

**THE CORRELATION BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND
EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION IN SASOL POLYPROPYLENE
BUSINESS, SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER COMMERCII (BUSINESS MANAGEMENT)

in the

FACULTY OF ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

PRETORIA

September 2007

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Professor Jurie van Vuuren: Thank you for the past few months, for always being there when I needed help. Thank you for your patience, time, and efforts. I was really blessed to have you as my study leader. Thank you.

Rina Owen: Thank you for always for being there, helping me, listening to me and supporting me. Thank you for your patience, time and effort and for letting me know that I can make it.

Paul van Staden: Thank you for your time and effort you took to attend every meeting. Also thank you for making notes for me sometimes.

Dad, Mom, Mia and Amy: Thank you for giving me your strength, patience and love. Thank you for being understanding and supportive. Sorry I took so long.

All employees at Sasol Polypropylene Business in Secunda Plant: Thank you to all the employees at Sasol Polypropylene Business in Secunda Plant who participated in this research. Sorry for the delay of the report as a result of an accident in March which most of the information was stolen. Thank you for making this study possible.

Theunetta Ludike: Thank you for your time, effort and help with the research. Without you, this study would not have been possible.

Johan Meiring: Thank you for all the information regarding Sasol. Thank you for your time and all your help.

John Mokwena: Thank you for your help. Thank you for your time and effort.

Nicol Chang: Thank you for all the support and help and for everything you have done for me. If it were not for me, maybe you could have finished your doctorate long ago!

Michael Naudé: Thank you for spending so much time on the 3D graphs and figures.

Thank you for your support and listening to my complaints all the time.

Jacqueline Du Plessis and Marion Marchand: Thank you for the good work you have done for me. I really appreciate.

ABSTRACT

The globalisation of businesses and the advancement of information technologies have brought changes that are reshaping the world of work. They alter the way business is done, the way employees behave and the way managers manage their employees. Motivating and to retaining employees have become an important and complex task for the managers. The key to performing this task well is to find out more about the factors that motivate employees.

The study aims to establish the correlation between management and motivation of employees. To have a sound human resource management strategy that attracts, retains and motivates the valuable employees, it is important that the managers find out what the employees are looking for from their jobs. The company should constantly assess the employees' motivation levels and also what they need, want or expect from their work.

This study used a questionnaire comprising motivation questions based on Lindner's ten motivational factors and Nelson's ten things to do to motivate today's employees, in order to test the motivational level of the employees at Sasol's Polypropylene Business. After being validated by appropriate statistical methods, the results show that there is a correlation between management and employee motivation. The results are critically discussed in terms of each motivational factors.

Every manager differs in the way he or she manages. The key to motivating

employees and manage them in ways that lead to profits, productivity, innovation, and organisational effectiveness is to understand how to motivate them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND	1
1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM	3
1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY	8
1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN	8
1.5 THEORATICAL FRAMEWORK	9
1.6 KEY CONCEPTS	10
1.6.1 Key concepts ‘motivation’ defined	10
1.6.2 Other key concepts defined	10
1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	11
1.8 SUMMARY	12
2.1 INTRODUCTION	13
2.2 MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES	13
2.3 MOTIVATION	15
2.3.1 Motivation defined	15
2.3.2 Sources of motivation	16
2.3.3 Reasons for employees’ lack of motivation in today’s world	17
2.4 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES	18
2.5 INTEGRATED MODEL OF WORK MOTIVATION	21
2.5.1 Needs: Maslow’s needs hierarchy	23
2.5.2 Values, personality: personality theory	23
2.5.3 Goal choice: Vroom's VIE theory	26

2.5.4 Incentives	28
2.5.5 Goal theory: Goal choice	29
2.5.5.1 Enriching goal-setting theory with time	32
2.5.6 Social-cognitive theory and self-efficacy	35
2.5.7 Goal moderators	36
2.5.7.1 Feedback	36
2.5.7.2 Commitment	36
2.5.7.3 Ability	38
2.5.7.4 Task complexity	38
2.5.8 Goal and efficacy mechanisms: mediators	39
2.5.9 Performance and outcomes	40
2.5.9.1 Rewards	41
2.5.10 Attribution theory	42
2.5.11 Job characteristics theory: satisfaction and dissatisfaction	43
2.5.12 Organisational commitment	46
2.5.13 Distributive and procedural justice theories: equity theory	46
2.5.14 Limitations of the integrated model	49
2.6 INTEGRATING IMPLICIT MOTIVES, EXPLICIT MOTIVES AND PERCEIVED ABILITIES	50
2.6.1 Components of the compensatory model	50
2.7 THE ROLE OF AFFECTIVE EXPERIENCE IN WORK MOTIVATION	54
2.8 MOTIVATING INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS AT WORK	56
2.9 SUMMARY	57
3.1 INTRODUCTION	58
3.2 CHANGES IN THE WORLD OF WORK	58
3.2.1 Changes in the new economy	58

3.2.2 Changes in the organisation	61
3.2.2.1 Externalisation of risks	61
3.2.2.2 Work flexibility	62
3.2.2.3 Teamwork	63
3.2.2.4 Multiculturalism	63
3.2.2.5 Downsizing	64
3.2.3 Changes in today's employees	66
3.3 GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES AND WORK MOTIVATION	68
3.4 RECENT DEVELOPMENTS OF WORK MOTIVATION APPROACHES	70
3.4.1 Belief system of motivation	70
3.4.2 Lindner's understanding of employee motivation	73
3.4.3 CARE model for motivating employees	76
3.4.4 Ten ways to motivate today's employees	77
3.5 SIX RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY	78
3.5.1 Integrate valid aspects of extent theories	79
3.5.2 Create a boundaryless science of work motivation	79
3.5.3 Integrate the general with the specific	80
3.5.4 Include the effect of the subconscious	81
3.5.5 Use introspection	82
3.5.6 Acknowledge the role of volition	85
3.6 STEPS TO MAKING MOTIVATION WORK	85
3.7 SUMMARY	87
4.1 INTRODUCTION	89
4.2 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA	89
4.3 'BEE' IN SOUTH AFRICA	91
4.3.1 The need for economic transformation	92

4.3.2 The objectives of implementing BEE	93
4.3.3 Retaining BEE employees	93
4.3.4 Employee priorities in South Africa for 2006/2007	95
4.4 BROAD-BASED BLACK ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT	96
4.5 SUMMARY	98
5.1 INTRODUCTION	99
5.2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND	99
5.2.1 Background of Sasol Limited	99
5.2.2 Management style	100
5.2.3 Reasons for excellence	100
5.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM DEFINED	100
5.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	101
5.5 RESEARCH DESIGN	101
5.5.1 Questionnaire design	101
5.5.1.1 Survey questionnaire	102
5.5.1.2 Components of the questionnaire	102
5.5.1.3 Pretest of the questionnaire	103
5.5.1.4 Population and sample	104
5.5.2 Data collection	104
5.5.3 Data processing and analysis	105
5.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	105
5.7 SUMMARY	106
6.1 INTRODUCTION	107
6.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS	107
6.2.1 Gender	108
6.2.2 Age	109

6.2.3 Salary per month (after tax)	110
6.2.4 Marital status	111
6.2.5 Number of dependants	112
6.2.6 Department in which working	113
6.2.7 Current position at Sasol	115
6.2.8 Years working for Sasol	117
6.2.9 Home language	118
6.2.10 Education level	119
6.3 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS	120
6.3.1 Factor analysis	120
6.3.1.1 Reliability and validity of the data	124
6.3.2 Mann Whitney U Test: testing of propositions P1 and P2	125
6.3.3 Chi-square analysis: testing of propositions P3 to P7	138
6.4 SUMMARY	148
7.1 INTRODUCTION	151
7.2 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH	151
7.2.1 Demographic survey results	152
7.2.2 Results of the research	153
7.2.2.1 Results of the Mann Whitney analysis	153
7.2.2.2 Results of the Chi square analysis	154
7.2.3 Recommendations to managers	156
7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY	157
7.4 CONCLUSION	158
REFERENCES	160
Appendix A	

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 2.1 An integrated model of work motivation	22
Figure 2.2 Schematic overview of the compensatory model of work motivation and volition	53

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 6-1 Frequency: Gender	108
Table 6-2 Frequency: Age	109
Table 6-3 Frequency: Salary per month (after tax)	110
Table 6-4 Frequency: Marital status	111
Table 6-5 Frequency: Number of dependants	112
Table 6-6 Frequency: Department in which working	113
Table 6-7 Frequency: Current position at Sasol	115
Table 6-8 Frequency: Years working at Sasol	117
Table 6-9 Frequency: Home language	118
Table 6-10 Frequency: Education level	119
Table 6-11 Rotated factor analysis	122
Table 6-12 Mann Whitney Test: management practice	126
Table 6-13 Mann Whitney Test: motivational factors	132
Table 6-14 Chi square test: Gender as independent variable	138
Table 6-15 Chi square test: Department for which the employee works as independent variable	140
Table 6-16 Chi square test: Current position at Sasol as independent variable	142
Table 6-17 Chi square test: Years working at Sasol as independent variable	144
Table 6-18 Chi square test: Education level as independent variable	146

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The world is going through an enormous change. Globalisation of businesses is increasing and information technologies are advancing (Döckel, 2003:5). These major changes are reshaping our world significantly, for better and for worse (Kreitner, 2004:78). They lead to changes in the way business is done, the way employees behave and the way managers manage their employees. For companies to remain successful, they are required to adapt to these changes (Vercueil, 2001:1). The changes that are reshaping the world have altered the way organisations operate and have also led to changes in employee characteristics (Robbins, 2000:21).

Although many theorists believe the changes in the world of work have brought advantages, several believe that the changes have different and disparate impacts on the employees (Davenport, 1997; Drucker, 1998 in Vercueil, 2001:1). However, in contrast with the traditional way of managing, where the structures and the systems were predefined, the new workplace seeks to balance whatever is important for the company and its strategies with whatever is important for the individual employees regarding their life strategies (Trompenaars & Woollimas, 2005:378).

Management in today's world is about management in times of rapid change (Robbins, 2000:3). In today's world, the biggest task of the human-resource manager is to motivate and retain employees. Motivation is a company's life-blood (Sharma, 2006:i). A well-managed company can motivate and retain its employees and hence has the following competitive advantages: reduced turnover; an increase in productivity; reduced absenteeism; increased revenue; and improved performance. However, managers tend to assume that they know what the employees want from their work. This assumption can lead managers into making mistakes while trying to motivate their employees (Simons & Enz, 2006). This study is thus an attempt to help managers to understand the factors that motivate their employees to perform to the best of their ability.

Motivation is the force that makes people choose a particular job, stay with that job, and work hard in that job. The early approaches to studying motivation focused on the different needs of people. These approaches suggested that people tend to be motivated to fulfil unsatisfied needs. In other words, people exert efforts hoping that their needs will be satisfied. Other approaches to studying motivation tended to focus more on goal setting by employees. More recent approaches are concerned more with long-term goals, a sense of fairness, and the employees' values, or in other words, what the employees perceive as important. Employees are not simply need-based. They interpret work based on their lives, their cultural values, their levels of success, and the levels of satisfaction that they have already achieved (Simons & Enz, 2006).

Since the 1930s, work motivation has been of interest to the industrial/organisational psychologists, stimulated mainly by the famous Hawthorne studies, and followed by studies by Vroom, Herzberg, Bandura, Skinner and many more. However, the study and understanding of work motivation is far from complete (Locke & Latham, 2004:388). The aim of this study is to help organisations to adapt to changes in the world of work with the aid of the existing motivation theories.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

To address the issues of the human resources in any company is not an easy task. The employees today are working to meet their needs and achieve their own goals (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:10); they no longer want to have a long-term relationship with the company. On average, employees used to have three or four jobs during their careers, but now this number has increased to seven or eight. This number grows as people become more mobile (Gubman, 2003:32). Jovanovic (Döckel, 2003:9) pointed out in a survey done by the Institute for Democracy in South Africa that 13 percent of the professionals surveyed would probably leave the country within the next five years as a result of the increase in the rate of crime.

Effective human resource management reduces employee turnover (Rijamampianina, 2001:1). To decrease the turnover rate, managers should understand what the employees are looking for in their jobs. In other words, managers should understand the things that motivate employees to work.

The following propositions will thus be tested in this research:

P1: There is no significant difference between highly motivated, motivated, and not motivated employees regarding **management practice**, with reference to the following variables:

- P1a: interesting work;
- P1b: good wages;
- P1c: appreciation for job well done;
- P1d: job security;
- P1e: good working conditions;
- P1f: promotions and growth in the company;
- P1g: feeling of being in on things;
- P1h: personal loyalty to employees;
- P1i: tactful discipline;
- P1j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

P2: There is no significant difference between highly motivated, motivated, and not motivated employees regarding **motivational factors**, with reference to the following variables:

- P2a: interesting work;
- P2b: good wages;
- P2c: appreciation for job well done;
- P2d: job security;
- P2e: good working conditions;

- P2f: promotions and growth in the company;
- P2g: feeling of being in on things;
- P2h: personal loyalty to employees;
- P2i: tactful discipline;
- P2j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

P3: There is no significant difference in motivation between **male and female** employees regarding the following variables:

- P3a: interesting work;
- P3b: good wages;
- P3c: appreciation for job well done;
- P3d: job security;
- P3e: good working conditions;
- P3f: promotions and growth in the company;
- P3g: feeling of being in on things;
- P3h: personal loyalty to employees;
- P3i: tactful discipline;
- P3j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

P4: There is no significant difference in motivation between the employees working in **different departments** regarding the following variables:

- P4a: interesting work;
- P4b: good wages;

P4c: appreciation for job well done;

P4d: job security;

P4e: good working conditions;

P4f: promotions and growth in the company;

P4g: feeling of being in on things;

P4h: personal loyalty to employees;

P4i: tactful discipline;

P4j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

P5: There is no significant difference in motivation between the employees working in **different positions** regarding the following variables:

P5a: interesting work;

P5b: good wages;

P5c: appreciation for job well done;

P5d: job security;

P5e: good working conditions;

P5f: promotions and growth in the company;

P5g: feeling of being in on things;

P5h: personal loyalty to employees;

P5i: tactful discipline;

P5j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

P6: There is no significant difference in motivation between the employees' **years of working** at Sasol regarding the following variables:

- P6a: interesting work;
- P6b: good wages;
- P6c: appreciation for job well done;
- P6d: job security;
- P6e: good working conditions;
- P6f: promotions and growth in the company;
- P6g: feeling of being in on things;
- P6h: personal loyalty to employees;
- P6i: tactful discipline;
- P6j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

P7: There is no significant difference in motivation between the employees with **different levels of education** regarding the following variables:

- P7a: interesting work;
- P7b: good wages;
- P7c: appreciation for job well done;
- P7d: job security;
- P7e: good working conditions;
- P7f: promotions and growth in the company;
- P7g: feeling of being in on things;
- P7h: personal loyalty to employees;

P7i: tactful discipline;

P7j: sympathetic help with personal problems.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

This study investigates those motivational factors identified by Nelson (2003) and Lindner (1998) that were regarded by the researcher as important. These factors have a significant influence on the quality of the employees' work. The purpose of the study is to test how important these motivational factors are in relation to management and employee motivation. Since companies that fail to motivate and retain their valuable employees can suffer, this study will help managers to understand the needs of their employees and hence maximise employee effectiveness and efficiency in order for the company to gain a competitive advantage.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Once a literature study has been done, a questionnaire will be designed. The questionnaire will then be distributed among the employees in Sasol's Polypropylene Business in Secunda in South Africa. In the questionnaire, open-ended questions will be used to determine the level of motivation among the employees. The questionnaire will then be validated by using appropriate statistical methods which include item analysis, factor analysis, analysis of variance, the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient and Chi-square analysis.

1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Employee motivation is influenced by the employee himself or herself, the management and the environment. Motivating the employee is the manager's job (Birkin, 2006:40). It is therefore the manager's job to understand what motivates the employees. Based on Locke and Latham's integrated model of work motivation, various theories of work/employee motivation will be discussed, including Maslow's need hierarchy, McClelland's personality-based approach to employee motivation, Vroom's VIE theory, Locke and Latham's goal theory, Bandura's self-efficacy theory, Weiner's attribution theory, Herzberg's job characteristics model, the organisational commitment theory and Adam's equity theory. These theories attempt to explain employees' behaviour. They provide understanding to both managers and employees of how to motivate others and/or become more involved in one's own motivation (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:273).

Green's belief system of motivation, Glanz's CARE model for motivating employees, Lindner's approach to understanding employee motivation, and Nelson's ten ways to motivate today's employees are some newer approaches to employee motivation and will be discussed in the literature study. The important motivational factors identified by Nelson and Lindner will be discussed in detail and will also be used as the foundation for setting up the questionnaire for the research.

Locke and Latham (2004:388) mention that all of the above theories have limitations and criticisms. Their six recommendations for possible directions for future research on motivation will also be discussed.

1.6 KEY CONCEPTS AND THEORIES

1.6.1 The key concept ‘motivation’ will be defined in the study.

1.6.2 The following key concepts relating to work motivation and relevant work motivation theories, based on Locke and Latham’s integrated model of work motivation, will be discussed in this study:

- Needs
- Values and personality
- Personality theory
- VIE theory
- Incentives
- Self-efficacy
- Goal choice
- Goal and efficacy mechanisms
- Goal theory and social-cognitive theory
- Goal moderators
- Performance and outcomes
- Attribution theory
- Job characteristics theory
- Satisfaction and dissatisfaction
- Organisation policies and procedures
- Distributive and procedural justice theory
- Organisational commitment

1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 discusses the problem area, employee motivation, the aim of this research, and description of the theoretical framework.

In Chapter 2 the key concept ‘motivation’ is defined. The chapter emphasises the importance of managing human resources and stresses the importance of work motivation in the workplace. Locke and Lathams’ integrated model of work motivation is used as the literature background of this study and numerous influential work motivation theories are discussed.

Chapter 3 describes the impact that the changes in the world of work have had on the work environment, the organisation and the employees. Approaches from recent developments of work motivation will also be introduced. The motivators derived by Nelson (2003) and Lindner (1998) serve as the foundation for the questionnaire used in this research. The six recommendations by Locke and Latham for increasing the knowledge and understanding of employee motivation in the twenty-first century are discussed.

Chapter 4 describes the influence that apartheid has had on managing human resources in South Africa. Human resource management in South Africa and the policies being implemented will be discussed.

Chapter 5 describes the design of the questionnaire and research method used in this research. Chapter 6 contains the results obtained from the research. The interpretation, conclusions and recommendations are presented in detail. Recommendations for further studies are made in Chapter 7.

The thesis concludes with the references and Appendix, in which the questionnaire used is set out.

1.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, employee motivation was introduced as a key factor for companies to gain a competitive advantage. The problem area and the purpose of this study were clarified. The content of the study was discussed briefly.

CHAPTER 2

INFLUENTIAL THEORIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter emphasises the importance of managing human resources and employee motivation in the workplace. Work motivation theories, based on the integrated model of work motivation by Locke and Latham, are discussed in depth.

2.2 MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES

“Human resource management is the use of several activities to ensure that human resources are managed effectively for the benefit of the individual, society and the business (Schuler, 1995 in Schuler, 1998:122)”. Managing human resources effectively has become a fundamental for companies in today’s business world (Schuler, 1998:122). Human resources management positively affects lower-level employees through: improved productivity; improved quality of their work life; increased company’s legal compliance; gained competitive advantages; and assured workforce flexibility (Schuler, 1998:126).

Businesses today have entered a new era in the relationship between the companies themselves and their employees. The companies can no longer see their employees as either their loyal family members or as easily replaceable company resources. In this new era, employees need to be respected and like to be treated as valuable human capital, as

even more important than the company's financial capital. Employees are now becoming the main source of a company's competitive advantage. Therefore, how a company treats its employees increasingly determines whether a company is going to thrive or even to survive (Lawler, 2003:3). As Lawler (2000:3) says, "in the twenty-first century, treating people right is not an option; it is a necessity". In other words, the way a company manages its workforce determines its ability to establish and maintain a competitive advantage over other companies (Dreher & Dougherty, 2002:8).

In the present competitive job market, the only differentiator between competitors is the quality of the people working in the organisation (Whiteley, 2002:24). To retain and develop an organisation's human resources in order to gain competitive advantage is one of the core themes in human resource literature (DeYoung, 2000; Storey, 1992 in Döckel, 2003:14). A well-managed company can retain and motivate its employees, and hence has the following advantages: reduced turnover; increased productivity; reduced absenteeism; increased revenue; and improved performance.

Companies need to attract and retain talented employees (Pittorino et al., 2005:11), therefore understanding what motivates employees has become an essential requirement for today's managers. As Hughes (2003:17) states in *Women in Business*: "There's often a single element that differentiates companies with cohesive teams from those suffering high rates of dissatisfaction and turnover". That key factor is motivation – an important aspect of successful management that can both maximise productivity and foster a positive corporate culture.

2.3 MOTIVATION

2.3.1 Motivation defined

Everyone has motives that are inspired by certain factors that encourage the desire to enhance performance (Kressler, 2003:1). Motive literally means the mainspring and the rationale behind any action (Kressler, 2003:1). The word *motivation* is derived from the Latin word ‘*movere*’, which means ‘to move’ (Kretiner, 1998 in Ramlall, 2004:53).

Motivation has been defined as: an internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need (Higgins, 1994 in Lindner, 1998:2); a predisposition to behave in a purposeful manner to achieve specific, unmet needs (Buford, Bedeian, & Lindner, 1995 in Lindner, 1998:2); the psychological forces that determine the direction of a person’s behaviour in an organisation, a person’s level of effort, and a person’s level of persistence in the face of obstacles (Jones & George, 2004:405); the force an individual has that accounts for the direction, level and persistence of his or her effort expended at work (Schermerhorn et al., 2003:102); and the processes that account for an individual’s intensity and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal (Robbins, 2005:170). The concept of motivation overlaps with the concept of morale, meaning the extent to which the employee feels positive or negative about his or her work (Gary, 2004:123). The level of motivation varies between individuals and within individuals at different times and in different situations (Robbins, 2005:170).

2.3.2 Sources of motivation

All motivation ultimately comes from within a person. In other words, all motivation is self-motivation. Freemantle (2001:53) interviewed one of the team leaders at a medical-care insurance who said, “I’m self-motivated.... I find it stimulating when I’m doing new things I’ve never done before. I like to use my brain. I dislike doing the same things day in and day out; repetitive work”. The CEO of Finlay Commercial Real Estate Company in South Africa, Lynette Finlay, points out that motivation comes when the employees are able to see the purpose and reason for the direction in which the company is heading and can recognise their roles in the business process (Koeman, 2006:17).

Freemantle (2001:53) emphasises that people are already motivated. However, differences exist because we are motivated more or less as a result of the ups and downs in life and what we encounter in the world that is beyond our control. Furthermore, if a person is demotivated, it is because that a person’s mind chooses to be demotivated, whether consciously or subconsciously (Freemantle, 2001:54). Motivation is therefore about what a person wants and about his emotional state, which drives him in the direction of achieving what he wants (Freemantle, 2001:56).

Sources of motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic (Jones & George, 2004:405). Intrinsically motivated behaviour is behaviour that is performed for one’s own sake and extrinsically motivated behaviour is performed to acquire rewards or to avoid punishment. A manager can thus try to stimulate the employee’s intrinsic motivation, but cannot create the intrinsic motivation for that employee. This implies that, for example, a

manager should rather try to find out what factors will drive the employee to smile at the customer, than simply tell the employee to smile at the customer (Freemantle, 2001:62).

2.3.3 Reasons for employees' lack of motivation in today's world

Managers today complain that their employees are no longer motivated to work. However, it is often the managers and organisational practices that are the problem, not the employees. When there is a lack of motivation, the problem usually lies in one of the following areas: poor selection; unclear goals; an inadequate performance-appraisal system; unsatisfactory reward systems; or the manager's inability to communicate the appraisal and reward systems to the employees properly (Robbins, 2003:36).

A lack of motivation occurs when the employees see a weakness in one of three relationships. The first of these is the relationship between the employees' effort and their performance. Managers must make sure that the employees believe that if they exert maximum effort in performing their jobs, it will be recognised in their performance appraisal. However, in most cases, the employees do not believe that their efforts will be recognised. If this is the case, it could lead to a lack of motivation (Robbins, 2003:36).

Secondly, the relationship between the employees' performance and organisational rewards is important. Managers must make sure that the employees believe that if they get a performance appraisal, it will lead to organisational rewards. Many employees see this relationship as weak because the organisation does not give rewards just on their performance, so there is a lack of motivation (Robbins, 2003:37).

The third important relationship is the one between the rewards received and the rewards desired. The managers must know whether the rewards the employees receive are the ones they desire. Some employees might want a promotion but instead get a pay rise, or vice versa. Sometimes the managers assume that all employees want the same reward and so fail to notice the motivational effects of individualising rewards. If this is the case, employees' motivation is likely to suffer (Robbins, 2003:38).

Thus to keep employees motivated, managers must strengthen these three relationships. If any or all of these three relationships are weak, the employees' efforts are likely to suffer. When these relationships are strong, the employees tend to be motivated, so the company is likely to gain competitive advantages through human resources (Robbins, 2003:36).

Motivation needs to be long lasting and reinforced by rewards and praise. Motivation needs to be maintained by managers to ensure a high level of performance and productivity, and to create a working environment where employees will have positive attitudes, commitment toward their work and, most importantly, the belief that they are not only valued but of crucial interest to the company (Sutherland & Canwell, 2004:183).

2.4 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

The theories of motivation attempt to explain people's behaviour. They provide understanding to both the managers and the employees of how to motivate others; how others are trying to motivate a person; and how that person can engage more in his/her

own motivation effort and others' efforts in trying to motivate him/her (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:273).

The topics of motivation and satisfaction have been studied by industrial-organisational psychologists for several decades, but progress has been slow for several reasons. Firstly, work motivation and satisfaction have been considered to be relatively independent; however, it has proven to be extremely difficult as the two topics are connected. Secondly, it has been found that the related theories have only focused on specific aspects. Lastly, both motivation and satisfaction are highly complicated (Locke & Latham, 1990:3).

Interest in studying work motivation was stimulated in large part by the Hawthorne studies conducted by Frederick Taylor in the late 1930s (Locke & Latham, 2004:388). These studies investigated the effect of working conditions on employee productivity (Sonnenfeld & Myatt, 1998:72). The finding in these studies was that employees are not motivated by money only and that employee behaviour is linked to their attitudes (Dickson, 1973 in Lindner, 1998:2). After the publication of the Hawthorne studies' results, the needs and motivation of employees became the primary focus of managers and researchers (Terpstra, 1979 in Lindner, 1998:1).

The concepts of motivation were developed mostly in the 1950s (Robbins, 2005:170). Several new models of work motivation emerged, which collectively have been referred to as content theories. They all aim to identify factors associated with motivation (Steers et al., 2004:381). Theories developed in this era are Maslow's need hierarchy theory and

McClelland's theory of needs, which was firstly introduced by Murray (1938 in Steers et al., 2004:381). While Maslow and McClelland focused on the role of individual differences in motivation, Herzberg's hygiene theory studied how work activities and the nature of the job can influence motivation and performance. Subsequently, Hackman and Oldham have extended the research to job design, motivation and job performance, while others focus on task-based intrinsic and extrinsic factors in work motivation (Steers et al., 2004:381).

In the beginning of the 1960s a new approach to work motivation, called process theory, emerged. It focused on the processes underlying work motivation. Process theorists see work motivation from a dynamic point of view and search for causal relationships related to human behaviour in the workplace. Central to process theory is a series of cognitive theories that attempt to understand the thought processes that people have when determining how to behave in the workplace (Steers et al., 2004:381). The best known of the cognitive theories is probably the expectancy theory derived from the early work of Lewin and Tolman. Vroom presented the first systematic formulation of expectancy theory (which will be discussed in detail later in this chapter). Porter and Lawler then expanded Vroom's work to recognise the importance of individual differences and linked job effort to job performance. A number of significant cognitive theories, each with its own focus, have been developed since the 1960s, for example Adam's equity theory (Steers et al., 2004:382).

Goal-setting theory also emerged in the late 1960s. Research showed that goal specificity, goal difficulty and goal commitment are closely related to task performance. Locke and Latham also proposed a formal theory of goal setting. Finally, leading researchers such as Bandura developed significant theories focusing on the role of social cognition and self-efficacy on behaviour and job performance (Steers et al., 2004:382).

All of these theories, however, have limitations and shortcomings. Some are still useful, while some are not applicable in today's world (Locke & Latham, 2004:389). Locke and Latham (2004) thus created an integrated model of work motivation.

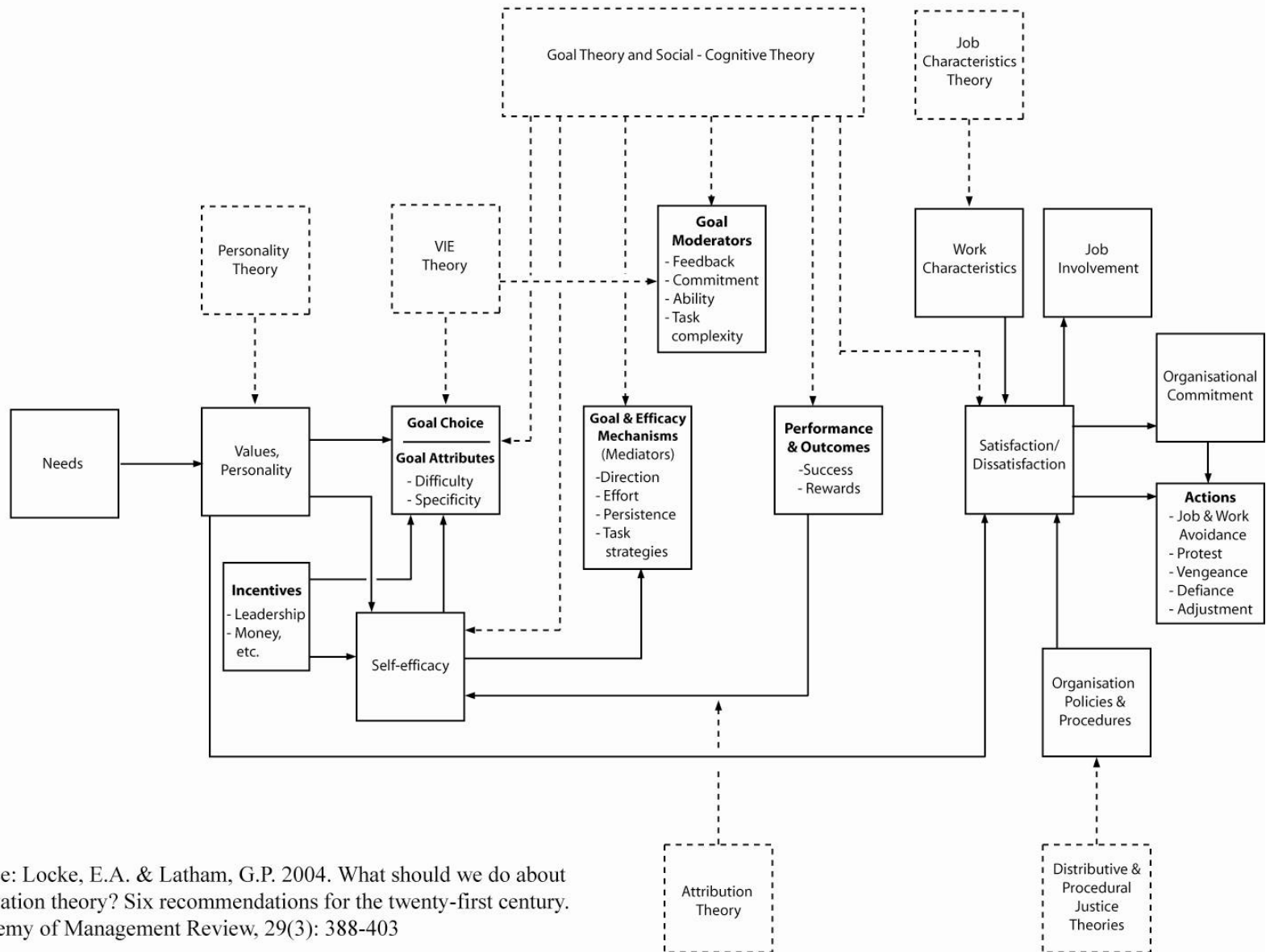
2.5 INTEGRATED MODEL OF WORK MOTIVATION

The integrated model of work motivation, by Locke and Latham, forms the theory foundation for this study. It is shown in Figure 2.1 below.

The model shows that a person's needs affect his values and personality, which affect his choice of goals and his satisfaction or dissatisfaction, determining his actions. A person's choice of goals can be understood through the study of goal theory and social-cognitive theory. Goal effects are enhanced by goal moderators. Goals affect performance while performance determines rewards.

The elements of the model and the various related theories will be discussed in depth.

Figure 2.1 An integrated model of work motivation



Source: Locke, E.A. & Latham, G.P. 2004. What should we do about motivation theory? Six recommendations for the twenty-first century. Academy of Management Review, 29(3): 388-403

2.5.1 Needs: Maslow's needs hierarchy

The first item in the integrated model is 'needs', since motivation starts with needs (Locke & Latham, 2004:391). Maslow developed one of the best-known motivational theories - the hierarchy of needs (Buhler, 2003:20). A need is something that a person requires. Satisfaction occurs when needs are fulfilled, and motivation is the attempt to satisfy a need (Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2002:234).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs consists of five levels that are generally depicted as a pyramid. Listed from the lowest level of needs to the top, they are the following: physiological needs; security needs; ego needs; esteem needs; and self-actualisation needs (Lindner, 1998:1). The key to Maslow's theory is that once a particular level of need is satisfied, it then stops being a motivating force. The person then seeks a higher level of need satisfaction. The theory also indicates that money's power to motivate a person is limited (Drummond, 2000:63).

Maslow's theory can be a useful tool for managers in determining the kinds of rewards that could be effective in motivating employees. The key is to recognise every employee as an individual and also to remember that employees' needs differ from time to time. Therefore it is the manager's duty to regularly reassess the employees (Buhler, 2003:20).

2.5.2 Values, personality: personality theory

According to the integrated model, 'needs' lead to one's values and personality. Maslow's need theory suggests that people value what they need (Locke & Latham,

2004:391), while personality is a comprehensive construct and motivation is a fundamental aspect of behaviour. Stagner, a personality trait theorist, suggested that, “We cannot ... understand personality without understanding motivation” (Pervin, 1993:71). Motivation is an individual characteristic, but it arises from both within the individual, for instance personality, and environmental conditions. Several personality traits are relevant to job performance and may affect the individual’s ability to perform a task (Spector, 2000:225). This shows how closely personality and motivation are related. The theories of personality are therefore in large part motivation theories (Ewen, 1980:5).

Personality can be defined as an individual’s behavioural and emotional characteristics that are found to be stable over time and in various situations (Landy & Conte, 2007:90). The Five Factor Model (FFM) proposes that one’s personality can be described in terms of five relatively independent factors: conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability and openness to experience. These five factors were identified in a way that, when taken together, give a fair representation of how one responds to situations and people (Landy & Conte, 2007:100). Judge and Ilies (2002 in Landy & Conte, 2007:339) completed a meta-analysis on motivation and personality. They examined the relationship between the Big 5 personality traits and some indicators of motivation from several motivational theories. The results showed that a strong and consistent relationship exists between personality characteristics and performance motivation.

Apart from the five factors from FFM, one should also consider the following five factors

when integrating personality with motivation (Landy & Conte, 2007:339). This is one of the shortcomings of Locke and Latham's integrated model of work motivation (Locke & Latham, 2004:391).

- Skills. These are practiced acts. Skills can be developed with the presence of certain abilities, personality characteristics and knowledge.
- Knowledge. Knowledge can be defined as 'a collection of discrete but related facts and information about a particular domain. It is acquired through formal education, training or past experiences' (Peterson et al., 1999 in Landy & Conte, 2007:107). Knowledge is closely related to skills.
- Experience. Experience is the participation or observation of events and activities that serves as a basis for knowledge. Individuals differ in knowledge and in experience. Although experience does not always lead to tacit knowledge; tacit knowledge depends on experience.
- Competencies. Competencies are a set of behaviours learned from experience that are instrumental in the accomplishment of desired organisational outcomes. Unlike abilities and personalities, competencies can only have meaning in the context of organisational goals.
- Emotional Intelligence (EI). This is a proposed kind of intelligence focused on one's awareness of one's own and others' emotions.

Personality-based approaches to motivation have always had strong supporters (Locke & Latham, 2004:389). McClelland and his colleagues made the strongest case for the role of

personality in motivation (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986:18). McClelland developed a theory based on the needs listed by Murray in the 1930s: the need for achievement, which is the need to perform something difficult; the need for affiliation, which is the need to incorporate with others; and the need for power, which is the need to control the activities of others (Foster, 2000:306).

The status of McClelland's theory is however questionable. It is unclear how some of the measures in this theory correlate with one another and how motives have been translated into goals. Locke and Henne (1986 in Foster, 2000:307) state that 'achievement theory at this point can only be described as in a state of chaos'. Rollinson et al. (1998 in Foster, 2000:307) also point out that McClelland's claim that people's need for achievement can be trained, is inconsistent with the assumption that needs are acquired in one's childhood.

The connection between personality and motivation is an important one. Past theories give little emphasis to the differences between individuals – they tend to take the one-size-fit-all approach. Kanfer and Ackerman (2004 in Landy & Conte, 2007:340) propose that motivation and performance can actually change over time since one's personality and cognitive abilities change with time.

2.5.3 Goal choice: Vroom's VIE theory

As the integrated model in figure 2.1 indicates, one's values and personality contribute to goal choice, which is influenced by incentives and self-efficacy (Locke & Latham,

2004:391). The way in which goals, rewards or outcomes affect motivation is encompassed in Vroom's theory.

Vroom developed a complex mathematical model to explain motivation in the workplace (Green, 2000:i), known as the expectancy theory. It is one of the most widely accepted motivational theories. Although there has been criticism of the expectancy theory, the proof is still supportive of the theory (Robbins, 2005:189).

Expectancy theory explains how rewards lead to behaviour by focusing on internal cognitive states that lead to motivation (Spector, 2000:182). The theory assumes that people think about what they are doing, what they are getting, and its worth (Edwards, 1999:385). The idea of this theory is that the individual will be motivated when he or she believes that their behaviour will lead to desired rewards or outcomes. If the individual does not believe that his or her behaviour will lead to the desired outcomes or rewards, he or she will not be motivated to perform. Also, if he or she does not want the outcomes or rewards, then he or she will not be motivated to perform the behaviour (Spector, 2000:182).

Vroom's theory posits that motivation is a mathematical function of three types of cognitions. The equation as following:

$$Motivation = Expectancy \times \sum (Valences \times Instrumentalities)$$

Three major elements that determine a person's motivation are: *valence*, which is defined as the measure of the value of the outcome of work (Edwards, 1999:385); *expectancy*, which is one's belief about the possibility of a particular outcome; and *instrumentality*, the probability belief linking one outcome to another (Ramlall, 2004:56).

Expectancy theory explains that an employee is willing to perform with a high level of effort when he or she believes that this will lead to desired rewards (Robbins, 2005:189). This theory is well accepted for two main reasons. Firstly, it is logical to think that employees will not be motivated by things they do not wish to have. Secondly, this theory works in conjunction with the other motivational theories. For instance, recognition is also pointed out by Herzberg's theory, while status is mentioned by Maslow (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:287).

2.5.4 Incentives

There are generally two reasons why people do things: either because they want to or because they have to (Gray, 2004:18). Most people would agree that the reason they work is to obtain money; however, this is not always the only reason. Money is not really what people want – they want the things that money can buy. Also, whereas in the past employees were considered as just one of the inputs into the production process, most employees today want to feel that their work makes a difference (Anon., 2004:2).

Drafke and Kossen (2002:293) identify several reasons why people ask for money as a reward for working. Money is:

- Traditional. This has to do with the way people are brought up and with societal expectations. We often hear of employees asking their manager for a raise in salary as a reward, instead of for something that is not monetary, for instance, better working conditions or more satisfying assignments.
- Tangible. Money is something that can be seen by the employee himself or herself, and also by others.
- Objective. Employees also ask for money because the amount they receive is easily measurable and visible.
- An objective reward. People often feel foolish when asking for the more subjective alternatives to money, for instance less stressful work or more feedback.
- Symbolic. More money represents more success or achievement. The amount of money an employee receives can indicate how well he or she is doing at work, and is sometimes an indication of a person's self-worth.

Money can thus be a very important factor but it does not solve all the problems (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:292).

2.5.5 Goal theory: Goal choice

Goal theory and social-cognitive theory also affect one's choice of goals (Locke & Latham, 2004:391).

Goal-setting theory is probably the theory of motivation that has been most useful to psychologists. The principles of the theory have been widely used in organisations (Spector, 2000:189).

Locke (1968 in Martin, 1998:150) suggests that the intentions people have play an important role in formulating their behavioural patterns. The basic idea of goal-setting theory is thus that people's behaviour is motivated by their intentions, objectives and goals. According to the theory, a goal is what an individual wants to achieve or attain (Spector, 2000:189). Goals are a major source of motivation (Robbins, 2000:416), so goal setting is an important part of most motivational programmes and managerial methods of motivating employees (DuBrin, 2000:301). Goals can be specific or general, difficult or easy (Spector, 2000:189). Specific goals lead to better performance; difficult goals, when accepted, will lead to even better performance. In this theory, the specificity of the goal acts as an internal stimulus (DuBrin, 2000:31).

However, it is difficult for goals to direct employees' behaviour unless they receive feedback (Spector, 2000:190). Feedback regarding goals will result in higher performance than when the feedback is absent. In other words, employees do best when they receive feedback on how well they are heading towards their goals. Feedback shows employees the difference between what they have done and what they want to achieve (Robbins, 2000:416). Self-generated feedback, where employees monitor their own progress, has proven to be a more powerful motivator than externally generated feedback (Robbins, 2000:416).

Expectancy theory also emphasises the importance of goal setting in motivating employees. Research has proved that when a person commits himself or herself to a goal,

he or she is highly motivated to achieve it. The reason for this could be that the person's self-esteem and sense of self-worth are involved in achieving the goal. Expectancy theory argues that when a goal is too difficult, the employee might see a low probability of achieving the goal. This would diminish the employee's motivation to achieve the goal (Lawler, 2003:49).

On the other hand, some evidence shows that the more difficult the goal, the greater the sense of accomplishment and achievement the employee feels when the goal is achieved. Thus employees might tend to be more motivated to achieve difficult goals than easy ones, even if the probability of achievement is low. In this case, the manager should direct the employee in the right direction for achieving the difficult goal in order to prevent cheating, unethical behaviour or the falsification of performance measures (Lawler, 2003:50).

Goal-setting studies point out that goals motivate employees for several reasons. Firstly, a goal directs an employee's attention to a specific target, so the employee exerts efforts in a specific direction toward achieving that specific target. Secondly, a challenge goal, which requires repeated effort, encourages persistence. Lastly, because the goal creates a gap between the reality and the desired, it fosters the creation of strategies and courses of action (Kreitner, 2004:434).

Although researchers have proved that goal-setting theory can be effective, some researchers have begun to notice its limitations. Yearta et al. point out that most goal-

setting studies involve single goals, and that when goals are more than one and are more complex or difficult, performance is poorer (1995 in Spector, 2000:190).

2.5.5.1 Enriching goal-setting theory with time

Time is an important factor in people's lives, both at and outside work. Time is significant to one's past and present experiences, and also to one's future plans and life expectations. Work motivation theories have, however, generally failed to incorporate time as an important variable that affects one's motivation to work (Fried & Slowik, 2004:404).

As discussed previously, goal-setting theory states that expectancy, instrumentality, and valence will be high if goals are difficult, challenging, specific and achievable (Fried & Slowik, 2004:406). The theory further states that one's commitment is important to maximise the relationship between goal and performance. Finally, timely feedback is necessary for successful attainment of the goal.

One time-related issue that is discussed in goal-setting theory is that of a deadline, which defines when the task needs to be completed. The idea is that a deadline serves as a tool for time control and increases the motivational effect of goals. In other words, when the available time is longer than needed to complete the task, the individual tends to slow down activity to fill the available time. In contrast, when the deadline is closer, one tends to work faster (Fried & Slowik, 2004:407). Research has found that insufficient time

before a deadline can lead to less effective performance, especially when performing complex tasks.

Another-time related issue is that one's failure or success in achieving present goals influences one's future choice of goals. Several studies have suggested that previous performance is an indicator of future goal choice. Furthermore, goal-setting theory and related research suggests that people tend to prioritise goals based on their importance. An important issue that also needs to be addressed is how time affects the choice and selection of multiple goals and how these goals relate to each other across time (Fried & Slowik, 2004:407). Finally, goal-setting theory suggests that people work longer on challenging goals. A number of studies have supported this suggestion. However, similar to other motivational theories, goal-setting theory has failed to address the potential effect that time has on the major components of the theory - goal difficulty, goal attainability, and goal specificity (Fried & Slowik, 2004:407):

- Time and goal difficulty. The idea that difficult and challenging goals lead to higher work motivation and performance than simpler goals, as long as they are attainable, may not always be true, but it may be contingent on the time context in which the particular goal is being performed. Control theory suggests that behaviour is complicated and can be explained by hierarchies of feedback loops. In such hierarchies, performing one goal successfully may be part of the input to a higher order goal. For example, in the workplace, employees may use clock time as a basis for performing sequential goals that have different levels of difficulty.

They may work hard for less challenging goals if they see the accomplishment of these simpler goals as a step in performing more challenging and difficult goals in the future (Fried & Slowik, 2004:408).

- Time and the attainability of goals. Goal-setting theory states that for goals to be motivational, they must not only be challenging and specific but also achievable. Again, the relationship between goal achievability and employee motivation and effort may be influenced by time. Employees may be given risky goals with a low possibility of achievement, which would cause low employee motivation. For example, an individual might be asked to be involved in innovative operations, where both the processes of achieving a product and the time frame are uncertain. The probability of successfully producing a new product is obviously low (Fried & Slowik, 2004:407).
- Time and the choice of specific goals versus ‘do your best’. Goal-setting theorists emphasise that goals that are difficult, attainable and specific will lead to higher performance. However, they have also realised that, when tasks are complex, the ‘do your best’ approach is more likely to bring better performance than the specific approach. This is probably because it requires more cognitive input from the individual when asked to attain a specific difficult goal in a complex task than when asked to do his or her best (Fried & Slowik, 2004:416).

2.5.6 Social-cognitive theory and self-efficacy

Social-cognitive theory is very broad in scope because its domain is much wider than that of work motivation. Bandura's concept of self-efficacy has been found to be the most powerful regarding motivation effects on task performance (Locke & Latham, 2004:388). Self-efficacy is the belief in one's capability to perform a specific task or reach a specific goal. It relates to one's confidence in one's ability or the likelihood that one will be able to perform a difficult task successfully. This term is becoming important in most modern theories of work motivation (Landy & Conte, 2007:355).

Expectancy and self-efficacy play an important role in the high performance cycle. High expectancy and self-efficacy lead to high levels of goal commitment (Locke & Latham, 1990:10). According to Bandura (Landy & Conte, 2007:356), individuals arrange goals from most immediate to most distant. Immediate goals give the individual a sense of satisfaction, increase feelings of self-efficacy and also help him or her to maintain interest in the task. These goals facilitate the progress toward distant goals. Individuals are constantly monitoring their behaviour and reviewing whether the behaviour is moving them closer or further away from their goals. If an individual is making progress towards his or her goals, the level of satisfaction increases and the feeling of efficacy will also be higher. This can lead the individual to set higher goals (Landy & Conte, 2007:356).

Bandura proposed that motivated behaviour involves a cycle of setting difficult and challenging goals, monitoring and reviewing the progress and success of meeting the

goals, then setting new, more difficult and challenging goals, where the cycle starts again (Landy & Conte, 2007:357).

2.5.7 Goal moderators

The effects of goals on motivation are enhanced by goal moderators. Locke and Latham (2004:391) have identified the following four goal moderators: feedback; commitment; ability; and task complexity.

2.5.7.1 Feedback

Research has shown that goal setting without the presence of feedback is ineffective. Goal setting and feedback together lead to improved performance. Goals direct one's actions while feedback tracks the progress of those actions in relation to the goal. When an individual works towards a goal and is told that he is behind schedule, he tends to work harder, hence performance is improved; whereas an individual who is told that he is on target tends not to improve performance (Locke & Latham, 1990:9).

2.5.7.2 Commitment

Challenging goals lead to high performance only if the individual commits to them. An individual's commitment tends to decline as goal difficulty increases, so performance decreases rather than increases. There are at least four factors affecting goal commitment: legitimate power or authority; peer influence; individual's expectancy; and rewards or incentives (Locke & Latham, 1990:7):

- Authority. Jones and George (2003:48) define authority as “the power to hold people accountable for their actions and to make decisions concerning the use of organisational resources”. Authority gives managers the right to achieve organisational goals through directing and controlling employee behaviour (Jones & George, 2003:48). Goals that are assigned by the person with authority over the individual tend to become the individual’s personal goals. With regard to commitment, there is no difference between goals assigned by the authority figure and goals set by the individual in a participative manner, providing the goals are reasonably explained and the individual is supported by the authority figure (Locke & Latham, 1990:7).
- Peer influence. Peer influence, especially peer pressure and modelling, also affects goal commitment. Peer pressure is known to encourage commitment. Strong group norms also induce commitment, giving little difference in productivity among group members. There will be higher commitment to individual goals if both group goals and individual goals are assigned for a group task than if only individual goals are assigned (Locke & Latham, 1990:8).
- Expectancy. The individual’s expectancy of being able to reach the goal or perform at a high level affects commitment. According to Vroom’s expectancy theory, goals that are moderate or easy are more likely to be accepted than goals that are difficult, although a high degree of commitment can be engaged for a short time for goals that are hard to reach. Individuals usually prefer moderate

goals. However, the employee might still be motivated to achieve a difficult goal if two conditions are met: firstly, the connection between rewards and achieving the difficult goal is clear; secondly, the reward for achieving the goal is large (Lawler, 2003:49). The choice of goals can also be influenced by previous or current goals assigned (Locke & Latham, 1990:8).

- Rewards or incentives. Goal commitment is high when an individual works to achieve a goal that is seen as instrumental in gaining other valued outcomes. Verbal appraisal is found to be especially powerful in motivating. Commitment is measured to be higher when a reward is offered for partial success than when only full success is rewarded (Locke & Latham, 1990:9).

2.5.7.3 Ability

Obviously, whether a person is capable of meeting a goal or not is determined by his or her ability (Locke & Latham, 1990:6). Goal-setting studies have proved that the relation between goal difficulty and performance can be limited by a person's ability. There is also evidence that goal setting has a stronger effect on people with higher ability than on people with lower ability (Locke & Latham, 1990:7).

2.5.7.4 Task complexity

There are three dimensions of task complexity: component complexity, meaning the elements in the task; coordinative complexity, meaning the number and nature of the

relationships between the elements; and dynamic complexity, meaning the number and types of elements and the relationships between them over time.

Research has found that the effect of goals is significantly larger with less complex tasks than with more complex tasks. Evidence shows that with highly complex tasks, the individual who has no previous experience and is told to perform well rather than told to ‘do your best’, may perform poorly (Locke & Latham, 1990:10).

In summary, a specific challenging goal can be attained the best when the individual has the ability, is committed to the goal, gets feedback on progression in relation to the goal and has high expectancy to perform the task well, and the task is simple (Locke & Latham, 1990:11).

2.5.8 Goal and efficacy mechanisms: mediators

Goals also affect performance through their effects on mediators: direction, effort, persistence and, indirectly, task strategies (Locke & Latham, 2004:391). Wood and Locke (1986 in Locke & Latham, 1990: 12) define three mediators or mechanisms that help the individual to attain goals: direction of attention; effort; and persistence. These correspond to the three attributes for motivated action: direction, intensity and duration. This simply means that an individual can perform better if he or she pays attention to the task, puts effort into it and persists over a period of time. Goals direct an individual's attention to the task or activities specified by the goal, with the result that he or she will focus less on the goal's irrelevant tasks or activities (Locke & Latham, 1990:11).

With regard to task persistence, when an individual is given a goal, he or she will most likely continue working until the goal is reached. If there are no time limits to achieving the goal, the individual will work longer for a harder goal than for an easier goal. The individual will also spend more time preparing to perform if the goal requires a high-performance standard than if it requires a low-performance standard (Locke & Latham, 1990:12).

Goals can also influence performance indirectly by motivating the individual to develop task-specific strategies. There are, broadly speaking, two types of task-specific strategies:

- Stored task-specific strategies. These are learned either through instructions given or through practice. Such strategies can be performed automatically when the individual performs similar or relevant tasks.
- New task-specific strategies. When stored task-specific strategies fail as a result of a task being new or differences in task situations, the individual will develop new-task specific strategies to adapt and to cope with the new situation. There is no guarantee that the individual will always choose the right or appropriate task strategies, but goals may guide the individual (Locke & Latham, 1990:12).

2.5.9 Performance and outcomes

There are three basic types of objective outcome measurements in the workplace that can be used to guide performance: quality of production, for instance the amount produced or the number of mistakes; money, such as profit and loss; and time, including attendance and deadlines for tasks. When objective outcome measurements are not available, behavioural measurements can be used. These can be made by observing the individual. If desired behaviours are demonstrated frequently, desirable outcomes will be attained more easily (Locke & Latham, 1990:13).

2.5.9.1 Rewards

When rewards are given to those who achieve high performance, they can become an important instrument to encourage the continuance of the desired behaviour (Locke & Latham, 1990:13). In the workplace, external rewards include incentives, benefits and other monetary forms of rewards. Such external rewards are often used as motivators by managers. However, Herzberg argues that motivation comes from work itself and these external rewards are merely just satisfiers or dissatisfiers (Bowen, 2000:179). Managers who feel that their employees have a lack of motivation should reassess the reward systems being used in the company (Robbins, 2003:61).

Managers must maintain a balance between the employee's base pay, benefits and other external rewards. These provide employees with a reward programme that is fair, competitive and measurement-based. Once employees are motivated, they will be able to fulfil the customers' needs and together achieve the company's goals (Bowen, 2000:182).

However, not all rewards are external. Internal rewards can occur as a result of a sense of accomplishment, attaining a level of excellence and success or making progress towards a goal. Higher satisfaction is experienced when the success is attributed to the individual her or himself rather than to external factors. Difficult goals may lead to higher levels of satisfaction than easier goals because they are attained less frequently (Locke & Latham, 1990:13). Research has been done on how rewards affect employee performance. The most popular model is Vroom's expectancy theory that was discussed earlier (Cummings & Worley, 2001:211).

2.5.10 Attribution theory

According to Locke and Latham's model, attribution theory should also be considered when studying performance. Attribution theory suggests that motivation is a response by the individual to a self-perception of their behaviour (Martin, 1998:151). Its emphasis is on the ways that the attributions an individual makes about his or her own or other's performance, affect that individual's subsequent choices and actions (Locke & Latham, 2004:388).

Attribution theory does not identify the actual cause of the behaviour; it provides the cause of the behaviour from the perceiver's point of view (Martin, 1998:49). Kelley is credited with developing the theory of attribution that provides views of the attribution process (Miner, 2005:187). Co-variation is the central principle of Kelley's theory. A causal relationship exists between two events when they occur at the same time. If a particular outcome only occurs when a specific situation exists, then the situation is said

to co-vary with the effect. Kelley suggests that individuals tend to identify co-variance relationships through a number of ways (Martin, 1998:46):

- Distinctiveness. Did the behaviour only occur when performing this specific task and not others?
- Consistency. How consistent is this behaviour with the other behaviour of the individual?
- Consensus. Is the behaviour unique to this individual or has it been widespread among others? (Miner, 2005:187).

Later, Weiner developed a framework to distinguish different types of attribution and therefore appropriate response behaviours (Martin, 1998:48): the individual's ability; the individual's effort level; the difficulty of the task to be performed; and luck. Achievement-motivated individuals attribute their success to their effort and hard work and their failures to their not having tried hard enough. If they fail, they tend to try again because they believe that they can succeed with greater efforts. In contrast, individuals with a low need for achievement see effort and hard work as irrelevant. They attribute their own failures to other factors and view their success as due to luck or the easiness of the task (Miner, 2005:186).

2.5.11 Job characteristics theory: satisfaction and dissatisfaction

While one's needs, values and personality can affect one's choice of goal and performance, one's satisfaction or dissatisfaction depends on the job itself and the organisation.

Job satisfaction is typically defined as an individual's level of positive affect toward his or her job or job situation (Jex, 2002:116). It has been one of the most popular topics in the research of organisational psychology, with interest in its components, measurements, causes and consequences (Spector, 2000:316). Job satisfaction can be seen as the result of a positive appraisal of the job against an individual's value. Satisfaction is experienced when a job is appraised as fulfilling or as facilitating the individual in attaining value; dissatisfaction is experienced if the job is appraised as blocking or moving the individual away from attaining value (Locke & Latham, 1990:16).

In the 1960s the hypothesis that states that “easy and routine work bores and dissatisfies people” was widely accepted. Making the job more complex and meaningful was thought to be the way to improve employees' job satisfaction (Spector, 2000:205). Frederick Herzberg was the first to focus on key characteristics of jobs that make jobs more meaningful and hence give satisfaction (Spector, 2000:205). Later, Hackman and Oldham developed the job characteristics model, which has led to much empirical research (Algera, 1990:85). The model does not only establish the correlations between attributes of the job or the individual and job satisfaction or job performance, it also emphasises the need to establish the related psychological variables (Foster, 2000:314).

There are five core job dimensions in this model (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005:220):

- Skill variety is the extent to which the jobs require the use of a number of different skills and talents.

- Task identity is the extent to which the jobs require the completion of a whole task.
- Task significance is the degree of impact the jobs are believed to have on others both inside and outside the organisation.
- Autonomy is the extent to which the jobs provide freedom and independence at the workplace and in allocation of tasks.
- Task feedback is the extent to which the jobs provide clear and direct information on the tasks performed.

According to the model, any job has a potential motivating score (MPS), which is calculated as follows (Spector, 2000:316):

$$MPS = (skill\ variety + task\ identity + task\ significance) / 3 \times autonomy \times feedback$$

Another component of the model is employee growth-need strength (GNS), meaning that individuals differ in terms of how far they want to ‘grow’. People with higher GNS are likely to respond more positively to a job high in motivating potential (Spector, 2000:315).

The job characteristics model deals with aspects of jobs that can be changed or improved to have positive motivational incentives for the employee (Spector, 2000:315). Locke and Henne (1986 in Spector, 2000:316) state that the theory shows consistent validity with

regard to job satisfaction: perceptions of the five core job dimensions do correlate with measures of satisfaction.

2.5.12 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is strongly related to job satisfaction. According to the work of Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993 in Spector, 2000:217), organisational commitment can be based on any one of the following three components: affective commitment, which happens when an individual wishes to stay within an organisation as a result of an emotional attachment; continuance commitment, which exists when an individual needs to stay within an organisation because he or she needs the salary and cannot find another job; and normative commitment, which occurs when an individual feels he or she owes the organisation and feels that staying with the organisation is the right thing to do. People with low commitment are more likely to leave their job than those with high commitment (Spector, 2000:217).

2.5.13 Distributive and procedural justice theories: equity theory

An organisation's policies and procedures and their fair application or execution also influence the employee's level of satisfaction.

Managers and employees share the responsibility for solving performance problems (DuBrin, 2000:416). This may mean that an employee needs to be disciplined in some way at some time. Every company has a structure of justice in which they should exercise rules and procedures; it is unfortunately part of the manager's role to use harsh or

unpopular actions in certain situations. In general, discipline can be divided into two types:

- Summary discipline. This is the immediate discharge of an employee as a result of a serious offence, for example stealing, fighting or using or selling illegal drugs in the company. In a unionised company, the company and the union will have a written agreement.
- Corrective discipline. This gives employees the chance to correct their behaviour before serious punishment is applied. In this case employees will be reprimanded for their unsuitable or unacceptable behaviour, after which they must take corrective steps if they still want to work for the company.

Employee discipline should be applied immediately after the occurrence of inappropriate behaviour. The employee should receive a warning and the punishment should be immediate, consistent and impersonal (DuBrin, 2000:418).

Discipline may have its side effects. The employee being punished might become anxious, fearful or even violent. However, recent research suggests that punishment can also benefit a company. The key factor is whether employees get the rewards or punishments they deserve or not. If rewards and punishments are applied correctly, employees will feel that the company is fair, and the company can promote vicarious learning, in other words learning through other employees (DuBrin, 2000:419).

People develop a feeling of relative fairness in the treatment that they receive at work. The main source of this feeling is the perceived treatment of other people. This is the basis for the equity approach to motivation (Martin, 1998:148). The equity theory of work motivation comes from the balance theories of social psychological theory. Balance theories assume that people have a set of beliefs in which they strive to maintain a balance. Imbalance is a source of motivation to achieve balance (Edwards, 1999:374).

Like Vroom's VIE theory, Adam proposed that people are calculators, but in a different way to that proposed by Vroom (Landy & Conte, 2007:347). Adam's equity theory is probably the most thoroughly developed statement on how people evaluate a social exchange relationship (Steers, 1983 in Ramlall, 2004:55). Equity theory states that people are motivated to achieve a condition of equity or fairness in dealing with the people at work and the organisation (Spector, 2000:186). The major elements of the social exchange relationship in the equity theory are input and outcome (Steers, 1983 in Ramlall, 2004:55). People calculate how much they are investing in their work (e.g. training, effort) and what they are getting out of it (e.g. compensation, promotion) (Landy & Conte, 2007:347).

Inputs are the factors being brought into the job and include effort, skills, education, training, experience and seniority. Outcomes represent the results of working at the job and include feelings of accomplishment, pay and benefits and social status of the job (Edwards, 1999:374). Employees compare their outcome-input ratio with those of the

other employees. A state of equity exists when the ratio of one employee is equal to that of other employees. When this happens, fairness has been achieved (Robbins, 2005:186). However, tension is created when the employee realises inequality in the ratio relative to others. This tension serves as the basis for motivation (Robbins, 1993 in Ramlall, 2004:55). When employees are under-rewarded, this tension creates anger. When employees are over-rewarded, this tension creates guilt. Adams states that the negative tension gives the employee the motivation to do something to correct it (Robbins, 2005:186).

Therefore, according to Adams, organisations should develop reward systems that are seen to be fair and equitable, and use a reward system consistent with what the employees believe their value to be to the organisation (Ramlall, 2004:55).

2.5.14 Limitations of the integrated model

The numerous limitations of the integrated model of work motivation by Locke and Latham should be considered:

- Some arrows are omitted to limit cognitive-perceptual overload. For example, the relationship between perceived justice and goal commitment is omitted, while there is no indication that personality can affect job satisfaction.
- There are several theories not fully elaborated, aside from goal theory. For example, there are sub-theories and complexities involved in procedural justice.

- Recursive-effect arrows are not shown, except the arrow shown between self-efficacy and performance. The model is static, not dynamic. In real life, almost any output can become an input.
- Ability, knowledge and skills, abbreviated as KAS, are significant to performance. They are the abilities needed to perform (Dreher & Dougherty, 2002:26), yet they are not shown in the model.
- The model focuses on conscious motivation and leaves out the sub-conscious.
- The model does not take doubtful or highly limited theories into consideration.

2.6 INTEGRATING IMPLICIT MOTIVES, EXPLICIT MOTIVES AND PERCEIVED ABILITIES

Why do some people reach their goals easily while others equally skilled fail? Why do individuals sometimes not like the goals they voluntarily set? These questions are of theoretical and practical relevance. Kehr (2004:479) has developed a compensatory model of work motivation and volition to provide answers to these questions. The model explains the interrelations and interactive effects of the determinants of work motivation – implicit motives, explicit motives and perceived abilities. The model is a synergistic approach to work motivation which intends to clarify, challenge and extend existing approaches (Kehr, 2004:480).

2.6.1 Components of the compensatory model

A person is a complex system composed of several subsystems. Research assumes that implicit and explicit motives drive, direct and select behaviour.

- Implicit motives are related to basic organismic needs and unconscious needs. In general, implicit motives are not consciously reachable. They are subconsciously stimulated and lead to affective preferences and implicit desired behaviour. Implicit motives often result in pleasurable behaviour (Kehr, 2004:480).
- Explicit motives are the reasons why individuals self-attribute for their behaviour. Unlike implicit motives, explicit motives are consciously accessible and can be assessed with questionnaires such as the Personality Research Form. Explicit motives are strongly influenced by social demands and normative pleasures. Also, explicit motives are particularly influential in measuring cognitive choices (Kehr, 2004:481).
- Perceived abilities are defined as an individual's perception of the amount of actual control he or she can exercise over the environment (Kehr, 2004:481).

Implicit motives are stimulated by factors intrinsic to the activity, whereas explicit motives are stimulated by factors extrinsic to the activity. In contrast to explicit motives, implicit motives are built on associations with intrinsically triggered affective experiences, called 'natural incentives'. Implicit and explicit motives have different effects on behaviour. On a proximal level, stimulated implicit motives lead to affective preferences, for example, "I like this person"; and implicit behaviour impulses, for example, "I want to spend more time with this person". In contrast, activated explicit

motives lead to cognitive preferences, for example, “I want this good job”; and explicit action tendencies, for example, “I will try to persuade my manager to promote me”. Although implicit and explicit motives are conceptually independent determinants of behaviour, they may nonetheless interact. McClelland et al. (1989 in Kehr, 2004:483) suggest that explicit motives may channel the way in which implicit motives are expressed. Research on the relationship between implicit motives and perceived abilities is little simply because perceived abilities are a by-product of past behaviour. As an isolated factor, perceived abilities have no motivational significance. For behavioural relevance, perceived abilities are combined with implicit and explicit motives. For instance, there is no use in telling a person who is afraid of water to swim (Kehr, 2004:484). When there are discrepancies between implicit and explicit motives, volitional regulation is needed to compensate for insufficient motivation. When implicit and explicit motives are congruent, no volitional regulation is needed (Kehr, 2004:485).

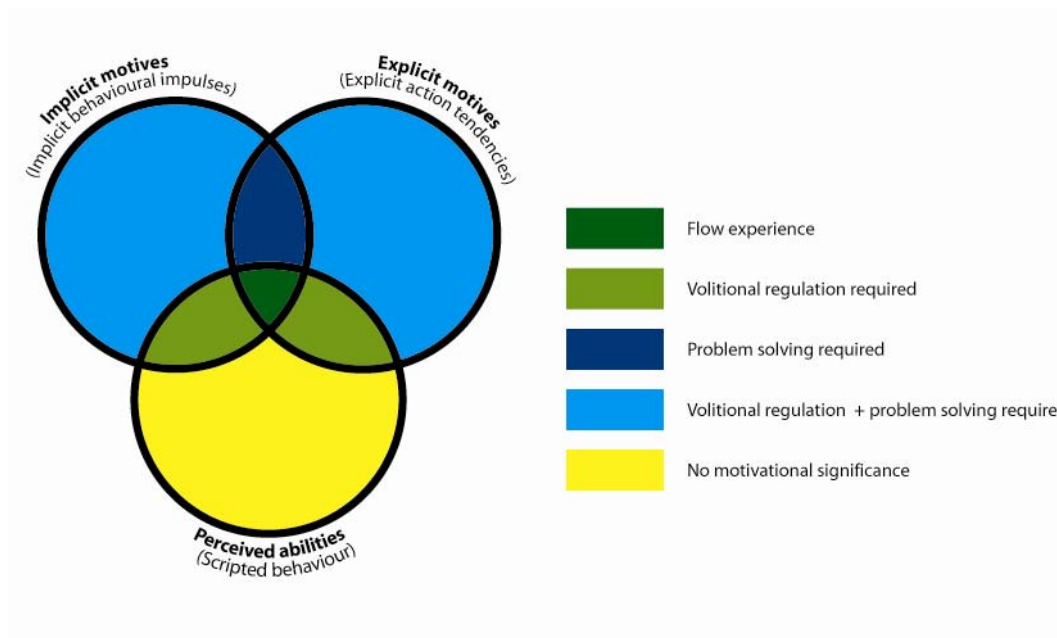


Figure 2.2 Schematic overview of the compensatory model of work motivation and volition

Source: Kehr, 2004: 479–496

Figure 2.2 is a schematic overview of the compensatory model of work motivation and volition by Kehr (2004). The three structural components of the model – implicit motives, explicit motives and perceived abilities – are represented by three circles. The circles are partially overlapping to indicate the empirical relationships of the components. Similarities between implicit and explicit motives initiate compatible implicit behavioural impulses and explicit action tendencies, related to intrinsic motivation and requiring no decision-making support. The centre of the figure shows the similarities of all three components representing flow experience. The non-overlapping parts of the figure show situations where two of the three components of motivation are lacking. Explicit action

tendencies of explicit motives are not supported by perceived abilities. Both problem solving and decision regulation are hence required. This decreases the possibility of successful accomplishment because of the limitations of attentional ability. Implicit behavioural impulses of the implicit motive circle could be linked with intrinsic motivation, but are volitionally covered up because of their inconsistency with cognitive preferences. Chances of filled up implicit motives that fall into this part are further decreased, because they also require problem solving. Perceived abilities in the perceived abilities circle have no similarities with implicit or explicit motives, hence will not prompt behaviour (Kehr, 2004:490).

Kehr's compensatory model of work motivation and volition combines three previously unrelated approaches to human motivation: dual system theory, volition theories and perceived abilities theories. The basic idea of the theory is that volitional regulation balances out insufficient motivation due to discrepancies between implicit and explicit motives. Problem solving which sharply contrasts with volition balances out insufficient perceived abilities (Kehr, 2004:494).

2.7 THE ROLE OF AFFECTIVE EXPERIENCE IN WORK MOTIVATION

Theories of motivation began to develop after the 1930s, focusing on psychological processes. Yet emotion has not been the main focus of any existing organisational theories of work motivation that provide explanations of how and why people behave the way they do in their workplaces (Seo & Barrett, 2004:423). Recent scholars have proved that human emotion is likely to influence the processes underlying motivation and also

that emotion plays an important role in influencing human thought and behaviour. Emotion is a complex term – scholars disagree on how it should be defined. Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999 in Seo & Barrett, 2004:424) offer the concept of ‘core affect’ as a useful unit of analysis of emotion-related phenomena. They define core affect as ‘momentary, elementary feelings of pleasure or displeasure and of activation or deactivation’. Core affect is part of all emotion-related concepts that describe what theorists mean when they refer to feelings, activation, affect or mood.

Seo and Barrett (2004:424) propose that indirectly, core affective feelings of pleasure or displeasure and activation or deactivation affect work motivation in three ways. Firstly, core affective feelings of pleasure and displeasure may influence one’s choice of behaviour. Individuals in positive affective states are more likely to behave generatively, focusing on exploring and obtaining expected desired outcomes, whereas individuals who are in negative affective states are more likely to prevent possible occurrence of negative outcomes and hence show defensive behavioural orientations. Secondly, the activation and deactivation aspect of core affective experiences are more likely to positively influence the strength aspect of work motivation, in other words, the amount of effort that has been put in. Pleasant feelings might have additional motivational implication for effort exerted by promoting more positive outcome expectations and therefore a higher goal level and thus stronger commitment. Finally, core affective feelings influence the persistence of behavioural outcomes. Pleasant core affective feelings are most likely to strengthen the length of a current course of action, whereas negative core affective feelings may lead to modification of behaviour (Seo & Barrett, 2004:433).

2.8 MOTIVATING INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS AT WORK

Work motivation theorists examine the factors that energise, direct and sustain work-related behaviour. They aim to understand which conditions encourage people to invest energy in their work, which the activities people like to focus their efforts on and the factors that make people persist with their efforts over time. This has resulted in the development of various work motivation models. These models focus mainly on individuals' needs, their own independent goals and expectations, or their personal desired outcomes. They are used to understand the processes underlying the behaviour of the individual as separate agents. However, employees are not driven by personal considerations only (Ellemers et al., 2004:459). Employees nowadays work more in teams than they did before, which involves supporting each other to achieve common goals instead of focusing on personal achievement. Employee motivation is adapted to the needs, goals, expectations and rewards of the team or the organisation where the employees work (Ellemers et al., 2004:460). As Ellemers et al.(1999 in 2004:460) mention, 'As organisations continue to move toward group-based systems, research on motivation within groups is increasingly important'.

The proportion of people working in teams has steadily increased in the past few decades. Team work may offer opportunities for job enrichment, give autonomy to employees, decrease the workload of supervisors and enhance performance on difficult or complicated tasks. However, there are also disadvantages to employees working in teams. People tend to exert less effort when performing a collective task than when they perform

the same task individually. This phenomenon is called the Ringelmann effect or ‘social loafing’ and is presumably because of loss of motivation. Solutions for social loafing involve making the work situation less social by treating the team members as individuals. This can be done by making each team member’s contribution identifiable or by helping the individuals to see how their contribution to the team can offer them personal valued outcomes (Ellemers et al., 2004:470).

2.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the key concept *motivation* was defined. Locke and Latham’s integrated model of work motivation was used as a foundation to discuss the relevant motivational theories. The issue of explicit and implicit motives, the role of affective experience in work motivation and the difference between motivating an individual and the groups were addressed. In the next chapter, the influence that the changes in the world of work have on employee motivation and the recent developments in theories of work motivation are discussed.

CHAPTER 3

RECENT DEVELOPMENT OF WORK MOTIVATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

While theoretical development on work motivation may have declined in recent years, the world of work has changed dramatically and rapidly (Steers et al., 2004:383). This chapter describes the enormous changes the world of work is going through, and includes factors influencing the motivation of today's employees, to serve as guidelines for management today.

3.2 CHANGES IN THE WORLD OF WORK

3.2.1 Changes in the new economy

Managing in today's world is about managing in times of rapid change (Robbins, 2000:3). There is a shift from manufacturing to services, globalisation of businesses is increasing and information technologies are advancing (Döckel, 2003:5). One of the most important factors that accelerated the pace of change in organisations was the shift by Western nations towards low-inflation economies at the beginning of 1990s. Another factor has been the reduction in tariff barriers and the movement towards free trade agreements (Hunt, 2003:4). The lowering of trading barriers allows companies to see the whole world, rather than a single country, as their market (Hill, 2002:9). Companies are motivated to expand their market beyond the national borders to gain competitive advantages over their competitors (Robbins, 2000:5).

Hill (2002:5) refers to globalisation as a shift in the global economy from national economies to a more integrated and interdependent global economic system. Globalisation is bound to continue. A product, a service or an idea that shows up in New York one morning could easily be in Tokyo that same afternoon (Kangis, 1998:21). While many economists, politicians and business leaders think that globalisation stimulates economic growth, raises the income of consumers, and creates job opportunities in the countries that participate in the global trading system (Hill, 2006:26), some companies have suffered and struggled in competing on the complex global stage (Lawler, 2003:6). Globalisation has its own disadvantages, such as job losses in industries that are competing with foreign competitors; multinational companies; lowered wage rates for the unskilled employees; and environmental degradation (Hill, 2006:26).

While the lowering of trading barriers made globalisation theoretically possible, technological advancement has made globalisation a tangible reality (Robbins, 2000:5). In the late 1990s, at a time when new technologies were coming to the fore, it was believed that such technology was changing the rules of the marketing and employee relationship (Whiteley, 2002:26). Recent decades have seen major advances in communications, information processing and transportation technology (Hill, 2002:10). With the advancement of technology, entire industries have had to rethink their strategies of how to do their business (Lawler, 2003:7). The digital revolution has resulted in developments in the way in which work is carried out in and between organisations (Hunt, 2003:5). Burack and colleagues (1994 in Döckel, 2003:5) mention that one of the

changes the information era has brought about is motivating managers to fit their organisational culture, organisational structure and management processes to the external environment. The demand for technological knowledge has also put pressure on employees everywhere. Today's employees are required to be highly skilled at managing information, developing knowledge and dealing with new concepts. It has become very clear that employees who cannot keep up with the scientific and technological changes will quickly lose their value as employees (Lawler, 2003:7).

There are two major impacts that the information era has had on approaches to motivation in companies. Firstly, automation of the routine administrative tasks has taken place. Companies are introducing intranet-based personnel record systems into which employees enter their own data, which can then be processed automatically. Since this reduces the interactions between managers and the employees, it could endanger relationships and have a negative effect on employee motivation. However, the automation of administrative tasks does speed up the way of doing things in companies (Whiteley, 2002:26).

The second impact of the information era has been the creation of a new business culture. The information era has given rise to the establishment of long-term partnerships between manufacturers, retailers, distributors and other firms in the supply chain. To keep everyone in business, firms are more motivated and committed to teamwork and information sharing (Whiteley, 2002:26).

After integrating computer software with business, the manager of Natural Stone Warehouse, Guillaume Masson, said that the right information systems have simplified the company's internal business processes and added value to employee motivation by empowering the branches to function in the same way as the head office. When information system was properly implemented, the company realised greater efficiency for their employees, which in turn improved productivity (Microsoft, 2006).

3.2.2 Changes in the organisation

The above section describes the changes that are reshaping today's economy. These changes have also affected today's organisations. Understanding these changes could help managers to minimise the negative effects and to capitalise on the positive effects that the changes are having on the company (Gebelein et al., 2004:132).

3.2.2.1 Externalisation of risks

Companies in the 1960s and 1970s owned and controlled the business as much as they could. IBM was one of the examples. To maintain maximum control over the operation, the company created centralised departments to monitor the decisions made by the lower management levels. Two of the disadvantages of this strategy are exposure to business risks and inflexibility. To overcome this, companies today externalise risks by outsourcing (Robbins, 2000:11). Outsourcing occurs when a company contracts outside companies to provide resources or services (Robbins, 2000:12). However, the company should take care not to lose its strategic skills or advantages (Rothery, 1998:149). With outsourcing, companies are able to focus on their strengths and emphasise their core

competencies. Companies have now recognised the importance of leasing or buying services or products from other companies when striving to meet cost-reduction and growth objectives (Robinson & Kalakota, 2005:295).

3.2.2.2 Work flexibility

As Locke and Latham (2004:391) indicate in their integrated model of work motivation, it is important to understand employees' needs. Flexible benefit programmes, flexible working hours, family-friendly programmes and bonus pay are designed to motivate employees to be satisfied and become high performers (Boone & Kurtz, 1999:308). Working-time flexibility refers to management's use of variable working hours to meet the company's demands (Blyton, 1998:749). The practice of flexible working is becoming more popular for economic, industrial and social reasons. The growing globalisation requires companies to operate in different time zones around the clock; customers are demanding later opening hours and greater accessibility, especially from the service and retail sectors; competitive pressures in the manufacturing sectors require expensive equipment to operate for the maximum period to save costs; and there is a stronger need for both men and women to balance their family and work life (Finn, 1998:1027). There has been a great deal written and spoken about work and life balance in recent years (Johnson, 2004:59). Research suggests that helping employees to balance their work and family life can result in better performance; increase productivity and reduce absenteeism; while the company can recruit and retain skilled employees more easily (Robbins & Decenzo, 2001:62).

3.2.2.3 Teamwork

Effective teamwork has been a key factor in business success (Gray, 2004:116). Today, a lot of managers use teams to solve problems, generate ideas and complete jobs (Javitch, 2006:21). As described in Chapter 2, teamwork offers opportunities for job enrichment, gives autonomy to employees, decreases the workload of supervisors and may also enhance performance on difficulty or complicated tasks (Ellmers et al., 2004:470). *Team* is defined by Thiagarajan and Parker (1999:v) as “a group of people with a high degree of interdependence geared toward the achievement of a goal or the completion of a task”. Employees working in teams help to increase flexibility in companies. A recent survey shows that 73 percent of the companies in the United States have some of their employees working in teams (Robbins, 2000:19). Employees lose sight of the big picture when they are divided into departments. When employees work in teams, both horizontal and vertical hierarchical barriers are broken down, allowing the company to respond faster to changes and permitting better coordination in activities between departments (Robbins, 2000:19). Since unclear or misleading directions usually cause team failure, managers need to communicate the vision, mission and the values clearly to the employees when organising teams (Davidson, 2005:149).

3.2.2.4 Multiculturalism

Multiculturalism is another issue that is reshaping the workforce. Globalisation has encouraged immigration (Robbins, 2000:7). Workforce diversity is changing companies today and the workforce will become even more diverse in the next twenty years (Tosi & Mero, 2003:7). Diversity seems to be growing in the business world, although it has

always been there (Hopkins, 1998:51). Having a variety of different talents to use and being able to improve market understanding are some of the main benefits of managing diversity. Cross-cultural teams can create problems in terms of language differences and the different ways of communicating, but can also be more creative (Rees & Porter, 2001:95).

3.2.2.5 Downsizing

Another issue to be addressed is downsizing. Downsizing is a management practice in which companies reduce the size of a company by laying off employees. The focus may be monetary costs, time costs, or technological costs (Cameron, 1998:55). This management strategy has becoming popular, but management's motivation for this is not always obvious. Some critics believe that downsizing is a way for management to show the stockholders that there is a need to keep costs down. Supporters of this strategy argue that employee reductions are needed to maintain competitiveness in the fast-changing global marketplace. Companies are strategically reducing operations that are over-employed while increasing employees in areas that add value (Robbins, 2000:16). Between 1994 and 1999, the Western Cape – the most active “downsizer” in South Africa – downsized its public sector by 13.3 percent, which implies that 170 000 jobs were lost (Coleman, 2000). Downsizing is likely to have some undesirable outcomes as it affects employees' morale, motivation and productivity; service delivery, because of the loss of skilled employees; and departmental planning (Coleman, 2000).

Many people who have been laid off by big companies choose to start their own businesses. Purchasing a franchise allows them to run their own businesses with less risk because of the support provided by the franchiser (Robbins, 2000:8). During 2005, South Africa had a formal employment growth of 4.5 percent, created mainly by small- and medium-sized companies. The large companies showed employment growth of only 2 percent. More than 206 000 companies were established in 2005 (Labour Dynamics, 2006:3).

When companies are busy downsizing, they are in fact also facing a labour shortage. The employees who are being laid off do not have the skills that the companies need to be competitive (Robbins, 2000:17). Lawler (2003:9) identifies the two powerful forces that are causing the increasing shortage of knowledge-skilled employees: workforce demographics and education. Many developed countries, for example, Japan, Italy and Germany, are experiencing a high percentage of their workforce entering or having already entered the age of retirement. This shift is a result of both low birth rates and longer life expectancies. Although some of the retirees can still stay in the workforce, they do not necessarily have the up-to-date knowledge to meet the needs of the companies. The second force comes from a lack of education. The schooling system is not producing enough well-educated students to perform the type of work required in today's business world, especially people who can do technical and engineering work (Lawler, 2003:9). The importance of a highly skilled workforce must not be undervalued. In the old business environment, many jobs did not need to be performed by highly skilled employees, so the need for the highly talented was limited. However, the situation

is different now with the challenges that technology has brought. The growth of knowledge and technology and the demands for an educated workforce will definitely continue to grow (Lawler, 2003:10).

3.2.3 Changes in today's employees

The changes that have reshaped the economy and the organisation have redefined the term *employee*.

The term *multi-skilling* implies a higher level of flexibility for a job in a company. This happens usually in activities which require unskilled to skilled or technical expertise (Sutherland & Canwell, 2004:183). In the past, companies were stable and it was preferable for employees to have a narrow set of specific skills in order to perform repetitive tasks. Today, companies need employees with multiple skills to handle a variety of job tasks, rather than specialists. The more skills an employee has, the better he or she can help the company to achieve its goals and the more valuable he or she is in the job market (Robbins, 2000:24).

As mentioned earlier, being a team player has becoming increasingly important for companies that organise around teams. Therefore skills such as problem solving, group decision-making skills, conflict-solving skills and interpersonal skills are especially needed to contribute to high-performance teams (Robbins, 2000:26). Effective managers should communicate the company's vision, goals, and business strategy with the team and link these with the team's mission (Gebelein et al., 2004:261). This gives the team

members clear direction, purpose and security (Gebelein et al., 2004:259). Team members perform best when they know what is expected from them and what they can expect from the company (Gebelein et al., 2004:269).

The changing world of work implies longer working hours, less family time and more stress. To keep costs low, companies have been downsizing and re-engineering, causing many employees to work harder in order to stay in their company. Also, companies delegate more tasks to the highly skilled employees (Robbins, 2000:26), usually resulting in stress for the employees. Employees often struggle to cope with the pressure and stress due to an increased amount of work and to high levels of insecurity (Kusstatscher & Cooper, 2005:148). This could also cause alienation. Alienation implies a feeling of powerlessness, meaninglessness and even social isolation (Sutherland & Canwell, 2004:7).

The changes in the world of work have also brought changes to people's attitudes towards work. Krech and Crutchfield (1997 in Döckel, 2003:15) define attitude as "an enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world". There are numerous theories and models that have been developed on attitudes in general and particularly on work. Katz and Kahn (Weightman, 2004:29) suggest that attitudes and motivation are intertwined. As mentioned in Chapter 2, motivation needs to be maintained by the managers to create a working environment where employees will have positive attitudes. People's values and attitudes towards work have changed in today's world. Many people no longer want long-

term relationships with organisations. On average, people used to have three or four jobs during their careers, but this is now increasing as people become more mobile (Gubman, 2003:32). According to a study by Development Dimensions International in February 2001, almost one-third of all the employees surveyed were planning to leave their present jobs within the next year. Among these employees, about 20 percent estimated their chances of leaving to be greater than 50 percent (Glanz, 2002:1). Jovanovic (Döckel, 2003:9) points out in a survey by the Institute for Democracy in South Africa that 13 percent of the professionals surveyed will probably leave the country within the next five years as a result of the increase in crime. To decrease the turnover rate, managers should understand what employees are looking for in their jobs.

3.3 GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES AND WORK MOTIVATION

The above section discussed the difference aspects of changes that might influence employee motivation. There are also generational differences that relate to work motivation. An individual's behaviours and interests differ substantially from the behaviours and interests of his or her parents. In the same way, there seem to be differences in work values between employees from different generations (Landy & Conte, 2007:367).

As a very general rule, employees can be typified by the times in which they entered the workplace. Employees who were influenced by World War II, the Great Depression, or the Berlin blockade in the 1950s and early 1960s believe in hard work. These people tend

to be loyal to their employers and they place family security and comfortable life as their priorities (Robbins, 2003:42).

Employees who entered the work place from the mid-1960s to the mid-1980s are called the *Boomers*. They were influenced by the civil rights movement, the Vietnam War and the Beatles. These people place achievement and material success as their priorities. Issues like social recognition and a sense of accomplishment are important at their work (Robbins, 2003:43).

Employees who entered the workplace under the influence of globalisation, two-career parents, MTV and computers are called the *Xers*. They place family and relationships as their priorities (Robbins, 2003:43). To them, life comes before work (Johnson, 2004:67). Money is important at their work as it acts as an indicator of job performance. However, they seem willing to exchange their salary increases for other rewards such as promotions, titles or a better lifestyle (Robbins, 2003:43). They place more emphasis on individual freedom (Sirota et. al, 2005:4) and are less loyal to their employers than the other generations (Robbins, 2003:43).

The newest entrants to the workforce are called the *Nexters*. These people grew up in prosperous times. They believe in themselves and are money-oriented. They have freedom and comfortable life as their priorities (Robbins, 2003:44). The Nexters expect the following from their managers: recognition of quality-of-life needs; encouragement of and reward for creativity; training and enrichment programmes; less bureaucracy; and more employee recognition (Boone & Kurtz, 1999:316).

Managing employees is a difficult and complicated task, and most managers want to learn all they can about employee motivation. The theories of generational change seem intuitively acceptable (Sirota et al., 2005:4). For managers, understanding the different generations and their values can be helpful in managing employee behaviour (Robbins, 2003:44). For employees, their lifestyles come before their work life. When managers know the life issues of their employees, then they are likely to track the employees' changing expectations (Johnson, 2004:70).

3.4 RECENT DEVELOPMENTS OF WORK MOTIVATION APPROACHES

Apart from the theories discussed in Chapter 2, the newer theorists, after research and interviews, have come up with new ideas of motivation for today's employees. There are a variety of factors regarded by different theorists as motivational..

3.4.1 Belief system of motivation

Thad Green, a university professor who established his own company, used Vroom's expectancy theory (or VIE theory, discussed in Chapter 2) as a foundation for training unemployed people to develop the skills they needed to keep productive jobs (Green, 2000:xii). Green (2000:xiv) simplified Vroom's expectancy theory by removing the mathematics. Instead of saying that people have expectations that determine motivation at work, Green simply says that people have beliefs. Also, instead of measuring expectations in the form of probabilities, Green measures beliefs on a simple ten-point rating scale. He calls the theory the Belief system of motivation and performance.

Working with people in his own company, Green has turned Vroom's theoretical model into an application model. He proved that there is a critical connection between motivation and performance. Green (2000:xii) points out: "Employees are the best source of solutions to their own motivation and performance problems. Managing is a shared responsibility. It takes more than offering people what they want to unleash their motivation to perform".

The Belief system of motivation and performance explains how people determine the level of effort they put into work and how well they will perform. All these decisions originate from a process or chain of events: effort leads to performance which leads to outcomes and results in satisfaction (Green, 2000:5). Green has identified three beliefs: confidence, trust and satisfaction. These beliefs are the key to motivating employees, so all three should be put into effect (Green, 2000:6).

The first belief is confidence, which deals with the relationship between employee effort and performance. One must believe that the effort one is capable of giving will lead to the expected performance (Green, 2000:6). The second belief, trust, deals with the relationship between performance and outcomes. Employees must believe and trust that managers will give them what their performance deserves, for instance, rewards, promotions or personal thanks for a job well done. In this case managers must keep their word before diminishing an employee's trust. However, this trust in an appropriate reward can sometimes be a problem in the workplace: performance is not easy to measure; it is not easy to tie outcomes to performance; there are not always desirable

outcomes; and sometimes employees expect outcomes based on their effort rather than on their performance (Green, 2000:9). Lastly, the satisfaction belief deals with the relationship between outcomes and satisfaction. The outcome given by the manager for completion of the job should satisfy the employee. Managers must realise that the same outcomes do not always satisfy every employee. In Green's interviews and questionnaires he found that managers are sometimes mistaken in believing that all employees will be satisfied by the same outcome. Green also found that the "big three" outcomes - money, advancement and job security - are not necessarily the most popular nowadays. Employees are often given the same outcome, when in fact everyone is motivated by different things (Green, 2000:13).

Green points out that most motivation theories assume that performance reaches its peak when employees are offered something they want, as they will work hard in order to achieve it. The other side of the tactic is to offer something that employees do not want, such as unemployment, so employees will work hard to avoid it (Green, 2000:6).

Research has proved that the belief system works. As a result of this system, managers become more effective leaders; employees are more motivated; the performance of individuals, teams and the organisation improves; workers find greater job satisfaction; teamwork is strengthened; management of changes runs more smoothly; downsizing works; and turnarounds are more successful.

3.4.2 Lindner's understanding of employee motivation

Lindner (1998:2) points out in his journal, *Understanding employee motivation*, that for a company to survive, it is important to keep the employees motivated. Motivating employees is known as one of the most complex functions a manager can perform, owing to the fact that these motives change. For instance, when an employee gets older, interesting work could become more important than other factors, or when an employee's salary increases, money becomes less of a motivator (Lindner, 1998).

Research was done by James Lindner (1998:3) to examine the importance of certain motivation factors, using a descriptive survey method, at the Piketon Research and Extension Centre and Enterprise Centre at the Ohio State University. The target group was asked to rank the factors from the most motivating to the least motivating. The following reflects the order the respondents gave from most to least motivating:

- Interesting work. Managers can motivate employees through interesting work (Sharma, 2006:ii). Work can be interesting when jobs are well designed and when specific goals are specified.
- Good wages. Companies attempt to increase employee motivation and performance by linking incentive pay to increases in performance (DuBrin, 2000:307). In studies of motivation, compensation has always been and certainly still is an important motivator, but not the only one. Money itself cannot guarantee productivity among employees (Hughes, 2003:17). As Herzberg mentions, money can only be a short-term satisfier (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:292).

- Appreciation of work well done. This can be achieved through giving the employees feedback, recognition, reward and promotion. The need for appreciation for a job well done from the managers can be more important than the need for a payrise for today's employees (Nelson, 2003:10).
- Job security. As mentioned earlier, companies lay off employees, downsize, dejob and re-engineer to save costs and to be competitive. Companies can increase employee motivation by giving certain levels of job security (Sorita et al., 2005:62).
- Good working conditions. Working conditions are a primary concern of management as they can determine employees' performance and productivity (Sutherland & Canwell, 2004:244).
- Personal loyalty to employees. The instability of employment reflects a change in employers' views towards the employment relationship (Pfeffer, 1998:162). Motivating employees through loyalty can be done by sharing information and celebrating successes, which give the employees a sense of ownership. Celebration can help to bring employees and the company closer together, hence improving the relationship (Kusstatscher & Cooper, 2005:153).
- Tactful discipline. In this case, managers attempt to keep the employees' performance at acceptable levels by using discipline (Torrington, 1998:498). In South Africa, the fairness of discipline was dealt with in the Industrial Relations Act of 1971. This act was created to ensure that employees are not dismissed unfairly (Lewis et al., 2003:293). This relates to Adam's Equity Theory discussed earlier.

- Sympathetic help with personal problems. Showing interest in employees and their needs is an essential step in establishing positive relationships. Managers get their work done through employees. If managers do not know what employees need, they may also not know what motivates them (Gebelein et al., 2004:352).
- Promotions and growth in the company. Training and development help growth in a company. Both the employees and the company benefit, not just in the present, but also in the future (Tsui & Wu, 2005:51).
- Feeling of being in on things. This can be done through empowerment – encouraging decision-making among employees. Empowerment is so important because a company needs its employees' knowledge, experience and skills and their commitment to the company (Johnson & Redmond, 1998:5).

Two other studies referred to by Lindner had similar results. The first study, conducted by Kovach (1987 in BPIR, 2006:52), gave the following ranked order of motivational factors: interesting work; appreciation of work well done; and a feeling of being in on things. The second study done by Harpaz (1990 in BPIR, 2006:52) obtained the following order: interesting work; good wages; and job security. Lindner concluded from his own research and these two studies that, although the findings in the studies are not exactly the same, they support the idea that what motivates employees differs according to the context in which the employees work; and all the employees ranked interesting work as their most important motivational factor (BPIR, 2006:52).

These motivators form the basis for the questionnaire used for this study.

3.4.3 CARE model for motivating employees

In research done by Glanz (2002:18), a questionnaire was handed out to 1200 employees in the United States that asked about the factors that encourage them to do their best. The first three factors ranked by these employees as most important were: being trusted; doing meaningful work; and feeling appreciated. The factor of getting more money was ranked as the sixteenth most important factor, with only 56 percent of the respondents ranking it as important (Glanz, 2002:18). When employees were asked what they would like as rewards besides money, the most mentioned answers were appreciation, time off, trust and respect, freedom and training (Glanz, 2002:24).

With studies in motivation and retention, Glanz (2002:31) developed a CARE model that assists managers in motivating and retaining employees. CARE is an acronym made up from the words:

- Creative communication. Research done by Runzheimer International found that the average manager spends 80 percent of his or her time communicating (Glanz, 2002:31). Glanz explains that effective communication contributes to a healthy and cooperative work environment. Managers must therefore be open and honest in their communications with employees (Glanz, 2002:31).
- Atmosphere and appreciation. In all the current research on what motivates employees and keeps them productive, appreciation is always one of the top three

desires (Glanz, 2002:35). Nelson (in Anon., 2004:2) also mentions that a feeling of appreciation and recognition is important.

- Respect and reason for being. When managers focus on employees as individuals, they begin to treat the employees with respect. Managers need to learn about employees and their strengths. Employees now search for the meaning of their work, and the reason for being at work. As O'Reilly III and Pfeffer state, "To the extent that any organisation can truly unleash the hidden value in its people, it will increase its chance of success" (Glanz, 2002:40).
- Empathy and enthusiasm. To value employees more as human beings is important in today's motivation management. When companies care for employees' personal needs and help to provide the resources to fulfil these needs, employees are loyal and therefore more motivated (Glanz, 2002:42).

Managers must thus constantly assess the needs of their employees and understand what they want in order to keep them motivated.

3.4.4 Ten ways to motivate today's employees

Every theorist and manager has his or her own way of motivating employees. After research and interviews, Nelson, the founder of Nelson Motivation Inc., identified the top ten ways to motivate today's employees (Economy & Nelson, 2003:92). In order of priority they are:

- Give personal thanks to employees for a job well done in verbal form, in writing, or both, in a timely manner and sincerely.
- Be willing to take time to communicate with the employees.
- Provide feedback on the performance of each individual employee, the department and the whole organisation.
- Create a work environment that is open, trusting and creative.
- Provide information on the company and how the person fits in with the overall plan, in other words, be transparent.
- Encourage decision making among the employees.
- Create a sense of ownership in the work and the work environment.
- Provide recognition and reward, and promote employees based on their performance.
- Create a learning organisation and a partnership with each employee.
- Celebrate the successes of the company, the department and the individuals in it.

3.5 SIX RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

All the above-mentioned theories provide useful insights into employee motivation. However, all of them have limitations. The knowledge of the subject of employee motivation is far from complete. Locke and Latham have thus made six recommendations for increasing the knowledge and understanding of employee motivation in the twenty-first century (Locke & Latham, 2004:389)

3.5.1 Integrate valid aspects of extant theories

Locke and Latham recommend using the results of existing meta-analyses to integrate valid aspects of extant theories. When studying the theories on motivation, one sometimes gets confused by the large variety of concepts and approaches. But if one looks closely, it is evident that these theories do not contradict one another that much in terms of the different aspects of the motivation process. It is therefore possible to integrate these theories into an overall model. Figure 2-1 in Chapter 2 shows the integrated model of work motivation created by Locke.

The next step would be to identify the strength of the various relationships. This could be done by putting together all known meta-analyses relevant to each relationship in the model. The model could also be expanded by adding other relationships based on new findings or on the theories that were not included in the model.

3.5.2 Create a boundaryless science of work motivation

Locke and Latham (2004:392) point out that motivation theory should be extended and developed within other areas rather than isolated to the task performance setting:

- Motivation theories should use concepts developed outside the area of psychology.
- Motivation could be studied further within the realm of team effectiveness. There are factors affecting teams that do not arise when focusing on individual motivation, for instance, team members can motivate and demotivate each other. Exploring motivation in the realm of team effectiveness could lead to the study of conflicts among team members' personalities, values and goals.

- Motivation should also be studied within the realm of decision making. Knight, Durham and Locke (2001 in Locke & Latham, 2004:392) suggest that goals affect the degree of risk people take when making decisions.
- Motivation can also be better incorporated with organisation theory. For instance, centralisation and decentralisation in an organisation also appear to have motivational consequences. Organisations that have subsidiaries in different countries will have issues on value differences.
- Motivational issues are important for strategic management. For instance, implementing a new strategy requires skills and knowledge, but also motivation.
- Motivation theory in the realm of work should also pay attention to the findings from other study fields.

3.5.3 Integrate the general with the specific

Another proposal is to identify how general variables such as personality get applied to and are mediated by task- and situationally specific variables, how they are moderated by situations, and how they affect situational choice and structuring. Integrating the general with the specific is an issue that must be addressed in integrating motivation theories. A general value or motive must be applied to each specific task and situation. It follows that situationally and task specific knowledge and assessments could be affected by such motives, and these assessments could in turn affect the actions taken in the situation.

An individual's goals have been proven to mediate the effect of some personality traits. As shown in figure 2.1, values and personality work through goals and efficacy. However,

it is possible that some personality traits are not mediated at all. It is therefore necessary to find out when and why this happens.

Furthermore, what needs to be studied is the possibility of strong versus weak personalities. Strong personalities should be less restricted by situation than weak personalities. For example, people who are hyper-competitive might look for ways to compete everywhere. They see every situation as an opportunity to show their superiority.

Finally, people must not ignore the fact that people are not just the passive victims of situations. Employees are the ones who choose the job they like and quit the job they dislike. They may restructure their jobs to fit better with their expectations. They may also work with others to change the situations they dislike. As Bandura (1986, 1997 in Locke & Latham, 2004:395) mentions, we need to study how personality traits affect the processes that people create and choose, and change situations.

3.5.4 Include the effect of the subconscious

Subconscious as well as conscious motivation and the relationship between them needs to be studied. The concept of subconscious motivation refers to information that is in subconsciousness. It is no doubt that people can act without being aware of the motives behind their behaviour. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953 in Locke & Latham, 2004:396) suggested that the achievement motive was a subconscious motive. They argued that it had to be measured with a projective test, so they used TAT, which involves people telling stories in response to pictures. McClelland believed that

subconscious motives are stimulated differentially by different situations and operate differently to conscious motivation. The TAT method may be useful, but it has low internal reliability and struggles with the effect of choice of pictures. Goal-setting theory also fails to specify the effect of the subconscious on people's behaviour. Yet the Wurzburg school in Germany proved that goals that are assigned to people can affect their subsequent behaviour without them being aware of it. Locke also suggests that goals may stimulate task-relevant knowledge, yet almost nothing has been done on how and when this occurs.

Another way to test the effects of the subconscious is through priming. Priming involves giving people information that is not related to the task at hand but that can affect their subsequent responses without them being aware of the effect. Priming can also be used in many other types of motivation studies. Research should be conducted to compare the size of the effect and possible interactions between consciously versus subconsciously assigned primed goals.

3.5.5 Use introspection

Introspection should be used explicitly as a method of studying and understanding motivation. As an accepted methodology in organisational behaviour, the use of introspection in furthering the understanding of employee motivation will provide the following six important benefits:

- Understanding traits and motives. In the field of personality, it is often vague whether the theories are describing behaviour or the motive causing that behaviour. The nature of these motives can only be learned by having people with different levels of trait scores engage in introspection. The concepts of motive are often defined statistically; but very seldom defined experientially. For instance, the Big Five personality dimensions have a number of subdimensions. However, little is known of how people with high scores actually experience themselves and the world. Such an understanding should help researchers to develop better measures.
- Increasing accuracy. Ericcson and Simon (1980 in Locke & Latham, 2004:396) describe the conditions under which introspective reports are most reliable. The evidence shows that the more specific and immediate the information requested, the higher the accuracy. The respondent is able to introspect and hence to report the information more accurately.
- Understanding the effects of attitudes. Through introspection, many factors that influence choices can be revealed. Rather than looking for the correlations between satisfaction and productivity, introspection can be used to point to the various decision-making processes involved in getting from satisfaction to productivity that can then be studied systematically. The relevant key variables can then also be identified.

- Learning how managers formulate and apply principles. Little research has been done on how managers formulate, adapt and implement principles in a given organisational context. To improve our understanding, we need to know how managers actually think. Introspection with both highly effective and ineffective leaders could show: what principles they use, how they discovered them, how the principles are being coordinated and how they implement what they believe.
- Understanding self-motivation. Introspection can be used to determine how people energise themselves and show perseverance when performing specific tasks, especially tasks in which they experience conflicts between themselves and others and within themselves or in which they experience failure and frustration, and their consideration towards both short-term and long-term goals. Discoveries about how people motivate themselves can be of great benefit to organisations.
- Understanding the relationship between motivation and knowledge. We need to learn how motivation and knowledge affect each other. Through the use of introspection, we can determine the relationship between motivation and the discovery of knowledge, the sharing of knowledge, and the use of knowledge when making decisions. Introspection can also increase the knowledge of one's personal capabilities.

3.5.6 Acknowledge the role of volition

The role of volition on human action needs to be acknowledged when formulating theories. It is important not to see the causes of action as fully determined by situations or by predetermined ways of processing. In Vroom's expectancy theory, he suggests that people will multiply expectancy by instrumentality by valence when making decisions. However, people may choose to weight the three factors in different ways or even to ignore one or more of them. Beach's (1990 in Locke & Latham, 2004:399) image theory also suggests that people make decisions using a specific process, for example, value images, strategic images or trajectory images. However, people have many processes to use apart from these three, for example they can follow their emotions, or even mindlessly follow whatever others say.

Locke and Latham (2004:400) suggest that work motivation needs to be studied from new perspectives. The purpose of the six recommendations discussed above is obviously to exhaust the possibilities for new directions for the research on motivation. For example, how employees and managers consider and integrate both short and long term outcomes and how employees and managers prioritise their values, goals and the consequences of different types of priorities (Locke & Latham, 2004:400).

3.6 STEPS TO MAKING MOTIVATION WORK

Once one knows how managers can motivate their employees, there are steps to follow to make these motivators work. Whiteley (2002:102) has identified ten steps that managers must bear in mind to make motivation work:

1. Get the top team on board. The managers must know in what ways motivation makes a difference to the bottom line of the organisation. The organisation must work as a group that pulls towards the business goal of the organisation.
2. Take culture into account; avoid jargon. Every organisation has its own unwritten rules. Employees will be most motivated when they see their managers exhibiting the behaviour they seek. People get turned off when an organisation uses jargon, especially if the message is in their second language.
3. Remember that pay matters. Pay improvements cannot solve all the problems, but when pay is unfair, it can cause de-motivation among employees.
4. Do not forget the simple things. Herzberg defines the work environment as a “hygiene” factor. He thinks that the factors that make some people unhappy will not necessarily make the others unhappy. A manager should not forget that simple things, such as poor quality coffee in the office and regular power failures in a publishing company, can de-motivate the employees.
5. Remember that the employees are not stupid. Managers must always remember that employees on all levels are intelligent. A person does not become intelligent as he or she advances in the hierarchy.
6. Do not forget motivation when cutting costs. There are times when organisations have to cut down on the number of employees or cut pay. The organisation must help to motivate the remaining employees.
7. Take note of personality profiles. The Belbin or Myers-Briggs test can help to determine the factors that motivate and even help in career decisions. Managers can determine the strengths and weaknesses of employees with these tests if done

correctly.

8. Remember that the company is a community. The company can be affected by decisions which concern only a few employees directly. If an organisation has exciting tasks for the managers but rule-filled jobs for the employees, this can be dysfunctional.
9. Keep in mind that things can get worse as well as better. Managers should carry out employee attitude surveys regularly, and the organisation should act on the results of the surveys. This could improve the working conditions of the employees.
10. Provide feedback: be honest; do not skimp on praise. Feedback to the employees is an essential part of motivation. The employees want to know how they are doing in an honest manner. If an employee has failed to complete the task required, the manager should tell him or her why and how future failure can be avoided.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed changes in the world of work, the recently developed approaches to work motivation by Green, Lindner and Glanz and the six recommendations by Locke and Latham on how to integrate the different theories of and approaches to work motivation.

Managers must bear in mind that motivational factors are all linked and affect one another. It is important for managers to have an understanding of how employees behave and to determine what they can do to motivate the employees. They must find different ways of obtaining the commitment of employees (Johnson & Redmond, 1998:208).

Keeping employees motivated in today's constantly changing environment is possibly the most demanding challenge of all.

CHAPTER 4

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, South African human resource management and policies being implemented in South Africa are discussed in detail.

4.2 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

Addressing the issue of human resource management in South Africa means that both the global and local contexts must be taken into consideration. Apart from the influence of the advancement of technology and globalisation, apartheid has played an important role in decisions in human resource management in South Africa (Horwitz et al., 2004:2).

South Africa has a total population of 45.31 million and a GDP of R243.22 billion (Statistics, 2002 in Horwitz et al., 2004:1). Formal sector employment is about 15 million. Over 500 000 jobs have, however, been lost in this sector due to company restructuring and downsizing since 1994 (Horwitz et al., 2004:1). Between 1994 and 1999, the Western Cape – the most active “downsizer” in South Africa – has downsized its public sector by 13.3 percent, which implies that 170 000 jobs were lost (Coleman, 2000).

The rise of female employment has been one of the most important trends in recent decades (den Dulk et al., 2005:13). During the country’s expansion years, women started

to expect to play a greater role at the workplace and a lesser role at home (Beech, 2005:40). In South Africa, while women make up 52 percent of the adult population, they represent 41 percent of the workforce (Magau, 2004:29).

The casual worker and informal sectors have been growing rapidly. South Africa's economy was dependent on the mining industry. Over the past decade the GDP contribution of this sector declined as a result of the growth of the manufacturing, export and agriculture sectors. Although the country has successfully transformed from a resource-based economy to manufacturing and export, it has not created significant formal employment (Fraser, 2002 in Horwitz et al., 2004:1). There has, however, been a significant development in the tourism and hospitality sectors after apartheid. Unfortunately, the high crime rate and HIV/AIDS issue are causing social problems. The estimated shrinkage of real GDP owing to AIDS, from year 2002 to 2015, ranges from 2.8 to 9.6 percent (ABSA Bank and ING Barings, 2002 in Horwitz et al., 2004:1).

South Africa is a society with diverse ethics. English, Zulu, Xhosa, Sotho, and Afrikaans are the most spoken languages. Black people, meaning Africans, coloured peoples, and Indians, made up over 75 percent of the total population. Racial discrimination and wars for control over land were important elements of South Africa's history. Apartheid was a political system implemented by the National Party in 1948, and abandoned in 1994 with the first democratic election in the country. The apartheid system meant that from 1948 to 1994, in the context of human resources management, Africans were excluded from access to training and skilled work. During apartheid, skilled and managerial work was

given to white workers only. Now, in post-apartheid South Africa, performance improvement and training and development of the productive workforce are seen as the most important workplace challenges for managers (Horwitz et al., 2004:2).

There are two imperatives showing the critical relevance of a strategic approach to human resources in South Africa: firstly, to address and remove unfair discrimination from apartheid in the workplace and to enhance organisational representation of women and black people, i.e. Africans, Coloureds and Indians; secondly, to formulate human resource strategies at both national and organisational levels to improve performance and competitiveness. As mentioned earlier, the human resource practitioners in South Africa see performance enhancement, employment equity, training and meeting the expectations of the trade union as the most important challenges (Templer & Hofmeyr, 1989 in Horwitz et al., 2004:3). Employee training and development are seen by managers in South Africa as essential to address the issue of the skills gap and to develop the capacity to meet competitive demands (Browning, 2000 in Horwitz et al., 2004:3).

4.3 'BEE' IN SOUTH AFRICA

In April 1994, a newly elected black-majority government came into power in South Africa. Black economic empowerment (BEE) policies followed, in the hope of achieving sustainable development and prosperity through the participation of previously disadvantaged people in South Africa. BEE was set to head a new path to economic development by striving for equality and freedom (Lew & Whiteford, 2006:29).

Empowerment is defined by the government as “an integrated and coherent socio-economic process that directly contributes to the economic transformation in South Africa and brings about significant increases in the number of black people that manage, own and control the country’s economy, as well as significant decreases in income inequalities” (Ernst & Young, 2006).

South Africa needs an economy that can meet the needs of its citizens in a sustainable manner. This can only be done if the country’s economy is built on the full potential of its persons and communities. Government’s objective is to achieve this vision by an adaptive economy characterised by growth, employment and equity by the year 2014 (Ernst & Young, 2006).

4.3.1 The need for economic transformation

Economic transformation in a business is needed for the following reasons (Ernst & Young, 2006):

- Financial and growth reasons. The high unemployment rate in South Africa can only be addressed in a growth environment, and transformation can enable growth.
- Social reasons. There is a level of social tension due to the disparity between a few rich persons and the poor majority, which leads to a high level of crime. BEE can increase the numbers of the black middle-class and thereby stabilise the country.
- Moral reasons. The apartheid system introduced in 1948 brought about a serious exclusion from the economy based on race. This has caused much poverty in this country. Therefore one of the objectives of BEE is to change enterprises from white

dominance to enterprises that reflect the demographic mix and diversity of talent in South Africa.

4.3.2 The objectives of implementing BEE

The objectives of BEE are as follows (Ernst & Young, 2006):

- an increase in the number of black people who have ownership and control of existing and new enterprises
- an increase in the number of black enterprises and black-empowered enterprises
- an increase in the number of black people in management and executive levels in the enterprises.

Prince Booi, Managing Director of EmpowerLogic – one of South Africa’s leading developers of BEE programmes and measurement methodologies – has said that BEE is essential to entrench democracy. He also points out that not only the country itself but also the enterprises and the whole country will benefit. BEE is now seen as an opportunity to achieve higher levels of performance and motivation, while properly planned empowerment programmes have become a basis of competitive advantage (Creation of rainbow nation, 2006).

4.3.3 Retaining BEE employees

Recent research studies have shown that what talented black employees want is not what the companies deliver, while companies complain that BEE candidates are difficult to

hold on to. The research identifies the following reasons for job-hopping (Braudo, 2006:18):

- Entrepreneurial spirit. Candidates have a desire to run their own businesses and give something back to their community.
- Self-actualisation. Candidates jump from job to job to learn different skills in order to start their own business.
- So-called “push” factors. As a result of culture clashes in the workplace, a sense of the black candidates being sidelined abounds.

BEE is a new policy for business, required by the law, which has its advantages and shortcomings. It will remain a debatable issue for some time to come (Havenga, 2004:23). Implementing BEE is a journey and not an event. An integrated approach is essential for the success of the implementation of BEE. When viewed and accepted in this way, BEE will be an exciting experience for the parties concerned (Nkaiseng, 2006:47).

Managers must bear in mind that remuneration cannot be the main motivator. They need to develop a deep understanding of what drives the employees to stay in the company. The Chief Executive of Focus Kamoso, a South African recruitment agency, Tumi Maruping, pointed out five tips for managers to successfully recruit and retain the good BEE candidates (Braudo, 2006:19):

- When recruiting, do not oversell the job. Communicate with the candidate what is required and what he or she will gain in return.
- An efficient recruitment process is essential.

- Managers must not assume that the candidate will take the job no matter what. Candidates have job options.
- Managers must know the situation in their company concerning diversity and transformation.
- Managers can set a career path for the candidates and monitor this growth path.

4.3.4 Employee priorities in South Africa for 2006/2007

The following are the priorities identified during a National Labour Summit held in February 2006 for the years 2006 and 2007 (Grobler, 2006:5):

- Promote decent work, job creation, job security and employment quality by interacting with the government to ensure that the Growth & Development Summit (GDS) agreements are effectively implemented.
- Defend the rights of the workers to ensure that all workers have the right to fair labour practice.
- Support the “buy SA” campaign and focus on saving local jobs. This is to ensure that all the retailers selling consumer goods, such as clothing and food, increase their levels of “buying local” to 80 or 90 percent .
- Promote increased investment in areas that meet national social objectives. The 5 percent goal for socially responsible investment must be reached. The basic objectives should be to promote jobs, support the “buy SA” campaign, utilise decent work practices and build basic social infrastructure.
- Promote industrial and trade policy measures that save and create quality jobs. A strong, active policy should be developed to promote quality jobs and create capacity

in South Africa.

- Build a strong cooperative movement and expand the number and successes of cooperative enterprises. This can be done by seeking support from the State and retirement funds.
- Make the workplace training system work for members, and increase the amount and quality of training. Both the current workers and the unemployed should go through structured learnerships to promote advanced skill developments. To do this, integration between the workplace and the academic skill institutions is needed.
- Campaign to have a rand exchange rate geared to promote job creation. (The rand at the time was valued at a strong level, which resulted in massive jobs losses in sectors such as mining and tourism. The rand has since fallen.)
- Reform insolvency and competition laws to prioritise jobs. The focus of insolvency legislation should change to place more emphasis on saving companies experiencing difficulties. This could shift the power away from the trade and financial creditors towards the workers.
- Achieve broad-based black economic empowerment that benefits workers and communities.
- Engage with the courts and the emerging labour jurisprudence to achieve the objectives of fair labour practices and the expansion of worker rights. Trade unions should retain the right of appearance in the Labour Court.
- Campaign for a comprehensive national health system that ensures universal access to quality care.

4.4 BROAD-BASED BLACK ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Broad-based black economic empowerment (B-BBEE) is a progression from the old black economic empowerment that focused on just ownership and management. B-BBEE was enacted to redress the imbalance from the past (Van Der Walt, 2005:1). It intends to undo the damages apartheid caused, and is a growth strategy that aims at the inequality in the South African economy (Marr, 2006:1). According to Marr (2006:1), B-BBEE can be defined as “an integrated and coherent social-economic process that directly contributes to the economic transformation of South Africa and brings about significant increases in the number of black people that manage, own and control the country’s economy, as well as significant decreases in income inequalities”. Black people are defined as South Africans who are African, Coloured or Indian.

The main objectives of B-BBEE are to promote equal opportunity and equal access to government services (Van Der Walt, 2005:1). B-BBEE has seven elements: ownership, management, employment equity, skills development, preferential procurement, enterprise development and residual or social investment (Marr, 2006:1):

- Ownership measures the black people’s ability to contribute towards strategic and operational policies, and economic interest which results in their wealth.
- Management looks at black representation at managerial levels.
- Employment equity focuses on promoting equal employment opportunity, and involves skills development.
- Skills development is the development of core competencies of black people to encourage their involvement in the economy.

- Preferential procurement intends to broaden market access for BEE enterprises. It takes away the focus from the enterprise's internal structure and skills and focuses on the suppliers.
- Enterprise development seeks to assist and accelerate the development of the financial and operational independence of qualifying BEE enterprises.
- Residual or social investment is about investing in the company's people, organisations or communities that are external to the work of that company (Marr, 2006:2).

4.5 SUMMARY

On the basis of a literature survey, this chapter discussed the trends in human resource management in South Africa and the implementation of Black Economic Empowerment and Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment. In the next chapter, the methodology used in the study is discussed.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine the correlation between management and employee motivation and to test the various motivational factors with employees in Sasol Polypropylene Business. In this chapter a brief background on Sasol Polypropylene Business will be presented and the research methodology used in this study will be discussed.

5.2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

5.2.1 Background of Sasol Limited

Sasol Limited is an innovative and competitive global energy company. It was established in 1950 by the South African government to manufacture fuels and chemicals from indigenous raw materials. With a vision of being a respected global enterprise and the preferred supplier to customers through the delivery of quality products and superior service, Sasol is now a competitive company in coal, oil, fuels, chemicals and related markets. The six key companies of Sasol Limited are: Sasol Chemical Industries Ltd., Sasol Oil (Pty) Ltd., Sasol Mining (Pty) Ltd., Sasol Gas Holdings (Pty) Ltd., Sasol Synfuels (Pty) Ltd., and Sasol Technology (Pty) Ltd. (Sasol, 2005).

The company states that it employs over 30 000 people worldwide and creates an environment in which teams of dedicated people, who are characterised by their diversity

of skills and background, can grow to their full potential through development, empowerment, recognition, respect and involvement in a safe and healthy working environment (Sasol, 2005).

5.2.2 Management style

Pieter Cox, the chief executive of Sasol, believes that the key to successful leadership is clarity and purpose. A manager must clarify with its employees the company's vision, its purpose, its strategy and the result that follows. Good managers make sure that the people they work with are good team players. Every team member must share a common trust and understand the strengths and weaknesses of the other team members (Wessels, 2004:21).

5.2.3 Reasons for excellence

The company has gone through a transformation. It was a protected, state-owned company but is now is an international company. Cox said that reward and motivation consist of the visible progress that comes from reaching a goal. Furthermore, for a company to grow and prosper, it needs to perform to meet financial, social and environmental goals. To be a sustainable company, Sasol focuses on its finances, its employees, the environment and society (Wessels, 2004:24).

5.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM DEFINED

The employees today are no longer the same as they used to be. The meaning of work is now more important to the employees than before. For a company to gain competitive advantage, managers need to retain talented employees and motivate them to perform

their best. However, employees today are not willing to have long-term relationships with their employers, nor are they as motivated as before. The problem covered in this research is therefore what motivates employees.

5.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

After defining the research problem, the research objectives were formulated. The objectives of this research are to prove that there is a correlation between management and employee motivation, and to investigate the various factors that motivate today's employees, thus helping management to increase the motivation level and in turn productivity.

5.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Survey research is the process of data collection by asking questions and recording the responses. Surveys can be done for two main reasons. One is to estimate the characteristics of a population. The second is for hypothesis testing (Whiteley, 2002:345). In this research, the survey, which took place in Sasol, was done to measure the motivational characteristics of the employees.

5.5.1 Questionnaire design

A survey is a research technique that is used to collect information from a group of people with the use of a questionnaire. To write the questions and set up the questionnaire is essential for the development of a survey research design (Zikmund, 2003:66).

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (in Dockel, 2003:70) define a questionnaire as a group of written questions used to collect information from respondents. It is one of the most commonly used methods for collecting data in the social sciences. However, the process of questionnaire construction is very complex (Whiteley, 2002:371).

5.5.1.1 Survey questionnaire

Survey questions can be grouped into two categories: closed-ended and open-ended questions. With closed-ended questions, the respondents are asked to choose answers from a set of alternatives; with open-ended questions, the respondents are expected to answer in their own words (Edwards et al., 1997:24). Researchers usually prefer to use closed-ended questions because the alternative answers are set in a way that can easily be quantified by the researchers (Whiteley, 2002:345).

In this study, closed-ended questions are used together with a Likert rating scale. Likert rating scales are the most popular form of multi-item scales. They present the respondents with a set of statements about a person, a thing or a concept and the respondents are required to indicate how strongly they feel, positively or negatively, about the statements (Whiteley, 2002:361). In this research, a five-point Likert scale was used. The respondents were asked to respond according to how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the statements relating to motivation.

5.5.1.2 Components of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of three sections. The first section consists of demographic questions about the respondents. This includes gender, age, salary received every month after the deduction of tax, marital status, the department the respondent works in, the current position of the respondents at Sasol, the number of years the respondent has been working for Sasol, home language and the educational level of the respondent.

The second section consists of statements compiled according to the top ten ways in which today's managers can motivate their employees, as identified by Nelson and discussed in chapter four (Economy & Nelson, 2003:92). The ten points served as a foundation for the 53 questions developed. These questions thus test whether Nelson's ten points are a source of motivation for the employees in Sasol.

The last section of the questionnaire was based on the motivational factors identified in the literature study by Lindner, in which she examined the importance of certain motivational factors through a descriptive survey method (Lindner, 1998:3). These factors are tested in the questionnaire to see to what extent the employees are motivated by these factors.

5.5.1.3 Pretest of the questionnaire

A pretest is a trial run with a group of respondents, used to find the problems in the design of a questionnaire (Zikmund, 2003:229). In order to test the questionnaire used for this study, it was first handed out to the employees of a South African company that is in

the same sector as Sasol. After the feedback was processed and analysed, some minor changes were made to the wording and layout of the questionnaire.

5.5.1.4 Population and sample

This research was conducted at Sasol Polypropylene Business in the Secunda plant of Sasol in South Africa to test the motivational levels among its employees, who formed the sample population.

Sasol Polypropylene Business consists of 210 employees. The majority of the employees are situated in the Secunda plant and the rest at the head office in Johannesburg. Out of the 210 employees, 141 employees were available on the day of the research and participated in this research. According to Neuman (1994 in Vercueil, 2001:78), the smaller the population, the larger the sampling ratio that is required for a high degree of accuracy. For populations smaller than a thousand, a sampling ratio of 30 percent is needed. In this research, a sampling ratio of 67.10 percent was obtained, therefore it has a relatively high degree of accuracy.

5.5.2 Data collection

Once the final version of the questionnaire has been constructed, it must be administered to the respondents. Of the various methods of data collection, the group administration method was chosen. In this method, the respondents are brought together to complete questionnaires. This method is inexpensive, with the reproduction of the questionnaire being the only cost, and usually has a high response rate (Whiteley, 2002:377).

To avoid the problem of a low response rate, the researcher went to Sasol at the Secunda plant and personally handed out the questionnaires to the target respondents. This allowed the respondents to complete the questionnaire in privacy.

Of the 141 questionnaires handed out, all 141 questionnaires were returned. However, the feedback rate is 67.10 percent (141 responses out of 210), owing to the fact that there are 210 employees in Sasol Polypropylene Business.

5.5.3 Data processing and analysis

Data processing begins with the editing and coding of the data (Zikmund, (2003:73). Therefore once the questionnaires were collected from the respondents, the questionnaires were inspected to determine their acceptability. The questionnaires were then coded with numbers assigned to each question. This data was then processed.

The data was processed by the statistical computer package on the mainframe of the University of Pretoria. The techniques used during data analysis include the following: item analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), factor analysis, the Kruskal-Wallis test, the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha and the Mann Whitney Test.

5.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The research was in line with ethical guidelines in that participation was voluntary and confidential. Participation was voluntary; the employees were free to participate in the

research or not as they wished. The responses were kept confidential, as the respondents were not asked to fill in their names or give any identification.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter gave a brief background to Sasol and its companies and the research methodology used in developing the questionnaire. Data collection and data processing and analysis were briefly discussed. More details of the analysis, including the reliability and validity of the data, will emerge in the next chapter, which discusses the results obtained in the research.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a description of the sample and an analysis of the research results. In the following chapter the recommendations arising from the research will be discussed.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

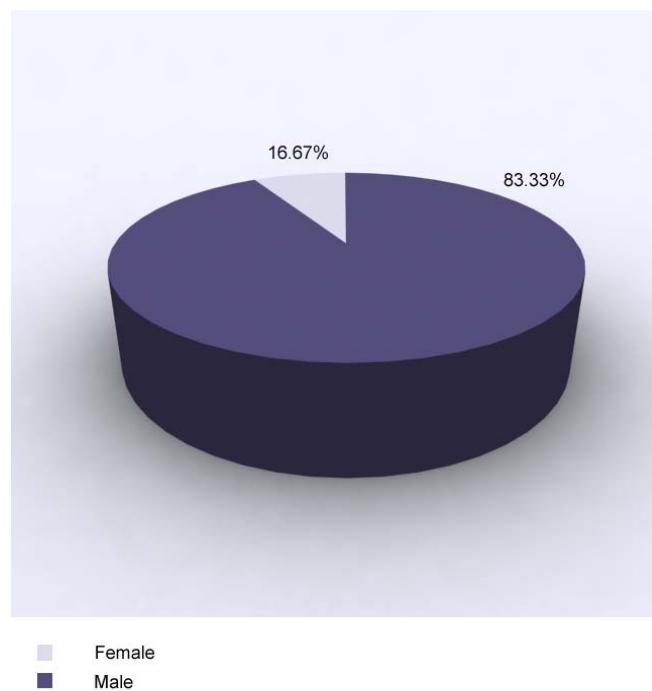
Descriptive analysis is the process of transforming raw data into understandable information so that it is easier to interpret (Zikmund, 2003:491). The following section describes the characteristics of the population group being studied. The total number of the employees in Sasol Polypropylene Business is 210. Of these, 141 employees were available on the day of research. This gives a 67.10 percentage of feedback.

According to Punch (2003:52), a low response rate can raise questions according to whether the responses received were representative of the sample or were in some way biased. However the researcher should strive for a response rate of at least 60 percent. A feedback of 67.10 percent in this research is therefore taken to be acceptable.

6.2.1 Gender

Table 6-1 Frequency: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Male	115	83.33	83.33
Female	23	16.67	100.00
Total	141	100.00	100.00

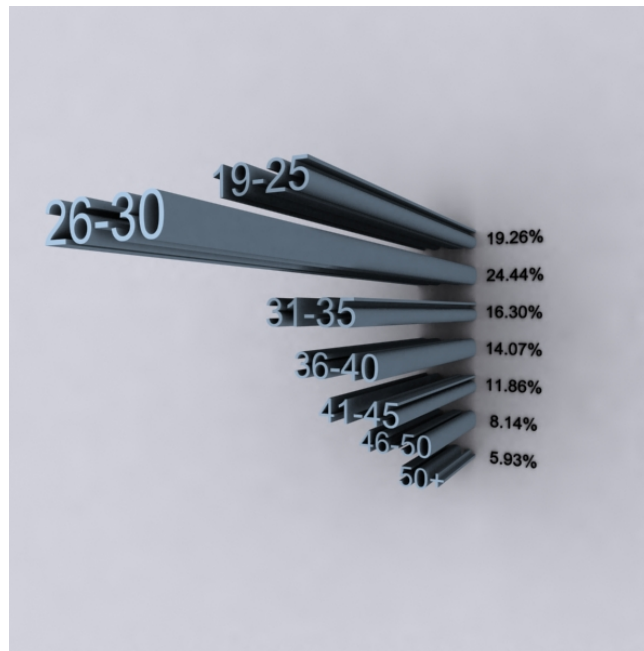


According to table 6-1, male respondents comprised 83.33 percent of the sample (n=115) and female respondents 16.67 percent (n=23). Three respondents did not respond to this question. The majority of workers at Sasol Polypropylene Business are male employees.

6.2.2 Age

Table 6-2 Frequency: Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
19-25	26	19.26	19.26
26-30	33	24.44	43.70
31-35	22	16.30	60.00
36-40	19	14.07	74.07
41-45	16	11.86	85.93
46-50	11	8.14	94.07
50+	8	5.93	100.00
Total	141		

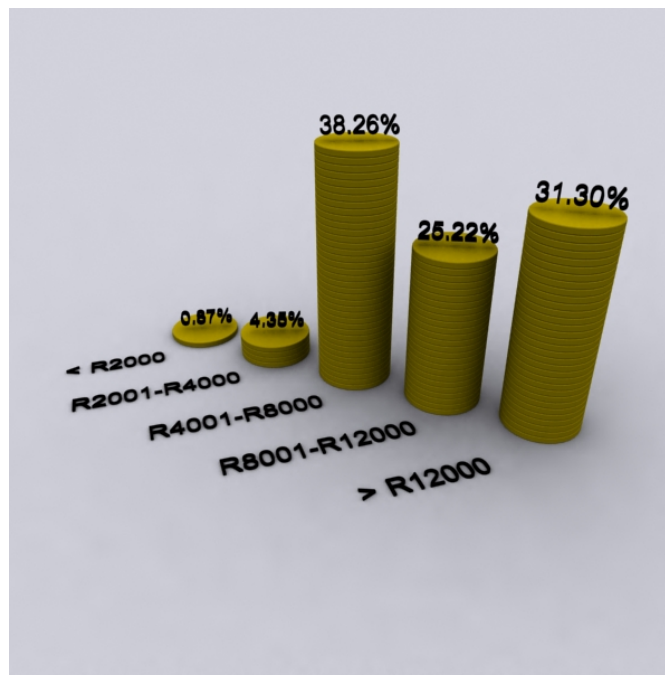


According to table 6-2, 60 percent of the respondents are between the age of 19 and 35 (n=81). This indicates that the majority of the respondents are relatively young. Six respondents did not respond to this question.

6.2.3 Salary per month (after tax)

Table 6-3 Frequency: Salary per month (after tax)

Salary per month	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Below R2000	1	0.87	0.87
R2001~R4000	5	4.35	5.22
R4001~R8000	44	38.26	43.48
R8001~R12000	29	25.22	68.70
Above R12000	36	31.30	100.00
Total	141		

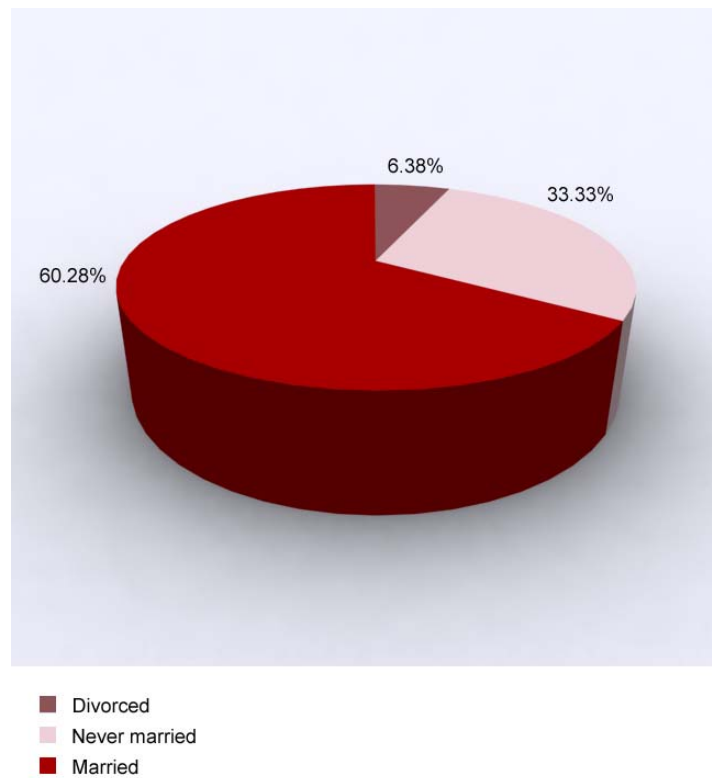


According to table 6-3, a majority of 38.26 percent of the respondents receive a salary of between R 4001 and R 8000 (after tax). 26 respondents did not respond to this question.

6.2.4 Marital status

Table 6-4 Frequency: Marital status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Never married	47	33.33	33.33
Married	85	60.28	93.62
Divorced	9	6.38	100.00
Total	141		

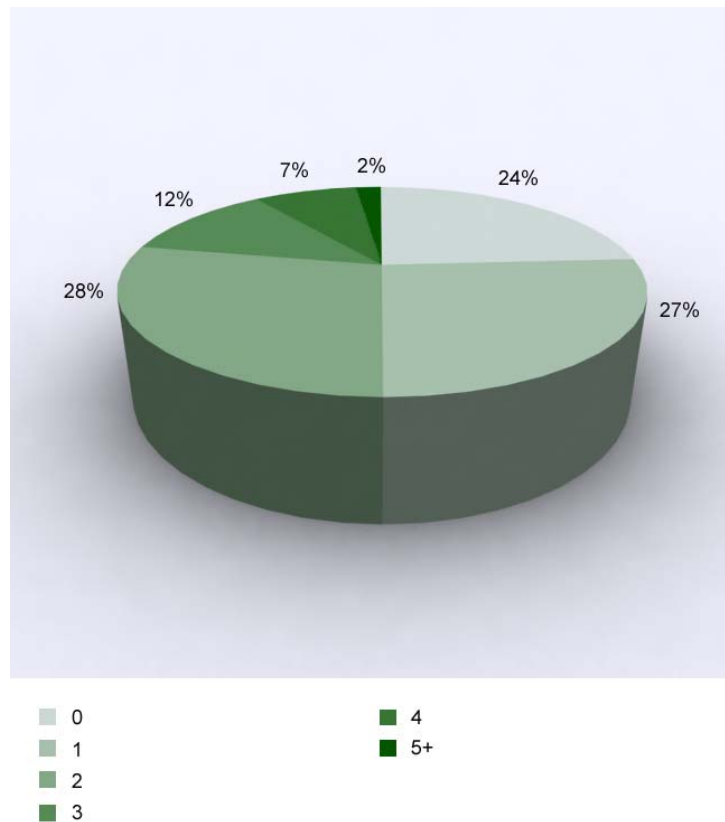


According to table 6-4, 33.33 percent of the respondents are single; 60.28 percent of the respondents are married and 6.38 percent of the respondents are divorced. This indicates that most of the respondents are married with a family to be supported.

6.2.5 Number of dependants

Table 6-5 Frequency: Number of dependants

Number of dependants	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
0	24	24	24
1	27	27	51
2	28	28	79
3	12	12	91
4	7	7	98
5 +	2	2	100
Total	100	100	100

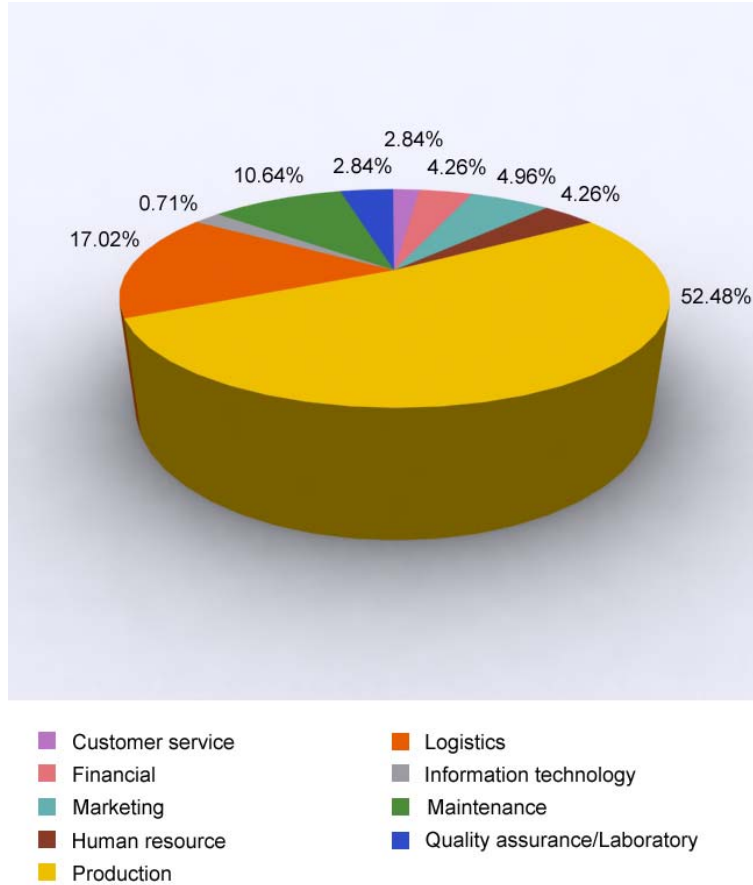


According to table 6-5, a majority of 55 percent of the respondents have either one or two dependants. 41 respondents did not respond to this question.

6.2.6 Department in which working

Table 6-6 Frequency: Department in which working

Department	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Customer service	4	2.84	2.84
Financial	6	4.26	7.09
Marketing	7	4.96	12.06
Human Resource	6	4.26	16.31
Production	74	52.48	68.79
Logistics	24	17.02	85.82
Information Technology	1	0.71	86.52
Maintenance	15	10.64	97.16
Quality assurance/ Laboratory	4	2.84	100.00
Total	141		

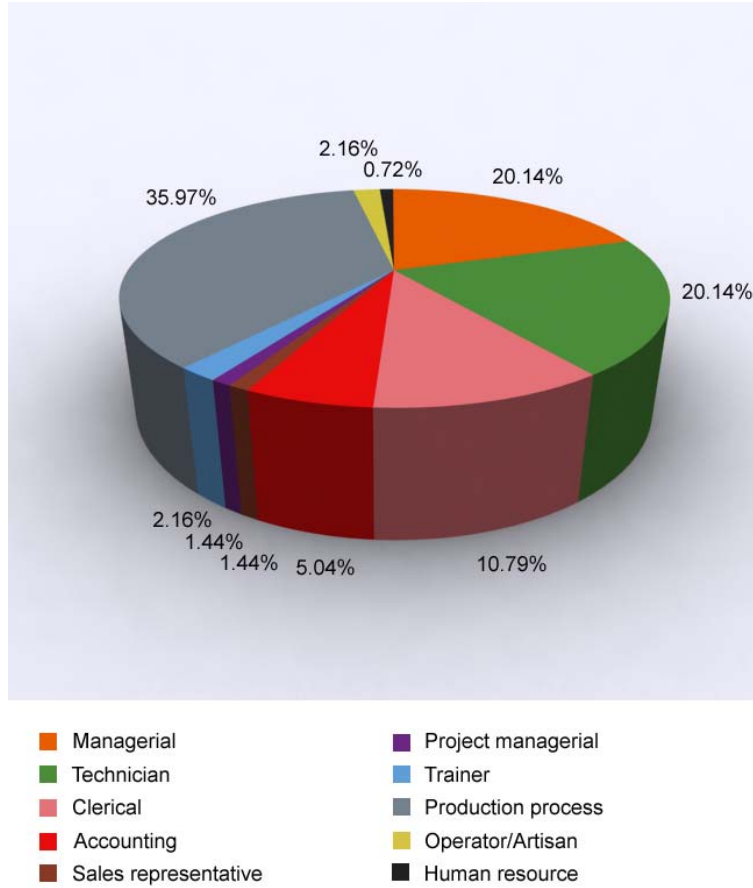


According to table 6-6, the majority (52.48 percent) of the respondents (n=74) work for the Department of Production.

6.2.7 Current position at Sasol

Table 6-7 Frequency: Current position at Sasol

Current position	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Managerial	28	20.14	20.14
Technician	28	20.14	40.29
Clerical	15	10.79	51.08
Accounting	7	5.04	56.12
Sales representative	2	1.44	57.55
Project managerial	2	1.44	58.99
Trainer	3	2.16	61.15
Production process	50	35.97	97.12
Operator/Artisan	3	2.16	99.28
Human resource	1	0.72	100.00
Total	139		

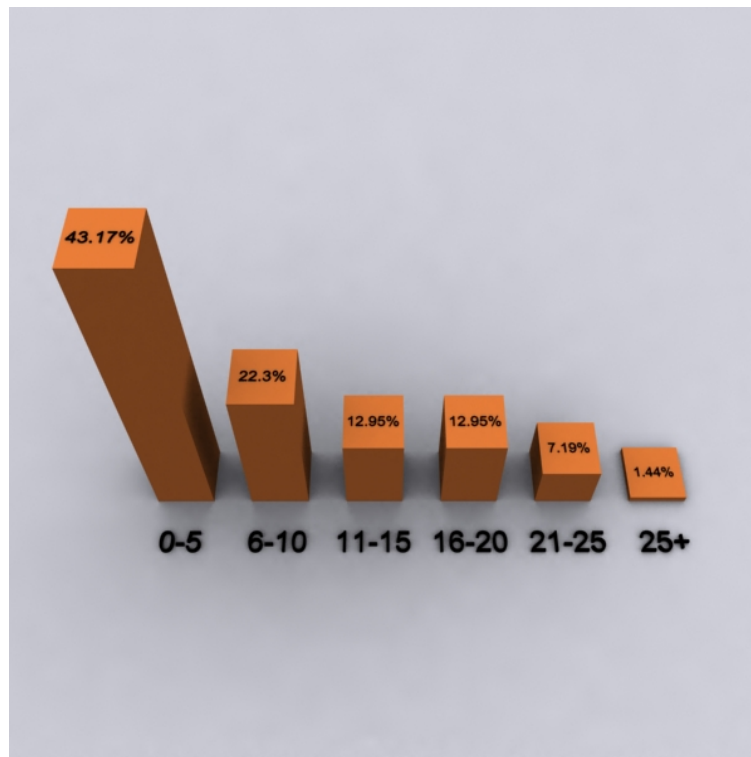


According to table 6-7, the majority (35.97 percent) of the respondents are working in a production processing position in the company. Two respondents failed to answer this question.

6.2.8 Years working for Sasol

Table 6-8 Frequency: Years working at Sasol

Years	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
0~5	60	43.17	43.17
6~10	31	22.30	65.47
11~15	18	12.95	78.42
16~20	18	12.95	91.37
21~25	10	7.19	98.56
25+	2	1.44	100.00
Total	139		

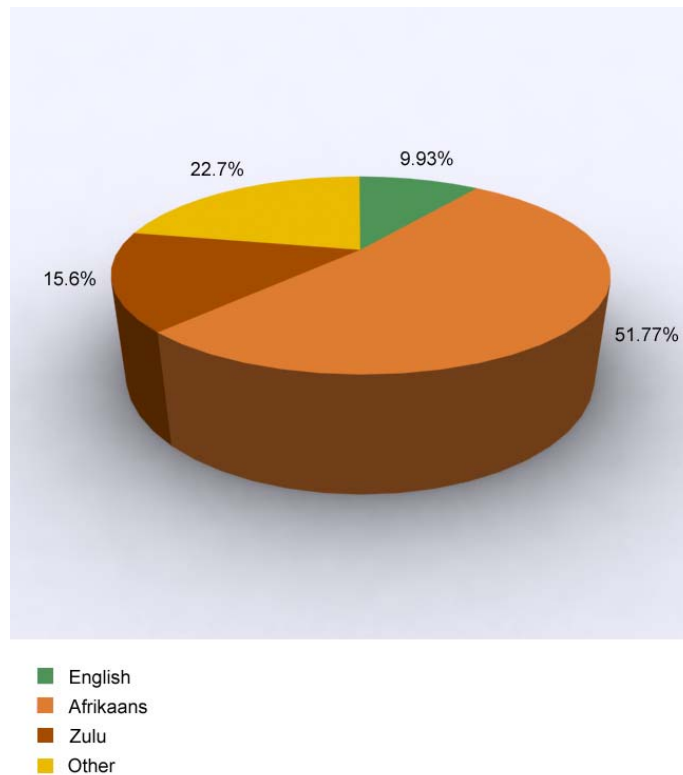


According to table 6-8, the majority (43.17 percent) of the respondents (n=60) have been working for Sasol for from zero to five years. Two respondents did not respond to this question. This indicates a high employee turnover rate in this business sector of Sasol.

6.2.9 Home language

Table 6-9 Frequency: Home language

Language	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
English	14	9.93	9.93
Afrikaans	73	51.77	61.70
Zulu	22	15.60	77.30
Others	32	22.70	100.00
Total	141		

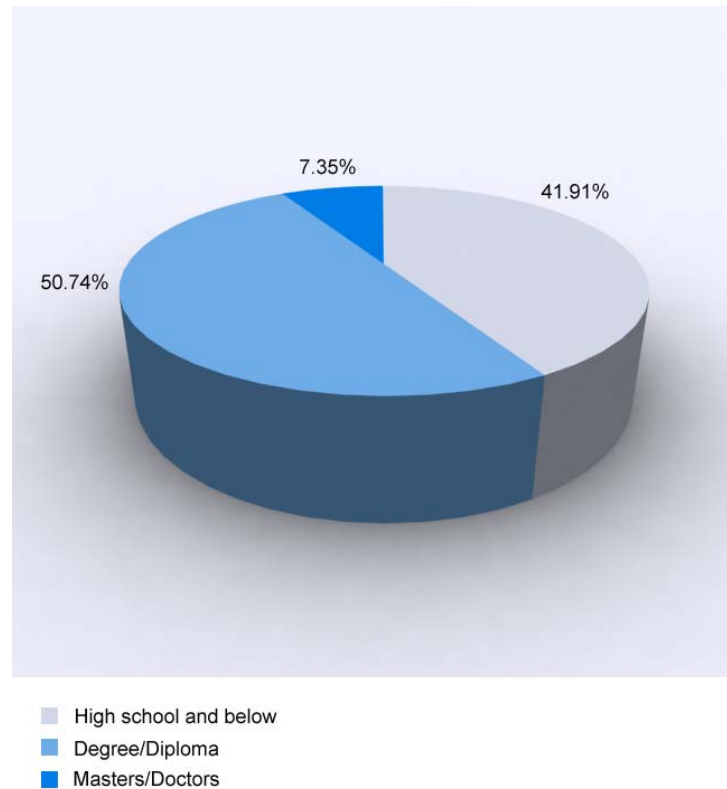


According to table 6-9, 51.77 percent of the respondents are Afrikaans-speaking employees (n=73); 15.60 percent of the respondents are Zulu-speaking employees (n=22); 9.93 percent of the respondents are English speaking; and other African languages are not well represented (n=32).

6.2.10 Education level

Table 6-10 Frequency: Education level

Education level	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
High school and below	57	41.91	41.91
Degree/Diploma	69	50.74	92.65
Masters/Doctors	10	7.35	100.00
Total	136		



According to table 6-10, the majority (50.74 percent) of the respondents have completed a tertiary education and received a degree or a diploma. Five respondents did not reply.

6.3 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

6.3.1 Factor analysis

This research investigates the relationships between management and the various motivational factors which motivate employees. Factor analysis is used here to validate the measuring instruments used in this research. It is a general term for several specific computational techniques. The objective of this technique is to reduce many variables

which belong together, having overlapping characteristics, to a more manageable number (Cooper & Schindler, 2001:591).

The questionnaire used in this study had 53 items. Initially, three factors were derived from the first analysis. Because the loadings on these factors were not acceptable, these factors were rotated and two factors were identified. The two factors, both with an Eigen value of greater than one (1.00), were accepted. It is assumed that these two factors could represent the underlying constructs of the questionnaire. The following questions were eliminated due to low factor loading that did not contribute to a stable factor structure: 2, 5, 7, 10, 11, 21, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35, 38, 41, 44 and 47.

The factors were named by the researcher, representing the items in the measuring instruments:

- Factor 1: management practice
- Factor 2: motivational factors

Therefore the two independent variables are management practice and motivational factors.

The second section of the questionnaire included items indicating the level of motivation (highly motivated, motivated and not motivated) of the respondents. The dependent variables are the following: interesting work; good wages; appreciation for a job well done; job security; good working conditions; promotion and growth in the company; the feeling of being “in on things”; tactful discipline; and sympathetic help with personal

problems. The influence of these variables on the level of motivation of the respondents was analysed.

Using the rotated factor loading, the factors extracted and the items loading on an acceptable level on each are presented in table 6-11.

Table 6-11 Rotated factor analysis

	Factor 1 : Management Practice	Factor 2 : Motivational Factors
Job performance being fairly evaluated	0.530	0.000
Receiving recognition for accomplishment	0.549	0.000
Contribution made to company's goals and strategies	0.531	0.000
Motivation to see the company's success	0.786	0.000
Committed to the changes made in the company	0.592	0.000
Communicate goals and strategies	0.714	0.000
Having authority in decision making	0.583	0.000
Involvement in decision making	0.763	0.000
Motivated to be creative	0.735	0.000
Satisfaction with the empowerment given at work	0.616	0.000
Money being the only motivator	0.844	0.000
Feeling of making a difference at work	0.503	0.000
Positive changes leadership has made	0.729	0.000
Referring family or friends to work at the company	0.611	0.000
Satisfaction with the team spirit at work	0.547	0.000
Feeling of a sense of accomplishment	0.544	0.000
Enjoyable working environment	0.606	0.000
Understanding of company's mission statement, vision and values	0.650	0.000
Feedback given to improve performance	0.000	0.670
Respect and flexibility towards family responsibility	0.000	0.569
Mistakes acceptable in the process of trying new things	0.000	0.575
Satisfaction with the supervisor as a role	0.000	0.699

model		
Receiving coaching and training	0.000	0.552
Have enough training to perform the tasks required	0.000	0.418
Opportunities to interact with other employees	0.000	0.454
Availability for consultation from the supervisor	0.000	0.739
Promotions	0.000	0.847
Training when necessary	0.000	0.709
Supervisors listen and meet the employees	0.000	0.910
Supervisor concerned about the employees' needs and problems	0.000	0.798
Company holds social events	0.000	0.515
Supervisors accept comments	0.000	0.879
Supervisors remember personal things	0.000	0.641
Company supports celebrations and team building activities	0.000	0.447
Supervisor cares for the employee as an individual	0.000	0.874
Cronbach's Alpha	0.9364	0.9439
% Variance explained	51.48%	6.37%
Eigen value	16.26	2.72

Table 6-11 has the following implications:

- To establish the reliability of the measures used in this research, Cronbach's Alpha was used. The overall reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha for factor 1, management practice, is 0.9364; and for factor 2, motivational factors, is 0.9439. These values indicate that the measures are internally reliable (Cronbach's alpha > 0.7).
- The correlation between the two factors: management practice and motivational factors, is 0.663. This is relatively high but because of the particular nature of the study, the value is accepted by the researcher.
- The Eigen values for both factors are greater than 1.00, showing a stable factor

structure.

6.3.1.1 Reliability and validity of the data

Reliability

Reliability in general means stability of response. This concerns whether the same respondents would answer the same questions in the same way if they were asked again. If they would, then the questions asked provide data with a high reliability (Punch, 2003:52). Reliability is the consistency or dependability of a measure. One of the ways to measure reliability is called internal consistency. This is the extent to which the questions were designed to measure the same attitude, in other words how well the questions correlate with one another. If the questions were designed reliably enough, they should not only correlate highly with one another but should also correlate significantly more highly than the questions measuring other attitude areas. For example, two mathematical questions should correlate more highly with each other than with two geography questions (Sirota et al., 2005:309). In this research, as mentioned earlier, the reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha. Both factors have a Cronbach's alpha value of greater than 0.7. They are therefore reliable.

Validity

In general, validity means whether the data represent what the researcher thinks they represent (Punch, 2003:52). Zikmund (2003:302) defines validity as "the ability of a scale or measuring instrument to measure what it is intended to measure". The issue here is whether the respondents have answered the questions honestly and conscientiously. This depends on the respondents' attitudes and frame of mind. It also depends on whether the

respondents were able to answer the questions the researcher asked; a pretest of the questionnaire is therefore needed (Punch, 2003:52). Pretest of a questionnaire is a test done with a group of respondents to uncover problems in the design or instructions of a questionnaire (Zikmund, 2003:229). In this research, as mentioned earlier, a pretest of the questionnaire was done before handing it out to the respondents in Sasol Polypropylene Business, and minor changes were made.

6.3.2 Mann Whitney U Test: testing of propositions P1 and P2

There are a number of different tests regarding group differences that compare two samples to determine the statistically significant difference between the two population means. The Mann Whitney test, also called ranked-sum, is designed to test group differences when the populations are not normally distributed or when the samples cannot be assumed to be from populations that are equal in variability (Zikmund, 2003:543). The Mann Whitney test was used to test the significant differences between the two factors in this research.

Factor 1: Management practice

Management practice in this research is seen to be the way managers manage their employees. As mentioned in the literature study of this research, management is the process of getting things done through others. It follows that the performance of a company will reflect the degree of motivation and commitment of its employees (Sadler, 1998:12). Management practice is therefore critical for a company's success or failure.

Table 6-12 Mann Whitney Test: management practice

Variables	Highly motivated		Motivated		Not motivated		Mann Whitney Test
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	
Interesting work	3.29 a	0.70	3.54 a	0.61	3.91 b	0.71	0.0001 ***
Good wages	3.23 a	0.57	4.01 b	0.46	3.83 b	0.94	<0.0001 ***
Appreciation for job well done	3.03 a	0.63	3.76 b	0.58	4.02 b	0.58	<0.0001 ***
Job security	3.27 a	0.80	3.65 a	0.64	3.92 a	0.67	0.1221
Good working conditions	3.28 a	0.65	3.57 a	0.59	3.96 b	0.77	0.0001 ***
Promotions and growth in the company	3.06 a	0.58	3.84 b	0.48	3.99 b	0.72	<0.0001 ***
Feeling of being in on things	2.96 a	0.49	3.77 b	0.60	4.12 b	0.54	<0.0001 ***
Personal loyalty to employees	2.81 a	0.64	3.79 b	0.51	4.11 b	0.55	<0.0001 ***
Tactful discipline	2.99 a	0.90	3.71 b	0.53	4.20 b	0.56	<0.0001 ***
Sympathetic help with personal problems	3.02 a	0.86	3.69 a	0.56	4.13 b	0.47	0.0001 ***

*** statistically significant difference

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level)

$\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

Table 6-12 presents the relations between the three measures of motivation: highly motivated, motivated and not motivated, and the various motivational factors for the

independent variable “management practice”. All the above variables have a significant difference with a 99% confidence level, except for job security.

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding interesting work between the employees who are not motivated and the employees who are highly motivated and motivated. Proposition P1a is therefore rejected. The highly motivated and the motivated employees found their jobs statistically significantly more interesting than the employees who were not motivated.

DuBrin (2000:184) points out that managers can motivate employees through interesting work, and work can be interesting when it is well designed. Four approaches that managers can use when designing jobs have been identified and were discussed in detail earlier in this study. It is important that a manager designs jobs that are interesting, not only for their potential for motivating employees, but also to achieve organisational goals. Interesting work can also be done through goal setting, as goal setting is an important part of most motivational programmes and managerial methods of motivating employees (DuBrin, 2000:301).

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding good wages between the employees who are highly motivated and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P1b is therefore rejected. Although research has shown that money has become less important as a motivator (Kovach, 1987, in Sharma, 2006:ii), and Hughes (2003:17) has also pointed out that money itself cannot guarantee

productivity among employees, money is still an important motivator for some employees. It is important that managers link pay to the employees' performance. Managers must design the right compensation programmes to motivate employees.

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding appreciation for a job well done between the employees that are highly motivated and the employees that are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P1c is therefore rejected. Employees that are motivated and not motivated need appreciation for a job well done from managers more than do the employees that are highly motivated. As Nelson (2003:10) mentions, the need for appreciation for a job well done from the managers can be more important than the need for a pay raise for today's employees. The employees now want to be recognised and appreciated, and they believe that they have control over what they do (Anon., 2004:2). This appreciation can be given in various ways which have been discussed in detail earlier in this study. A manager can show appreciation through positive gestures, positive words, or even eye contact (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:315). This is easy to accomplish and not costly.

In terms of management practice, there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding job security. Proposition P1d is therefore accepted. However, job security can still play an important role when managers intend to motivate their employees. As mentioned earlier, companies lay off employees, downsize organisational structures, de-job and re-engineer in order to be competitive and to save costs. All these decrease employees' job security. Managers must see the importance of

having their employees feeling secure in working at the company. The way a company deals with job security is one of the defining qualities of the company in its employees' eyes, because this shows how the company sees its employees: as assets or as costs (Sirota et al., 2005:62).

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding good working conditions between the employees that are not motivated and the employees that are highly motivated and motivated. Proposition P1e is therefore rejected. The employees who are not motivated see having good working conditions as more important than do the employees that are motivated and highly motivated. Working conditions, as pointed out by Sutherland and Canwell (2004:244), are a primary concern of management, as the working environment can determine employees' performance and productivity. Managers must take good working conditions into consideration when intending to motivate their employees. Evidence shows that the settings in the workplace do not have a serious impact on the employees' performance, but they can definitely soften or harden certain aspects of employee behaviour. Performance can therefore be improved in this way (Robbins, 2000:574).

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding promotions and growth in the company between the employees who are highly motivated and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P1f is therefore rejected. Promotions are important in motivating employees. The key issue in managing promotion is fairness (Brewster et al., 2003:261). Adebayo (2004:116) also proved in his research

that workplace fairness is positively related to employee motivation. The difficulty with fairness is the process of establishing the criteria that serve as the basis for fair promotion procedures. Promotion has been one of the challenges to human resource management, as the decision has to be made beneficial and fair to both the company and the employees (Brewster et al., 2003:261). Growth in the company is another issue. This can be done through the creation of a learning organisation. Learning is the heart of training and development. No matter which system or approach a manager adopts for employee growth, learning is the essential pre-condition for any change in work performance (Megginson et al., 1999:53).

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding the feeling of being “in on things” between the employees who are highly motivated and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P1g is therefore rejected. The highly motivated employees feel they are more involved in their jobs compared with the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Being in on things means being given empowerment or being able to participate in decision making. According to Drafke and Kossen (2002:315), empowerment gives the employees greater involvement in their work and greater authority when it comes to decision making. Managers can motivate the employees better through delegation.

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding personal loyalty of managers to employees between the employees who are highly motivated and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P1h is therefore

rejected. Managers who intend to motivate their employees through showing them loyalty can do this partly through sharing relevant information relating to the company with the employees. When the company does not share information with its employees, it is simply keeping secrets from its own people (Pfeffer, 1998:96). Sharing information with them also gives the employees a sense of ownership, which also helps to motivate them. Managers must build up good relationships with their employees. When employees feel their employers are loyal to them, they will also reciprocate this loyalty.

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding tactful discipline (i.e. the degree of tact with which discipline is applied) between the employees who are highly motivated and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P1j is therefore rejected. Maintaining discipline is a central activity for managers (Torrington, 1998:498). Throughout the study, positive motivators have been discussed. Managers must, however, sometimes use control to discipline the employees in an attempt to keep their performance at an acceptable level (DuBrin, 2000:416). The manager must then design the kind of tactful discipline that will motivate employees to do their best.

In terms of management practice, there is a significant difference regarding sympathetic help with personal problems between the employees who are not motivated and the employees who are highly motivated and motivated. Proposition P1j is therefore rejected. As mentioned earlier, managers must have good relationships with their employees. Showing interest in the employees and their needs is an essential step towards

establishing positive relationships. This is important, because if managers do not know their employees' needs and interests, then how do they know what will motivate them to perform their best (Gebelein et al., 2004:352)?

Factor 2: Motivational factors

Motivational factors in this study are the critical factors that lead to employee motivation. As mentioned earlier, everyone has motives inspired by certain factors that encourage the desire to enhance performance (Kressler, 2003:1). All employees therefore have their own motivational factors that motivate them to perform their bests.

Table 6-13 Mann Whitney Test: motivational factors

Variables	Highly motivated		Motivated		Not motivated		Mann Whitney Test
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	
Interesting work	2.90 b	0.82	3.21 a	0.50	3.24 a	0.77	0.0406
Good wages	2.97 a	0.65	3.39 b	0.55	3.18 b	0.82	0.0012
Appreciation for job well done	2.71 a	0.69	3.28 b	0.52	3.43 b	0.67	<0.0001 ***
Job security	2.86 a	0.69	3.16 a	0.58	3.41 b	0.71	0.0214
Good working conditions	2.43 a	0.95	3.21 b	0.53	3.30 b	0.76	0.0139
Promotions and growth in the company	2.84 a	0.72	3.30 b	0.54	3.39 b	0.66	0.0001 ***
Feeling of being in on things	2.82 a	0.67	3.21 b	0.64	3.52 b	0.52	0.0001 ***

Personal loyalty to employees	2.59 a	0.87	3.28 b	0.49	3.49 b	0.58	0.0001 ***
Tactful discipline	2.96 a	0.78	3.18 a	0.58	3.52 b	0.72	0.0028
Sympathetic help with personal problems	2.72 a	0.79	3.17 a	0.57	3.65 b	0.46	0.0000 ***

*** statistically significant difference

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level)

$\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

The above table presents the relations between the three measures of motivation: highly motivated, motivated and not motivated, and the various motivational factors for the independent variable “motivational factor”. The following variables show a significant difference with a 99% confidence level: appreciation for job well done, promotions and growth in the company, feeling of being in on things, personal loyalty to employees, and sympathetic help with personal problems. The following have a significant difference with a 95% confidence level: interesting work, good wages, job security, good working conditions, and tactful discipline.

In terms of motivational factors, there is no significant difference on a 99 percent confidence level between the three measures of motivation regarding interesting work. Proposition P2a is therefore accepted. However, it has been discussed earlier in this study that interesting work can be an important motivational factor for the employees. To what degree the work is interesting to the employees depends on how it is designed. Good design can be done through goal setting. The expectancy theory lays emphasis on the importance of goal setting in motivating employees. Research has also proved that when an employee commits to a goal, he or she is likely to be highly motivated to achieve it

(Lawler, 2003:49). If the managers set the goals correctly for each employee, interesting work can become a motivational factor for the employees.

In terms of motivational factors, there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding good wages on a 99 percent confidence level. However, on a 95 percent confidence level there is a significant difference regarding good wages between the highly motivated employees and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P2b is therefore rejected. The employees who are highly motivated found their wages satisfying. For wages to be a motivational factor, managers must link the pay system to employee performance as discussed earlier in the study. In the studies of motivation, compensation has always been and is still an important motivator, but not the only one. Hughes (2003:17) argued that money itself cannot guarantee productivity among employees. As pointed out by Herzberg (Drafke & Kossen, 2002:292), money can only be a short-term satisfier. Therefore to satisfy and motivate employees, managers must always find out what the employees really want and try to determine whether money satisfies the employees.

In terms of motivational factors, there is a significant difference on a 99 percent confidence level for appreciation for a job well done between the highly motivated employees and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P2c is therefore rejected. As mentioned above, recognition and appreciation for a job well done are important for today's employees (Anon., 2004:2). Managers must know how to give

employees recognition and appreciation. Managers can also use the performance management system, as discussed earlier in the study.

In terms of motivational factors, there is no significant difference regarding job security between the three measures of motivation on a 99 percent confidence level. However, there is a significant difference on a 95 percent confidence level between the not motivated employees and the employees who are highly motivated and motivated. Proposition P2d is therefore rejected. Even when companies are laying off employees, it is important to maintain the remaining employees' feeling of job security. Managers should base their actions on five principles when laying off employees, as discussed earlier in the study (Sorita et al., 2005:68).

In terms of motivational factors, there is no significant difference regarding good working conditions between the three measures of motivation on a 99 percent confidence level. However, there is a significant difference on a 95 percent confidence level between the highly motivated employees and the motivated and not motivated employees. Proposition P2e is therefore rejected. Good working conditions cannot motivate the employees in themselves, but can determine the employees' performance and productivity.

In terms of motivational factors, there is a significant difference regarding promotions and growth in the company between the highly motivated employees and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P2f is therefore rejected. Promotions

and growth for employees can be good motivators (Lindner, 1998:3). For promotions to be an effective motivator, criteria must be set correctly (Brewster et al., 2003:261), employees must be able to see the connections between good performance and promotions (Cummings & Worley, 2001:216), and also the promotions must match the needs of the employees (Hoag & Cooper, 2006:244). Growth for the employees can be done through training and development. Both the employees and the company will benefit, not just for the present but also for the future (Tsui & Wu, 2005:51).

In terms of motivational factors, there is a significant difference on a 99 percent confidence level regarding the feeling of being in on things between the highly motivated employees and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P2g is therefore rejected. The feeling of being in on things can be an important motivator (Lindner, 1998:3). Employees often feel motivated through empowerment. This can be done through decision making. Every company has its own approach towards decision making. Whichever approach is taken, all companies should aim at reaching the best result.

In terms of motivational factors, there is a significant difference on a 99 percent confidence level regarding personal loyalty of managers to employees between the highly motivated employees and the employees who are motivated and not motivated. Proposition P2h is therefore rejected. Personal loyalty to the employees can be a motivator for the employees (Lindner, 1998:3). Personal loyalty can be shown through sharing information with the employees. As discussed earlier in the study, the increase in

company strategies such as the laying off of employees, outsourcing, and downsizing can contribute to the loss of employee loyalty. Sharing information with employees can be a positive gesture, showing that the company is loyal to its employees (Pfeffer, 1998:94). This in turn can ensure employee loyalty to the company.

In terms of motivational factors, there is no significant difference on a 99 percent confidence level regarding tactful discipline between the three measures of motivation. However, there is a significant difference between the not motivated employees and the employees who are highly motivated and motivated regarding tactful discipline on a 95 percent confidence level. Proposition P2i is therefore rejected. According to Lindner (1998:3), tactful discipline can be a motivator for the employees. There are times when a manager must use discipline to control the employees to keep performance at an accepted level (DuBrin, 2000:416). However, employees can be motivated through the use of discipline only if it is applied correctly (DuBrin, 2000:418). Suggestions for applying discipline have been discussed in detail earlier in the study.

In terms of motivational factors, there is a significant difference regarding sympathetic help with personal problems between the employees who are not motivated and the employees who are highly motivated and motivated. Proposition P2j is therefore rejected. Showing interest in the employees and their needs is an essential step (Gebelein et al., 2004:352). Employee motivation can be improved when managers help the employees with their personal problems and show that they care for them (Lindner, 1998:3).

6.3.3 Chi-square analysis: testing of propositions P3 to P7

Chi-square testing allows for testing the significance in the analysis of frequency distribution (Zikmund, 2003:510). The following section shows the chi-square analysis of the respondents' demographic information including gender, department worked for, current position at Sasol, years of working at Sasol, and the educational level, against the following variables: interesting work, good wages, appreciation for job well done, job security, good working conditions, promotions and growth in the company, feeling of being in on things, personal loyalty to employees, tactful discipline, and sympathetic help with personal problems.

Table 6-14 Chi square test: Gender as independent variable

Variables	Frequency		Chi-Square value	P-value
	Male	Female		
Interesting work	114	22	0.8375	0.6579
Good wages	114	23	5.8412	0.0539 ***
Appreciation for job well done	112	23	4.0894	0.1294
Job security	114	23	1.2894	0.5248
Good working conditions	112	23	2.0130	0.3655
Promotions and growth in the company	114	23	1.0844	0.5815
Feeling of being in on things	114	23	0.4142	0.8129
Personal loyalty to employees	114	23	0.7266	0.6954
Tactful discipline	112	23	1.1502	0.5626
Sympathetic help with personal problems	114	23	5.2032	0.0742***

P * statistically significant difference**

$\alpha < 0.10$ (90% confidence level)

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level)

$\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

The above table shows that the following variables show a significant difference as regards motivation in terms of gender: good wages; and sympathetic help with personal problems. The result also shows that 73.91 percent of the female employees are more motivated by good wages, while the majority of the male employees are also highly motivated by good wages. Although these findings may indicate a tendency towards differences between the genders, it cannot be deduced that they are significant.

The following propositions are accepted: P3a, P3c, P3d, P3e, P3f, P3g, P3h, and P3i. This indicates that there are no significant differences in motivation between male and female employees according to whether the work is interesting; whether there is appreciation for a job well done; whether there is job security at work; whether the working conditions are good; whether there are promotions and growth in the company; whether there is feeling of being in on things with the employees; whether there is personal loyalty by managers to employees; and whether the discipline in the company is tactful or not.

The following propositions are rejected: P3b and P3j. This indicates that there are significant differences in motivation between male and female employees according to whether the wages are high or not and whether the managers help the employees with their personal problems or not.

Table 6-15 Chi square test: Department for which the employee works as independent variable

Variables	Frequency		Chi-Square value	P-value
	Production department	Other departments		
Interesting work	74	65	5.2032	0.0742
Good wages	74	66	14.0532	0.0009***
Appreciation for job well done	73	65	15.3810	0.0005***
Job security	74	66	0.6967	0.7058
Good working conditions	73	65	2.5603	0.2780
Promotions and growth in the company	74	66	5.6408	0.0596
Feeling of being in on things	74	66	8.7024	0.0129***
Personal loyalty to employees	74	66	7.5221	0.0233***
Tactful discipline	72	66	6.3810	0.0412***
Sympathetic help with personal problems	74	66	1.9163	0.3836

P * statistically significant difference**

$\alpha < 0.10$ (90% confidence level)

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level)

$\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

The above table shows that the employees working at the Production Department see the following variables as statistically more important than do the employees from other departments: good wages, appreciation for job well done, feeling of being in on things, personal loyalty to employees, and tactful discipline. The above variables have a P-value

smaller than 0,05. The cause of this could be that the employees in the production department perform more or less the same job every day, and that there is not much variety in the jobs they have to perform. Therefore there is less appreciation from the managers for performing the same job every day and less empowerment is experienced. The employees in the production department would then find these variables more important. (If a less stringent measurement is used, the variables interesting work and promotions and growth in the company differ significantly between the groups on an $\alpha < 0,10$.)

There are no significant differences between the production and other departments regarding the variables job security, good working conditions, and sympathetic help with personal problems. The reason for this could be because the managers in the production department give their employees enough job security, good enough working conditions, and enough help with the employees' personal problems.

The following propositions are accepted: P4a, P4d, P4e, P4f, and P4j. This indicates that there are no significant differences between the employees at different departments according to whether the work is interesting; whether there is job security, whether the working conditions are good; whether there are promotions and growth in the company; and whether the managers help with personal problems.

The following propositions are rejected: P4b, P4c, P4g, P4h, and P4i. This indicates that there are significant differences in motivation between employees of different departments according to whether the wages are good; whether there is appreciation for a job well done; whether the employees feel that they are in on things; whether there is personally loyalty to employees; and whether there is tactful discipline in the company or not.

Table 6-16 Chi square test: Current position at Sasol as independent variable

Variables	Frequency		Chi-Square value	P-value
	Production	Other positions		
Interesting work	53	84	12.9992	0.0015***
Good wages	53	85	9.1153	0.0105***
Appreciation for job well done	52	84	15.7655	0.0004***
Job security	53	85	2.1926	0.3341
Good working conditions	51	85	0.1952	0.9070
Promotions and growth in the company	64	85	1.8326	0.4000
Feeling of being in on things	53	85	5.0435	0.0803***
Personal loyalty to employees	53	85	4.4762	0.1067
Tactful discipline	52	84	4.0559	0.1316
Sympathetic help with personal problems	53	85	5.8934	0.0525***

P * statistically significant difference $\alpha < 0.10$ (90% confidence level)**

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level) $\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

In terms of current position in this Sasol business, the employees from the production positions found the following variables less important to their motivation than did the employees from the other positions: interesting work, good wages, appreciation for a job well done, feeling of being in on things, and sympathetic help with personal problems. The above variables have a significant difference, with a P-value smaller than 0.10.

The following propositions are accepted: P5d, P5e, P5f, P5h, and P5i. This indicates that there are no significant differences in motivation between the employees in different positions according to whether there is job security; whether the working conditions are good; whether there are promotions and growth in the company; whether the employees feel their managers are loyal to them; and whether there is tactful discipline in the company.

The following propositions are rejected: P5a, P5b, P5c, P5g, and P5j. This indicates that, between the employees working as different positions, there are significant differences in motivation according to whether the work is interesting; whether the wages are good; whether there is appreciation for job well done; whether the employees feel they are being in on things; and whether the managers help the employees with their personal problems.

Table 6-17 Chi square test: Years working at Sasol as independent variable

Variables	Frequency		Chi-Square value	P-value
	0-5 years	6 + years		
Interesting work	59	78	7.5864	0.0225***
Good wages	59	79	2.3400	0.3104
Appreciation for job well done	59	77	2.5032	0.2860
Job security	59	79	2.5270	0.2827
Good working conditions	57	79	0.1148	0.9442
Promotions and growth in the company	59	79	2.6711	0.2630
Feeling of being in on things	59	79	3.9186	0.1410
Personal loyalty to employees	59	79	0.1568	0.9246
Tactful discipline	57	79	1.1309	0.5681
Sympathetic help with personal problems	59	79	2.5194	0.2837

P * statistically significant difference**

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level) $\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

From the above table, it appears that interesting work is the only variable that shows a significant difference, with a P-value smaller than 0.05. In terms of the years of working at Sasol, the employees that had been working at Sasol for more than six years found interesting work more important than the employees that had only been working there for less than five years. The other variables do not show a significant difference.

The reason for this could be that the employees that have been in Sasol for more than six years feel that they have job security, sufficient wages and enough job appreciation from

their managers; they are also satisfied with the working conditions and loyalty from the company. Having an interesting job then becomes important for employees who have been working at Sasol for a long time, following the same routine every day.

Proposition P6a is therefore rejected. This indicates that there is a significant difference between the employees who have worked at Sasol for a short time or a longer time in terms of whether they find interesting work a motivating factor.

The following propositions are accepted: P6b, P6c, P6d, P6e, P6f, P6g, P6h, P6i, and P6j. This indicates that there are no significant differences in motivation between the employees who have worked for Sasol for differing periods according to whether the wages are good; whether there is appreciation for a job well done; whether there is job security; whether the working conditions are good; whether there are promotions and growth in the company; whether the employees feel they are being in on things; whether there is loyalty to the employees; whether there is tactful discipline in the company; and whether the managers help with the employees' personal problems.

Table 6-18 Chi square test: Education level as independent variable

Variables	Frequency		Chi-Square value	P-value
	High school and below	Degree/ Diploma/ Masters/ Doctors		
Interesting work	58	77	3.8122	0.1487
Good wages	58	78	0.2271	0.8926
Appreciation for job well done	58	77	1.4097	0.4942
Job security	58	78	7.0786	0.0290***
Good working conditions	57	77	3.8944	0.1427
Promotions and growth in the company	58	78	6.6666	0.0357***
Feeling of being in on things	58	78	0.9237	0.6301
Personal loyalty to employees	58	78	0.3500	0.8395
Tactful discipline	58	76	3.8716	0.1443
Sympathetic help with personal problems	58	78	6.0381	0.0488***

P * statistically significant difference**

$\alpha < 0.05$ (95% confidence level) $\alpha < 0.001$ (99% confidence level)

In terms of educational level, the employees with a degree, a diploma, masters degree or doctorate found the following variables more important as regards motivation than the employees who had an educational level of high school or below: job security, promotions and growth in the company, and sympathetic help with personal problems. The other variables do not show a significant difference.

The reason why the employees with higher qualifications might feel these are important issues is because these employees should have better wages, more interesting assignments, more appreciation from the manager for their job being well done, better working conditions, and should be more empowered than the employees with lower qualifications. After satisfying all the above needs, they then concentrate more on self-actualisation needs (Lindner, 1998:1) which are promotion and growth in the company.

The following propositions are accepted: P7a, P7b, P7c, P7e, P7g, P7h, and P7i. This indicates that there are no significant differences in motivation between the employees with different education levels according to whether the work is interesting; whether the wages are good; whether the managers give them appreciation for a job well done; whether the working conditions are good; whether the employees feel they are in on things; whether the employees feel the company is loyal to them; and whether the company has tactful discipline.

The following propositions are rejected: P7d, P7f, and P7j. This indicates that there are significant differences in motivation between the employees with different educational levels according to whether there is job security or not; whether there are promotions and growth in the company; and whether the managers help the employees with personal problems.

6.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed in detail the results of this study. It was found that there is a correlation between management and employee motivation. In terms of motivational factors, it has been proved that there are no significant differences between the three measures of motivation, namely highly motivated, motivated and not motivated, regarding the following variables: interesting work; good wages; job security; good working conditions; and tactful discipline.

Although there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding **interesting work**, it is noteworthy that interesting work was ranked as the most important motivator in Lindner's survey at the Ohio State University (Lindner, 1998:3). Sharma (2006: ii) also mentions that interesting work can still be an important motivator as an employee gets older. Studies have shown that employees can be motivated through interesting work. Managers can motivate their employees through interesting jobs when they are well designed (DuBrin, 2000:184). Managers can also design interesting jobs through setting goals for their employees. Researchers have proved that when a person commits to a goal, he or she is highly motivated to achieve it (Lawler, 2003:49). Interesting work can thus still be a motivator for employees.

The results show that there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding **good wages**. Green also found that having good wages is not necessarily of prime importance these days (Green, 2000:13). However it is interesting to note that receiving good wages was ranked as the second most important motivator in

Lindner's survey at the Ohio State University (Lindner, 1998:3). In the studies of motivation, money has always been and is still an important motivator, but not the only one (Anon., 2004:2). Most employees today want to feel that their work makes a difference, but for some people money can still be a very important motivator (Anon., 2004:2). Companies attempt to increase employee motivation by linking pay and performance (DuBrin, 2000:307). If the pay system is well designed, money can still be a motivator for employees.

The results show that there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding **job security**. Green also found that having job security is not necessarily foremost these days (Green, 2000:13). However it is interesting to see that job security was ranked as the fourth most important motivator in Lindner's survey at the Ohio State University (Lindner, 1998:3). As mentioned earlier, companies lay off employees, downsize organisational structure, dejob and re-engineer. All these can demotivate employees (Sirota et al., 2005:62). Conversely, employees can be motivated by feeling a sense of security in their jobs.

Although there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding **good working conditions**, it is interesting to note that having good working conditions was ranked as the fifth most important motivator in Lindner's survey at the Ohio State University (Lindner, 1998:3). Working conditions are a primary concern of management, as the working environment can determine the employees' performance and productivity (Sutherland & Canwell, 2004:244). However, evidence shows that the

settings in the workplace do not have a serious impact on employee performance, but they can definitely soften or harden certain employee behaviours. So improving working conditions can motivate employees to perform better (Robbins, 2000:574).

Although there is no significant difference between the three measures of motivation regarding **tactful discipline**, it is interesting to note that tactful discipline was ranked as the ninth most important motivator in Lindner's survey at the Ohio State University (Lindner, 1998:3). Every company has a structure of justice in which the manager exercises rules and procedures. Maintaining discipline is a central activity for managers (Torrington, 1998:498). Applying discipline in a tactful way can help to retain employees.

The next chapter lists recommendations arising from the research and the conclusions of this study.

CHAPTER 7

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the recommendations regarding the research problem in this study and the recommendations for future study are given and the final conclusion is reached.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH

“Human resource management is the use of several activities to ensure that human resources are managed effectively for the benefit of the individual, society and the business” (Schuler, 1995 in Schuler, 1998:122). Managing human resources effectively has become a fundamental for companies in today’s business world, in particular in order to adapt to change (Schuler, 1998:122) and also to have the right people who are capable of delivering company strategies (Accel-Team, 2005:1).

Retaining the right employees saves cost for companies. Skilled talent is expensive, competitive and scarce. Apart from saving companies’ costs, new employees can be disruptive to existing employees. Also, it takes time for the new employees to learn the company’s culture and acquire new skills necessary to perform their tasks. Companies should ensure they are staffed by the right employees and the right number with the required skills relevant to the company’s needs (Accel-Team, 2005:1). In order to have a

sound human resource management strategy that attracts, retains and motivates the valuable employees, the findings in this research should be taken into consideration when performing human resource functions.

The following implications for human resource management have been derived from the research result in the previous chapter.

7.2.1 Demographic survey results

Some conclusions could tentatively be drawn from the demographic details of the respondents.

In this research, the majority of the respondents were male employees. Sixty percent of the respondents were relatively young, between the ages of 19 and 35. This suggests that most of the employees in Sasol Polypropylene Business either seek for other job opportunities after age 35 or decide to stay and retire in the company. Sasol could be a good company for young people in which to start their career, since Sasol has always been the leader in its industry. The greater part of the after-tax salary of the respondents lay between R4000.00 and R8000.00; 31.30 percent of the respondents earned a salary above R12000.00 after tax, which is high compared with the average salary in South Africa.

A majority of 52.48 percent of the respondents worked in the Production Department of Sasol Polypropylene Business. In addition, 35.97 percent of the respondents worked in

production process positions. Most (43.17 percent) of the respondents had been working for Sasol from zero to five years; only 1.44 percent of the respondents had been working for Sasol for more than 25 years. A majority (51.77 percent) of the respondents were Afrikaans speaking. The second biggest language group was Zulu, which accounted for 15.60 percent of the respondents. A majority of 50.74 percent of the respondents had either a diploma or a degree, whereas the highly qualified respondents who had either masters or doctors degrees accounted for 7.35 percent of the respondents.

7.2.2 Results of the research

The results of this research show that there is a correlation between management and employee motivation. As discussed earlier, the correlation between management practice and motivational factors is 0.663, which is relatively high but because of the particular nature of the study, the value was accepted by the researcher.

7.2.2.1 Results of the Mann Whitney analysis

In the first Mann Whitney test, in which management practice was used as the independent variable, it was shown that the following variables had statistically significant differences with a 99 percent confidence level in terms of management practice: interesting work; good wages; appreciation for a job well done; good working conditions; promotions and growth in the company; feeling of being in on things; personal loyalty to employees; tactful discipline; and sympathetic help with personal problems.

In the second Mann Whitney test, in which motivational factors were used as the independent variable, it was shown that the following factors had statistically significant differences with a 99 percent confidence level in terms of motivational factors (in other words these are important motivational factors for the employees in the Polypropylene Business in Sasol): appreciation for a job well done, promotions and growth in the company; feeling of being in on things; personal loyalty to employees; and sympathetic help with personal problems; and the following have statistically significant differences with a 95% confidence level: interesting work; good wages; job security; good working conditions; and tactful discipline.

7.2.2.2 Results of the Chi square analysis

In the Chi-square analysis, the demographic information of the respondents included gender, department for which working, current position at Sasol, years of working at Sasol, and the educational level. These were tested against the following variables: interesting work; good wages; appreciation for a job well done; job security; good working conditions; promotions and growth in the company; feeling of being in on things; personal loyalty to employees; tactful discipline; and sympathetic help with personal problems. The results showed the following:

- There were significant differences between male and female employees regarding motivation according to whether the wages were good and whether the managers helped the employees with their personal problems. A majority of male employees were highly motivated by good wages.

- The employees working at the production department saw the following motivational factors as statistically more important than the employees from other departments: good wages; appreciation for a job well done; feeling of being in on things; personal loyalty to employees; and tactful discipline.
- The employees in production positions found the following motivational factors less important than the employees in other positions: interesting work; good wages; appreciation for a job well done; feeling of being in on things; and sympathetic help with personal problems.
- The employees that had been working at Sasol for more than six years found interesting work more important than the employees that had only been working for less than five years. The reason for this could be that the employees that had been working in Sasol for more than six years felt that they had enough job security, wages that they thought were good enough, and enough job appreciation from the managers, and were also satisfied with the working conditions and loyalty from the company. Interesting work would therefore be important for the employees that had worked for Sasol Polypropylene Business for longer.
- The employees with a degree, a diploma, masters, or doctors degree found the following motivational factors more important than did the employees that had

an educational level of high school or below: job security; promotions and growth in the company; and sympathetic help with personal problems.

7.2.3 Recommendations to managers

This study has clearly shown that behaviour and attitudes of managers can have a marked effect on the motivation of their employees and thus on whether they are attracted to the company and retained by the company. Managers should take the motivators examined in this study into consideration when performing the human resource function and also when drafting strategies to retain and motivate the right employees.

When performing the human resource function, managers should take the following into consideration. Companies should keep their employees motivated in order to lower the turnover rate and also to save costs. When recruiting employees, the company should find out from the candidates what they are looking for in their jobs and what they expect from the company. The company should also communicate to candidates what the company expects from them and what the company is willing to provide them with. The company should constantly assess the employees' motivation levels and also what they need, want or expect from their employer, through the use of questionnaires or interviews. In addition, employee evaluation should be done constantly. Regular assessment of employees' performance helps to improve organisational performance through improving individual employee performance; helps to identify and to recognise existing and potential employees; and also provides an equitable method of matching pay to performance (Accel-Team, 2005:4). Employee evaluation helps managers to understand

how employee performance links to their motivational factors and also how their performance can be improved through satisfying their needs, wants and expectations from the company.

With the rapid changes in today's business world, companies need to develop a more focused and coherent approach to managing the employees in order to improve business performance (Accel-Team, 2005:1). Failure to have a carefully planned human resource management strategy will probably lead to failure in the business performance itself (Accel-Team, 2005:2).

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

The following are recommended as possible areas for future investigation:

- the changes, if any, in motivation over time as companies and employees become more acquainted with modern technology
- the different motivators that influence employees in different business sectors
- differences in the motivators that influence employees working overseas as an expatriate or locally
- how employees' past work experiences and their attitudes affect their motivation towards their work
- how employees' motivation level can influence a company's performance and how it can be improved
- the motivation level of BEE employees and varying motivation levels in

diverse groups

- differences in motivation levels of temporary employees and permanent employees
- how organisational culture can be an influence on employee motivation
- the different motivation levels of newcomers in a company and employees who have been working in a company for a period of time and their expectations.

7.4 CONCLUSION

It is a truism that the world is going through enormous changes. The advancement of technology has brought changes to the way business is done in every aspect. Employees are no longer just one of the inputs companies use to produce; they are important assets that generate profits for the company. To adapt to these changes, managers need new ways to manage their employees.

Formerly most employees were satisfied if their basic needs were met. In today's world, employees want more. Since employees are a company's most important resource, satisfying and retaining employees has become a major focus for managers. To do this effectively, managers must keep their employees motivated, so that valuable employees stay in the company and perform at their best.

To motivate employees is not an easy task. Motivation of employees has to be built up over a long time, and it can be destroyed in a day. There are many different ways of motivating employees. Every motivation theorist comes up with a different approach.

Motivators differ from employee to employee, and also differ according to the business sector. To do their job effectively, managers need to take time and effort to understand what their employees are looking for in their work and try to meet these needs and wants to the best of their ability.

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APPENDIX A

Dear respondents,

You are kindly requested to respond to the statements in the following questionnaire. The statements are related to motivation. Your responses are of great importance as this survey forms important part of a study. It should not take you more than ten minutes to complete this questionnaire.

Your answers will be treated confidentially and will only be used for the purpose of the research.

Thank you for your time.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Please indicate the following with a cross in the column provided.

1. Gender

Male	Female
------	--------

2. Age

_____ years old

3. Salary per month (after tax)

Below R2000	R2001-R4000	R4001-R8000	R8001-R12000	AboveR12000
-------------	-------------	-------------	--------------	-------------

4. Marital status

Never married	Married	Divorced	Widowed
---------------	---------	----------	---------

Please state the number of independents: _____

5. Department working for

Customer service	Financial	Marketing	Human resources	Production	Logistics	Information technology
------------------	-----------	-----------	-----------------	------------	-----------	------------------------

Others, please specify: _____

6. Current position at Sasol

Managerial	Technician	Clerical	Accounting	Sales representative	Project managerial
------------	------------	----------	------------	----------------------	--------------------

Others, please specify: _____

7. Years working for Sasol

_____ years

8. Home language

English	Afrikaans	Xhosa	Zulu	Tsonga	Venda	Swati	Ndebele
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Others, please specify: _____

9. Education level

High school and below	Degree/ Diploma	Masters/ Doctors
-----------------------	-----------------	------------------

Please indicate to what extents do you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. My immediate supervisor gives me feedback that helps me in improving my performance.					
2. I receive informal praise and appreciation on my work performance.					
3. I feel that my job performance is fairly evaluated.					
4. I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for my accomplishment.					
5. My immediate supervisor has reasonable expectations towards my work.					
6. I understand how my work contributes to the company's overall goals and strategies.					
7. I am informed with the status of the company, eg. If the company is making a profit or loss.					
8. I am motivated to see the success of the company.					
9. I am committed to the changes being implemented in the company.					
10. My job requirements are clear.					
11. My immediate supervisor understands the problem I face at work.					
12. The pay matches my responsibility.					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13. The company clearly communicates its goals and strategies to me.					
14. My immediate supervisor shows respects and is flexible towards my family responsibility.					
15. I have the support and authority to make decisions necessary to accomplish the assigned tasks.					
16. I have enough involvement in decisions that affect my work.					
17. I am encouraged and motivated to come up with new and better ideas of doing things.					
18. My immediate supervisor accepts mistakes I make in the process of trying new things.					
19. I am satisfied with the empowerment I have to influence the quality of my work.					
20. I am satisfied with my immediate supervisor as a positive role model.					
21. Money is my only motivator at work.					
22. I am satisfied with the company as a place to work.					
23. I receive coaching and training from my immediate supervisor.					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
24. The training I have is enough to perform my tasks required.					
25. The work I do makes a difference here.					
26. Company leadership has made changes which are positive for me.					
27. My work offers me the opportunity for growth and development.					
28. I am aware of the promotions, demotions and turnover in the company.					
29. I am satisfied with the pay and benefits.					
30. The company holds celebrations for success.					
31. The colleagues are open and honest with each other.					
32. I would refer a friend or family to join the company.					
33. I receive enough opportunity to interact with other employees on a formal level.					
34. Managers seem willing to invest in the development of new team members.					
35. Diverse perspectives are valued within my department.					
36. My immediate supervisor is usually available for consultation.					
37. I am satisfied with the team spirit in my work environment.					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
38. I am satisfied with my overall job security.					
39. My immediate supervisor is willing to promote me.					
40. My immediate supervisor trains me whenever necessary.					
41. My department uses employee feedback to make improvements.					
42. This is the type of job in which I can feel a sense of accomplishment.					
43. My immediate supervisor takes time to meet and listen to me.					
44. The tasks I perform are reasonable. They are not too many and not too little.					
45. My immediate supervisor concerns about my personal needs and problems.					
46. The company holds monthly or yearly social events.					
47. My department holds regular team meetings.					
48. The environment I am working in is an enjoyable place to work.					
49. My immediate supervisor accepts comments.					
50. My immediate supervisor remembers something personal about me, such as birthdays.					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
51. The company supports frequent contests, celebrations and team building activities.					
52. I understand the company's mission statement, vision and values.					
53. My immediate supervisor cares about me as an individual.					

Please indicate to what extent you are motivated by the following aspects of your company on the right side.

Motivators	Highly motivated	Motivated	Not motivated
Interesting work			
Good wages			
Appreciation for job well done			
Job security			
Good working conditions			
Promotions and growth in the company			
Feeling of being in on things			
Personal loyalty to employees			
Tactful discipline			
Sympathetic help with personal problems			

Other suggestions:

Thank you for completing this questionnaire and your cooperation.