There was a significant difference ( $p = 0.000$ ) of the reward construct between them and in the urban area, the reward was lower than in rural. There was a significant difference ( $p = 0.000$ ) of motivation between the areas because in urban areas, the motivation was lower than in the countryside. A significant difference ( $p = 0.000$ ) of performance between zones was observed and in urban areas, the performance was lower than in the countryside.

The theoretical and hypothetical structural model is composed by five constructs wherein: values, nine groups were analyzed; motivation, three questions about motivation to work were formulated; commitment: four

Table 4: General structural equations model, region and values multi-groups

Groups	Structural equations	B	EP ( $\beta$ )	p-values	R <sup>2</sup>
General	<b>Motivation</b>				
	Values	0.613	0.174	0.000	0.337
	Rewards	0.425	0.051	0.000	
	<b>Commitment</b>				
	Motivation	0.137	0.032	0.000	0.336
	Rewards	0.237	0.033	0.000	
Urban	<b>Rewards</b>				
	Performance	0.480	0.159	0.000	0.027
	<b>Motivation</b>				
	Values	0.424	0.282	0.133	0.428
	Rewards	0.599	0.086	0.000	
	<b>Commitment</b>				
Rural	Motivation	0.177	0.047	0.000	0.593
	Rewards	0.358	0.053	0.000	
	<b>Rewards</b>				
	Performance	1.173	0.267	0.000	0.135
	<b>Motivation</b>				
	Values	0.644	0.219	0.003	0.222
	Rewards	0.263	0.057	0.000	
	<b>Commitment</b>				
	Motivation	0.156	0.057	0.006	0.283
	Rewards	0.247	0.044	0.000	
	<b>Rewards</b>				
	Performance	-0.137	0.169	0.418	0.010

types of commitment were considered affective, instrumental, normative and professional; performance: goals and conflicts were analyzed and rewards: monetary and non-monetary kinds of reward were considered.

The relationship between commitment and performance is supported by the literature (Bastos, 1993; Mowday, 1999; Stephens *et al.*, 2004) and was statistically removed from the studied structural model in order to make a recursive model (Hair *et al.*, 1999). Thus, we consider accepted the hypothesis 3 ( $H_3$  the commitment is associated with the performance of the individual) proposed by the hypothetical structural model (Fig. 1).

Table 4 presents the general and stratified structural equations model between the groups formed by the regions and by the similarities in values. It can be observed a significant ( $p = 0.000$  and  $0.000$ ) and positive ( $\beta = 0.613$  and  $0.425$ ) influence of values and rewards over motivation. Therefore, the higher the latent variables values and rewards, the greater will be the latent variable motivation. According to  $R^2$ , values and rewards can explain 33.7% of the motivation variability. These data confirm the hypothesis 1 ( $H_1$ , the individual values are associated to your motivation) and corroborate according to Kamakura and Novak (1992), Schwartz (2006, 2012), Locke (2000), Deci and Ryan (2000). Also, it confirms hypothesis 5 ( $H_5$ , the rewards are associated to the individual's motivation) and corroborate according to Armstrong (2007), Vroom (1964), Locke and Latham (1990) and Rodrigues *et al.* (2014).

Considering the whole sample, it can be seen a significant ( $p = 0.000$  and  $0.000$ ) and positive ( $\beta = 0.137$

and  $0.237$ ) influence of motivation and rewards over commitment. Therefore, the larger the latent variables motivation and reward, the greater will be the latent variable commitment. According to  $R^2$ , motivation and rewards are able to explain 33.6% of the commitment variability. These data confirm the hypothesis 2 ( $H_2$ , the motivation is associated to the commitment) and hypothesis 6 ( $H_6$ , the rewards are associated to the individual's commitment with the organization) and supports (Camara, 2006; Armstrong, 2007).

Considering the whole sample, it can be observed a significant ( $p = 0.000$ ) and positive ( $\beta = 0.480$ ) influence of performance over the rewards. Therefore, the greater the latent variable performance, the higher will be the latent variable rewards. According to  $R^2$ , the performance can explain 2.7% of the rewards variability. These data confirm the hypothesis 4 ( $H_4$ , the performance/result achieved is associated to the rewards of the individual) and corroborate according to Vroom (1964), Locke and Latham (1990), Murray and Gerhart (1998), Camara (2006) and Marras (2012).

Considering the whole sample, we ensure that all structural relations are in agreement with the proposed theory. So, the structural model is also consistent with the theory proposed, thus proving the nomological validation of the measurement model.

It is observed in the urban group that values does not significantly influence ( $p = 0.133$  and  $0.141$ ) motivation in the rural group, the performance does not influence ( $p = 0.418$ ) the reward. A likely explanation for this result is that workers from the countryside receive a fixed amount per bag of harvested coffee. When they achieve higher performance (harvesting more coffee bags), the amount paid by the bag does not



Table 5: Adjustments quality of the model

Quality parameters of the adjustment	General	Urban	Rural	Total	Material	Affective	Total
$\chi^2$	620.490	276.280	448.170	724.450	358.810	309.470	962.150
G.L.	164.000	164.000	164.000	328.000	164.000	164.000	492.000
$\chi^2/G.L.$	3.783	1.685	2.733	2.209	2.188	1.887	1.956
CFI	0.911	0.945	0.909	0.923	0.917	0.879	0.896
TLI	0.897	0.937	0.894	0.911	0.904	0.860	0.879
RMSEA	0.069	0.053	0.072	0.065	0.064	0.068	0.070

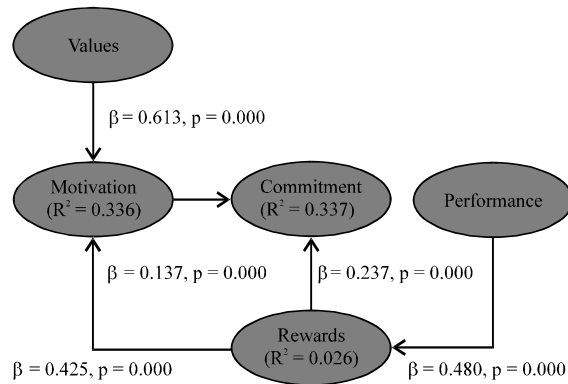


Fig. 2: Structural equations model for the entire sample; research data

change. When applying the structural model in the proposed groups, it appears that some connections did not remain more significant. Thus, even though the model is valid in the overall sample, it is dependent on the group under evaluation. Figure 2 illustrates the structural model tested for the entire sample as shown in Table 4. Table 5 presents the adjustments quality of the model.

It appears that, regardless of groups, CFI ( $>0.84$ ) and RMSEA ( $<0.05$ ) indicators showed satisfactory results of the adjustment quality. The TLI indicator presented satisfactory results in general and in region multi-groups (urban and rural). The  $\chi^2/GL$  indicator had a result below the desired ( $\chi^2/GL < 3$ ).

However, it is known that this indicator is sensitive to the large sample size which is the case in this study with  $N = 580$ . The adjustments quality of the proposed hypothetical model corroborate the nomological validity conclusions of the presented measurement model that, however, it is dependent of specific groups such as the case presented by region.

The researchers of this research ascribe to the model presented in Fig. 1, the name of virtuous circle of professional life. It shows that people are motivated according their personal values and this motivation leads them to commit themselves with their jobs, especially with what they like (affective commitment) which in turn, leads to the search for performance. In this process

if the individual is satisfied with he/his rewards (monetary or non-monetary), that reinforces the individual's motivation and commitment leading to a dynamic course of professional outcome.

The deep changes that companies have been suffering required modern forms of work organization. This study aims to discuss elements that involve decision-making practices and people management processes. The results of this study show that the proposed objective to investigate from a hypothetical structural model how is the association of the constructs values, motivation, commitment, performance and rewards in low-income and low education professionals was achieved, since the results presented by the surveyed sample supported the studied theory.

The integrated participation of individuals in an organization, motivated and committed can contribute to the quality and effectiveness of organizational processes and to highlight the organization with superior results and greater added value. Moreover, there has been a lack of scientific records about the integrated analysis of these constructs and about studies related to the association of these same constructs by professionals of low-income and low education, of the Brazilian countryside, representing more than twelve millions of workers (IBGE, 2010).

The comparison of the latent variables led to the conclusion of the existence, between rural and urban areas of a significant difference in the constructs values, rewards, motivation and performance, apart from the commitment construct. This question leads to relevant managerial implications by showing that professionals from rural and urban areas behave in different ways, according to these constructs studied and it points to the need for such professionals are managed according to their individual characteristics.

The results also indicate that, once known the values and aspirations of its employees, the organizations can identify certain trends of behavior and attitudes because it was found that individuals with different values tend to behave differently. This finding is important because the way workers behave produces significant impact on their performance and consequently on the organizations

performance. Attention should be paid to the results of urban group in which the values do not significantly influence motivation. As human values help to understand the underlying motivation in individual attitudes, these data demonstrated that the individuals in this group are different in the relative importance that they attach to their values. Consistent with this inference, managers need to work on their subordinates the motivation to work, aware that, although the values shape the needs to be met, individuals have different values, priorities and hierarchies. In the rural group, it was demonstrated that the performance does not influence the reward. A likely explanation is that workers from the countryside receive a fixed amount per bag of harvested coffee. Therefore, when they achieve higher performance (collecting more bags), the amount paid by the bag does not change.

Another inference was given by the analysis of structural equations that proved the hypothesis 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6 mentioned in this study. In the total sample, it was shown that: the higher the values and rewards, the greater will be the motivation of the individual; the greater the motivation and rewards, the greater will be the commitment and it was confirmed the significant and positive influence of the performance on rewards.

Another assumption concerns to the sensitivity of the model to the surveyed group, since, the individual differences reflected differently in the model, demonstrating the absence of metric equivalent between the groups. Thus, it was concluded that the interpretation of questions and scale may be different depending on the surveyed group and suggested that the model be applied in different contexts for future comparisons.

### **CONCLUSION**

The study demonstrates the association of the surveyed constructs in an integrated manner, supporting the studied theories. It shows that individuals behave in a different way facing the variables motivation, commitment, performance and rewards, according to individually internalized values and we named this process as virtuous circle of professional life. The results also indicate that it is not possible to manage equally different individuals.

### **SUGGESTIONS**

It is suggested for future research, a longitudinal study in order to analyze this model over the time and apply it to other professional groups in Brazil and in other markets. As this study did not intend to examine the

associations of motivation with the types of commitment (affective, instrumental, normative and with the profession), it is also suggested for future research, the analysis of this relationship.

### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

We appreciate the support of the following agencies and research programs: Propic/FUMEC, Research Program of FUMEC University; Fapemig, State Funding Agency of Minas Gerais and CNPQ, National Counsel of Technological and Scientific Development.

### **REFERENCES**

- Aarabi, M.S., I.D. Subramaniam and A.B.A.A.B. Akeel, 2013. Relationship between motivational factors and job performance of employees in Malaysian service industry. *Asian Soc. Sci.*, 9: 301-310.
- Allen, N.J. and J.P. Meyer, 1990. The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *J. Occup. Psychol.*, 63: 1-18.
- Armstrong, M., 2007. *A Handbook of Employee Reward Management and Practice*. 2nd Edn., Kogan Page, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, ISBN-13: 978-0-7494-4962-9, Pages: 549.
- Aworemi, J.R., I.A.A. Azeez and S.T. Durowoju, 2011. An empirical study of the motivational factors of employees in Nigeria. *Intl. J. Econ. Finance*, 3: 227-233.
- Baruch, Y., 1998. The rise and fall of organizational commitment. *Hum. Syst. Manage.*, 17: 135-143.
- Bastos, A.V.B., 1993. Organizational commitment: An evaluation of the results and challenges surrounding this research tradition. *Bus. Administration J. Sao Paulo*, 33: 52-64.
- Bezerra, A.B., F.P.D.A. Bizarria and M.M. Tassigny, 2014. [Organizational commitment of bank branch staff (In Spanish)]. *RAUnP*, 6: 5-37.
- Blau, G., 2003. Testing for a four-dimensional structure of occupational commitment. *J. Occup. Organiz. Psychol.*, 76: 469-488.
- Camara, P., 2006. *Reward Systems and the Strategic Management of Human Resources*. 2nd Edn., Dom Quixote, Lisbon, Portugal,.
- Deci, E.L. and R.M. Ryan, 2000. The what and why of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychol. Inquiry*, 11: 227-268.
- Efron, B. and R.J. Tibshirani, 1993. *An Introduction to the Bootstrap*. 1st Edn., Chapman and Hall Inc., New York, USA.

- Fornell, C. and D.F. Larcker, 1981. Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *J. Market. Res.*, 18: 39-50.
- Gheno, R. and J. Berlitz, 2011. Strategic remuneration and benefits package: A case study applied at the operational level of a multinational. *UFSM. Manage. Rev.*, 4: 268-287.
- Hair, J., R.E. Anderson, R.L. Tatham and W.C. Black, 1995. *Multivariate Data Analysis*. 4th Edn., Prentice Hall, New Jersey, USA.,.
- IBGE., 2010. [Demographic census 2010: Table 3579-people 10 years of age or older by employment situation in the reference week and the situation of the household]. Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, Brazil.
- Jaros, S.J., J.M. Jermier, J.W. Koehler and T. Sincich, 1993. Effects of calculative, affective and moral commitment on the turnover process: Evaluation of three structural equations models. *Acad. Manage. J.*, 36: 220-224.
- Jensen, D., T. McMullen and M. Stark, 2007. *The Managers Guide to Rewards: What You Need to Know to Get the Best for and from your Employees*. American Management Association, New York, USA., ISBN-13:978-0-8144-0886-5, Pages: 247.
- Kamakura, W.A. and T.P. Novak, 1992. Value-system segmentation: Exploring the meaning of LOV. *J. Consum. Res.*, 19: 119-132.
- Kehelwalatenna, S. and G. Premaratne, 2013. An empirical investigation into the behavior of intellectual capital. *IUP. J. Knowl. Manage.*, 11: 38-57.
- Kumar, S., 2011. Motivating employees: An exploratory study on knowledge workers. *South Asian J. Manage.*, 18: 26-47.
- Liou, S.R., 2008. An analysis of the concept of organizational commitment. *Nurs. Forum*, 43: 116-125.
- Locke, E., 2000. Motivation, cognition and action: An analysis of studies of task goals and knowledge. *Appl. Psychol.*, 49: 408-429.
- Locke, E.A. and G.P. Latham, 1990. Work motivation and satisfaction: Light at the end of the tunnel. *Psychol. Sci.*, 1: 240-246.
- Lut, D.M., 2012. Connection between job motivation, job satisfaction and work performance in romanian trade enterprises. *Econ. Applied Informatics*, 18: 45-50.
- Marras, J.P., 2012. [Remuneration Administration]. 2nd Edn., Pearson Education, Sao Paulo, Brazil, (In Portuguese).
- Medeiros, C.A.F. and L.G. Albuquerque, 2005. Organizational commitment: A study its relations with organizational characteristics and performance in hotel companies. *Psychol. Florianopolis*, 5: 35-64.
- Meyer, J.P. and L. Herscovitch, 2001. Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Hum. Resour. Manage. Rev.*, 11: 299-326.
- Meyer, J.P., T.E. Becker and C. Vandenberghe, 2004. Employee commitment and motivation: a conceptual analysis and integrative model. *J. Applied Psychol.*, 89: 991-1007.
- Mohamed, F., G.S. Taylor and A. Hassan, 2006. Affective commitment and intent to quit: The impact of work and non-work related issues. *J. Managerial Issues*, 18: 512-529.
- Mowday, R.T., 1999. Reflections on the study and relevance of organizational commitment. *Human Resour. Manage. Rev.*, 8: 387-401.
- Murray, B. and B. Gerhart, 1998. An empirical analysis of a skill-based pay program and plant performance outcomes. *Acad. Manage. J.*, 41: 68-78.
- O'Driscoll, M.P. and D.M. Randall, 1999. Perceived organisational support, satisfaction with rewards and employee job involvement and organisational commitment. *Appl. Psychol.*, 48: 197-209.
- Randall, D.M. and M.P. O'driscoll, 1997. Affective versus calculative commitment: Human resource implications. *J. Soc. Psychol.*, 137: 606-617.
- Reis, N.M.T., Z. Kilimnik, E. Melo and K. Theotonio, 2012. [Commitment and performance at work: Analysis at a small retail company (In Portuguese)]. *Micro Small Bus. Mag.*, 6: 18-35.
- Rodrigues, W.A., M.T.R. Neto and C.G. Filho, 2014. Influences on motivation to work in environments with goals and rewards: A study in the public sector. *J. Public Administration*, 48: 253-274.
- Rokeach, M. and J.F. Regan, 1980. The role of values in the counseling situation. *Personnel Guidance J.*, 58: 576-582.
- Rokeach, M., 1973. *The Nature of Human Values*. Free Press, New York, USA., ISBN-13: 978-0029267509, Pages: 438.
- Rosseel, Y., 2012. Iavaan: An r package for structural equation modeling. *J. Stat. Software*, 48: 1-36.
- Satorra, A. and P.M. Bentler, 1994. Corrections to Test Statistics and Standard Errors in Covariance Structure Analysis. In: *Latent Variables Analysis: Applications for Developmental Research*, Eye, A.V. and C.C. Clogg (Eds.). Sage, Thousand Oaks, California, pp: 399-419.
- Schwartz, S.H., 1999. A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. *Applied Psychol.: Int. Rev.*, 48: 23-47.
- Schwartz, S.H., 2006. Basic human values: Theory Measurement and Applications. *French J. Sociology*, 47: 249-288.

- Schwartz, S.H., 2012. An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. *Online Readings Psychol. Culture*, 2: 11-11.
- Shapiro, S.S. and M.B. Wilk, 1965. An analysis of variance test for normality (Complete samples). *Biometrika*, 52: 591-611.
- Somers, M. and D. Birnbaum, 2000. Exploring the relationship between commitment profiles and work attitudes, employee withdrawal and job performance. *Public Personnel Manage.*, 29: 353-366.
- Steel, P. and C.J. Konig, 2006. Integrating theories of motivation. *Acad. Manage. Rev.*, 31: 889-913.
- Steers, R.M., R.T. Mowday and D.L. Shapiro, 2004. The future of work motivation theory. *Acad. Manage. Rev.*, 29: 379-387.
- Stephens, R.D., D.D. Dawley and D.B. Stephens, 2004. Commitment on the board: A model of volunteer directors levels of organizational commitment and self-reported performance. *J. Managerial Issues*, 16: 483-504.
- Vroom, H.V., 1964. *Work and Motivation*. John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, USA.
- Ward, Jr. J.H., 1963. Hierarchical grouping to optimize an objective function. *J. Am. Stat. Assoc.*, 58: 236-244.