THE INFLUENCE OF SOURCE FEEDBACK PERCEPTIONS
ON MOTIVATION

by

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Greatest thanks to my Creator, for his mercy, love and entrusting me with the gift of ability.

DECLARATION

I, Brigitte Maria Catherine Viljoen declare that "The influence of source feedback on motivation" is my own work ant that the views as and opinions expressed in this work are those of the author and relevant literature references as shown in the bibliography.

I further declare that the content of this research is and will not be handed in for any other qualification at any other tertiary institution.

BRIGITTE MARIA CATHERINE VILJOEN   **OCTOBER 2003**

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by

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The aim of this study was to determine if source feedback perceptions have a significant influence on the motivation of employees.

It is widely known that employers place a high value on the motivation of employees as it influences their performance at work. Various researchers have studied motivation as a construct in an effort to explain the simple statement of "why employees do what they do".

In this study, motivation is discussed in terms of the expectancy theory. It is said that the strength of an individual's motivation to perform effectively is influenced by the person's perception that effort can be converted into performance, that the performance will lead to certain outcomes (rewards) and the attractiveness of the rewards to the individual. Communication plays a role in motivation by conveying information to make the perceived probability of effort- performance, performance-reward and reward-goal satisfaction linkages.

This study was initiated as a result of identifying certain problems in performance feedback when abolishing formal performance evaluations. Although performance appraisal is not seen as the only form of performance feedback, traditionally it has been linked to effort-

performance-reward contingencies as explained in the expectancy theory of motivation.

As a result, the study focused on perceptions, motivation, and the role each of the sources of feedback play in an organisational context. In the discussion of each of the five sources of feedback each type of feedback refers to a definition, perception, motivation and application in an organisational setting. Importantly, the individuals search for feedback and feedback obstruction is discussed.

This research is important for companies as a whole. The importance of communication and feedback to ensure employee motivation and satisfaction is highlighted. Without effective feedback, employees are not sure about their performance, what is expected of them or what they can expect as rewards for their performance. Organisations should thus take note of the importance of feedback for the employee, their performance in future and importantly the reaching of the organisation's goals.

Information was obtained by means of a questionnaire distributed to 196 individuals to determine motivation and the influence of the relevant sources of feedback on motivation. Statistical methods of correlation and regression analysis were used to determine the relationship between motivation and feedback.

SAMEVATTING

PERSEPSIES: DIE INVLOED VAN BRONNE VAN TERUGVOER OP MOTIVERING

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Die doel van die studie was om te bepaal of persepsies van verskeie oorde van terugvoer (ondermeer toesighouers en die taak wat verrig word) 'n betekenisvolle invloed op die motivering van werknemers het.

Dit is alom bekend dat werkgewers 'n groeiende belangstelling in die motivering van hul werknemers het, aangesien dit hul werkprestasie beïnvloed. Verskeie navorsers het motivering ondersoek om te bepaal "waarom werknemers doen wat hulle doen".

Met hierdie studie word daar veral op die konstruk "motivering" gefokus. Motivering word beskryf in terme van die verwagtingsteorie. Volgens die teorie is dit bevind dat 'n persoon se motivering om te presteer beïnvloed word deur sy persepsie rakende die inspanning-prestasie-uitkoms verhouding. Dit impliseer dat individue gefokus is op die verwagting dat 'n sekere mate van inspanning tot prestasie sal lei en dat prestasie, op sy beurt weer na 'n bepaalde uitkoms of vergoeding sal lei. Kommunikasie word hier as 'n kern rolspeler bestempel waarby dit inligting vir die vorming van persesies oor die inspanning-prestasie-uitkoms verhouding oordra.

'n Behoefte aan navorsing het ontstaan na die identifikasie van probleme met prestasie terugvoer nadat die formele prestasie stelsel weens verskeie redes nie meer in 'n organisasie gebruik is nie. Alhoewel prestasiemeting nie die enigste vorm van prestasie terugvoer is nie, het dit 'n bepaalde verband met vergoeding vir prestasie soos bepaal deur die verwagtings teorie.

Gevolglik fokus hierdie ondersoek op die persepsies, motivering en die rol wat elk van die bronne van terugvoer in organisasies speel. Terugvoer as komponent van die kommunikasieproses word bespreek met spesifieke verwysing na die vyf terugvoerbronne. Daar word melding gemaak van terugvoer en diè se verband met persepsie en motivering in organisasieverband.   Die individu en sy soeke na terugvoer asook die probleme wat ondervind word met terugvoer obstruksie, word ook bespreek.

Terugvoer en sy invloed op motivering is belangrik vir organisasies in geheel. Sonder effektiewe terugvoer vanaf 'n bron met gereelde tussenposes, is die werknemer nie bewus van sy werklike prestasie en wat van hom verwag word nie. Organisasies moet dus kennis neem van die belangrikheid van terugvoer vir die werknemer en hul toekomstige prestasie en uiteindelik die doelwitbereiking van die organisasies in geheel.

Inligting is met behulp van vraelyste ingewin (N=196). Met die vraelyste is bepaal wat die motiveringsvlak van die werknemers was en wat die invloed van hul persepsie van terugvoer op hul motivering gehad het. Vir die ontleding van die inligting is daar van korrelasies en regressie ontleding as statistiese metodes gebruik gemaak.

CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION

1.1   INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Motivation is described as:

" The willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need (Robbins 1998:168)." Motivation is thus driven and directed by needs.

Needs are described by Maslow in his well known hierarchy of needs and include needs such as physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem and self-actualisation needs (Robbins, 1998).

Organisations are seen as one of the great suppliers of resources to satisfy these needs. Organisations supply individuals of resources in return for services rendered, e.g. organisations can supply financial rewards for performance to satisfy physiological needs and safety needs, social needs via interpersonal contact and esteem and self-actualisation needs by means of challenging tasks.

Feedback, as a component of communication is also regarded as an outcome after performance. It is seen as an outcome due to the fact that it informs employees about their performance. Feedback is provided by different sources including the task itself, the supervisor, other employees, the employee himself or herself and by the organisation (by means of performance evaluations).

Due to the fact that individuals receive feedback from different sources in the organisation, perceptions are sure to play a role in the world and the understanding thereof. The formation of perceptions is a subjective

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process and comprises of organising and interpretation of stimuli that has an influence on behaviour.

This study thus focuses on the interaction of perception, motivation and feedback on behaviour.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Greller and Harrold (in Ilgen et al, 1979:353) identified five sources of feedback. The five sources of feedback are as stated above seen as supervisors, co-workers, performance evaluation, tasks, and the self. It is important to note that all five the sources of feedback are generic to all organisations (Walsch, Ashford and Hill, 1981:29).

The focus of the study is on a company in which the formal performance appraisal process has been abolished due to various reasons. The "no formal performance appraisal approach" has been followed to date. After discussion with various role-players, it was found that not having a performance appraisal system obstructed the information flow of performance feedback to the individual.

Based on the above it was deemed important to determine the influence of source feedback perceptions (from the other four sources) on motivation in the absence of formal performance appraisals and as a secondary objective to determine if employees would like to be evaluated by means of performance appraisals.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to determine if source feedback (from the five different sources) has a significant influence on the motivation of employees.

1.4   RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The first chapter states the nature of the problem and establishes the need for the research. Chapter two describes perception as a construct. Perception is explained with reference to the perception process, its link to communication and applications of perceptions in organisational context.

Chapter three refers to motivation and consists of a discussion on the history of motivational theories. The expectancy theory is discussed in terms of the Porter-Lawler model of work motivation. Lastly, specific applications of motivation are discussed in the context of expectancy theory.

Chapter four defines communication as a construct and feedback as a component of the communication process. Feedback is defined yet again, but as a communication process itself. The individual and the processing of feedback is discussed in terms of Ilgen, Fisher and Taylor's model of the effects of feedback on recipients. A discussion of each of the five sources of feedback follows and each refers to a definition, the relationship to the model of the effects of feedback on recipients, perception, motivation and application in an organisational setting. The individuals search for feedback and feedback obstruction is also discussed.

Chapter five explains the research methodology and in chapter six, the results and findings are shown and discussed. Conclusions and recommendations are made in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 2:
PERCEPTION

2.1   INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION

The process of perception is of prime importance in the life of all individuals. The environment (including the business environment) is filled with stimuli continuously demanding our attention. Robbins (1998:90) sees the study of perception as important due to behaviour being based on the individual's perception of what reality is and not on reality itself.

Landy (1984:157) defines perception as the interpretation of neural impulses sent by sensory receptors to the brain and it involves attention/search, organisation, and interpretation. Robbins (1998) defines perception similarly as "A process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment". Baron (1990:116) agrees with Robbins by stating that perception is the process through which individuals select, organise and interpret information brought to them by their senses in order to understand the world around them. Mitchel (in Hargie et al, 1986:42) describes perception as "those processes that shape and produce what we actually experience".

The quality of perception depends on the way that stimuli or information reaching the senses is organised, processed and interpreted. Individuals are only able to react to information after interpreting behaviour (McKenna, 1994: 113).

According to Fieldhouse (1990:18) perception as a process consists of five elements: Stimulus, attention and search, organising/ structuring, interpretation and action. He adds the following:

- Internal and external factors are important in the formation of perceptions

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- Previous experience have an influence on the formation of perceptions
- The formation of perceptions is seen as a cognitive process.

In the following discussion, each of the components of the process of perception will be discussed.

2.2   THE PERCEPTION PROCESS

Landy (in Fieldhouse et al, 1990:19) describes the basic process of perception in figure 1.

FIGURE 1   THE BASIC PERCEPTION PROCESS

| Sensory pathway | → | Search / Attention | → | Organisation | → | Interpretation | → | Action |
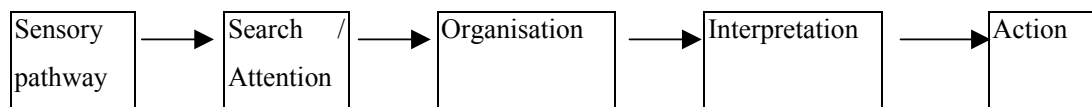
The process of perception is discussed below.

2.2.1 STIMULUS (SENSORY PATHWAY)

People rely on senses in order to experience the world. According to McKenna (1994:114), humans possess at least 10 sensory channels: vision, hearing, taste, smell, touch, warmth, cold, pain, kinaesthesis and vestibular. He further states that each sense provides a channel through which information is transmitted to the brain. For every sense receptor on the surface of the body, there are nerves that connect the receptors to the brain and certain areas of the central nervous system. Due to the fact that there are different channels through which the information flows, each type of information has its own pathway to the brain. Perception, though through the different senses, can be integrated, e.g. a person can sit and hear the lecturer speak, feel the hardness of the chair and feel uncomfortably hot because of the high temperature in the room.

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2.2.2 SEARCH AND ATTENTION (SELECTIVE PERCEPTION)

The environment is filled with a vast amount of information or stimuli and an individual is forced to select or search for the information required, and ignore that is not applicable to him or her. Landy (1984:157) explains the difference between search and selective attention when stating the following:

"Search is defined as an active process in which an individual seeks out critical information and selective attention is described as the fact that we respond to certain aspects of the environment and ignore others".

Individuals differ in terms of what stimulus is searched for or selected. The stimulus chosen can usually be associated with a person's internal factors and the external environment (McKenna, 1994:113-166). These factors are discussed below.

2.2.2.1   Internal Factors

Internal factors are seen as those attributes of an individual that determine if he or she will give specific attention to a stimulus (Fieldhouse, 1990). McKenna (1994) classifies the less quantifiable variables that are unique to the individual (also seen as the internal state of the individual) into preparatory set, orientation, intensity of motives and familiarity of stimuli.

a)   Preparatory set

Preparatory set refers to the range of items that individuals are more programmed to see due to their internal state (personality, motivation, and previous learning). Anything outside the preparatory set is ignored irrespective of the stimuli to which individuals are exposed. In terms of past experiences it is easily understood that an individual perceives those things he or she can relate to, but in some cases past experiences will act

to nullify the interest of an object. New objects and events that have never been experienced can be more noticeable than those that have been experienced in the past (Robbins, 1998:93). Expectancy can also influence perception as they are seen to distort perceptions (Robbins, 1998). In this sense, individuals "see what they expect to see" e.g. rugby players are expected to be rough and aggressive even if their personalities may not reflect these characteristics.

b)   Orientation

Orientation is seen as the attitude adopted towards a set of physical stimuli, based on background, interest and other elements (McKenna, 1994:127). It can be seen as an individual growing up in a family where both the parents are devoted members of the police services. The individual would then grow up with an attitude or orientation that all members of the police force are devoted individuals. In this case the individual influenced the individual's orientation towards police officers was influenced by his or her background.

c)   Intensity of motives

Unsatisfied needs have a strong influence on the perception of individuals (Robbins, 1998). McKenna (1994:129) refers to an example where a hungry person will focus selectively onto food-related stimuli in his environment because of their association with the reduction of a need deficiency (hunger). McKenna (1994) further states that perception could also assist in coping with threats. Individuals are protected from distraction of mildly threatening stimuli, but alerted to the danger of strongly threatening stimuli.

d)   Familiarity of stimuli

Experience of a particular stimulus amidst a range of stimuli to which an individual may be indifferent attracts attention or an unfamiliar object

amidst a range of familiar ones produces a similar effect. This is explained by using an example of a person in civilian clothing amidst a group of soldiers in uniform. Prior learning may also have that effect as it creates a tendency to pay attention to familiar patterns (McKenna, 1994:129). This is illustrated by an English person reading a book and interpreting meaning to letters printed on a page. Interpretation would take place due to symbols (letters) being organised (English) and having meaning. The same symbols organised differently (e.g. French) would be ignored, if the person is not proficient in French.

2.2.2.2   External environmental factors

According to Myers and Myers (1985:34), the following external factors influence the choice of stimuli:

a) Size

The greater the size of the stimulus, the greater the chance it being noticed by an individual.

b) Repetition

Repeating the stimuli improves the chances of the individual keeping his attention focused on the chosen stimulus.

c) Movement

Movement is seen as a logical inference that a moving stimulus attracts more attention than a motionless stimulus.

d) Intensity

The greater the intensity of the stimulus, the greater the chance that the individual will take notice of it.

McKenna (1994:120) agrees with all the above factors, but adds other factors namely position, novelty, colour, and contrast that have an influence on the choice of stimuli. He states that position is also important and refers to placing adverts in magazines. Position helps to select an interested audience and attract readers at a time when they are particularly receptive to the appeal of a particular product. Novelty is explained by stating that people tend to notice distinctive or novel aspects of their environments and refers to humour, animation and unusual graphics in advertisements. Colour is often used as a device to attract attention and portray realism. It is used to emphasise the attractive features of a product or to create a suitable atmosphere. In the workplace colour can also be used to create pleasant surroundings, and to put across and reinforce safety messages. Contrast is seen as another means to attract attention. Baron (1990:117) states that individuals are inclined to experience the world in terms of figures and backgrounds. He adds that individuals would easily notice a stimulus against a contrasting background, e.g. a white plate on a black tablecloth.

2.2.3 PERCEPTIONAL ORGANISATION

After focusing on certain stimuli, the information received from the stimuli is organised. According to McKenna (1994:129) this process could be difficult, as a stimulus is often very ambiguous.

In terms of organising stimuli, the Gestalt Laws of organisation play a role. The word "Gestalt" is of German origin and has the meaning of "whole". According to Gestalt psychologists, individuals perceived whole units of information or stimuli and not parts of sensation (Landy, 1984:161). This approach explains how stimuli are grouped together. Some of these laws of organising are discussed below.

**2.2.3.1	Background**

Fieldhouse (1990:27) describes the background principle by referring to the process by which an individual breaks up stimuli in terms of what he or she deems to be important or less important. The most important features are "more visible" and the less important, move to the background. Individuals often find it difficult to distinguish between background and figures. This principle is described by the figure presented below.

**FIGURE 2	DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN BACKGROUND AND FIGURES**

(Source: Landy, 1984:159)

In this figure, individuals see two black profiles facing each other or a vase. Depending on what an individual sees as the background and the figure will dictate which image is seen. What the individual sees as the background or the figure, will depend on the way in which he or she identifies the contours or edges. In the above figure, an individual can be seen to play a guessing game. This is done by trying to guess what object could produce the picture he or she is looking at. The figure is thus also seen as being ambiguous as it could represent several different contours or shapes. Several other principles are used to understand how a person might reduce ambiguity (Landy, 1984:161).

Grouping of stimuli is often used to reduce ambiguity. (Landy, 1984:161; McKenna, 1994:131). Grouping takes place by using the following principles:

a)   Area Gestalt principle

The smaller a closed area, the more likely it is to be seen as the figure than the background.

FIGURE 3   THE GESTALT AREA PRINCIPLE
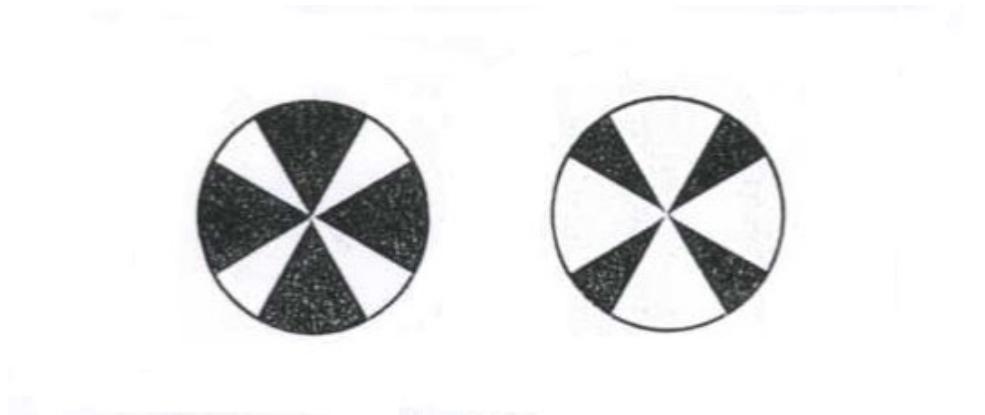
(Source: Landy, 1984:159)

In this figure the circles are separated from the squares and thus a group of circles are seen clearly against a collection of squares (Landy, 1984:161).

b)   Proximity Gestalt principle

Elements close to one another tend to be seen as a single unit.

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FIGURE 4   **THE PROXIMITY GESTALT PRINCIPLE**

A   B   C
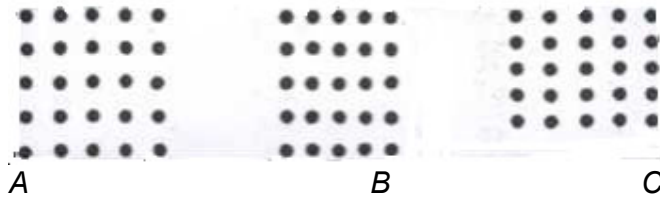
The spacing of the dots in these figures influences perception. In A, the dots are equally distant from one another. Rows of dots or columns of dots are identified. In B, the dots are closer to each other on the horizontal dimension, so the figure appears as horizontal rows of dots. In C, the dots are closer on the vertical dimension, so the figure appears as vertical rows of dots (Source: Landy, 1984:159).

c)   Similarity Gestalt principle

Similar objects tend to be grouped together.

FIGURE 5   **SIMILARITY GESTALT PRINCIPLE**
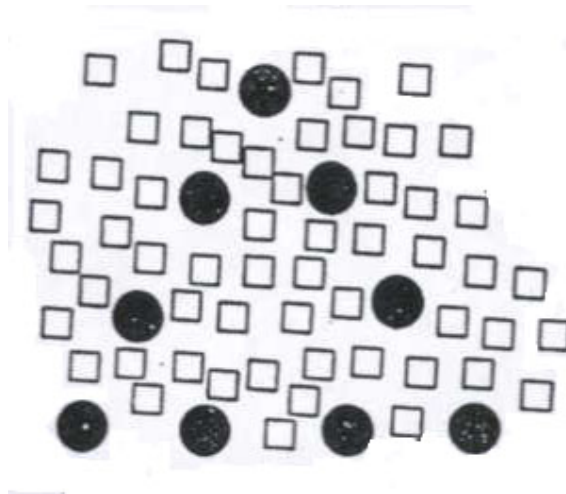
In the above figure, circles and squares are separated from each other.

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d)   Closure Gestalt principle

Closure is seen as a human tendency to complete stimuli.

FIGURE 6   CLOSURE GESTALT PRINCIPLE

(Source: Landy, 1984:159)

Closure is gained by giving motives and characteristics to persons or objects (Gilmer in Fieldhouse <u>et al</u>, 1990:27).

2.2.4 PERCEPTUAL INTERPRETATION

McKenna (1994:138) describes perceptual interpretation by stating:

"Perceptual interpretation occurs when we relate stimuli to a cognitive context. The cognitive context consists of various thought processes, ideas, and feelings about experiences and happenings in the word around us, which we have built up based on our own life experiences. It is a primary determinant of perception and response because it embraces such phenomena as our needs, goals, values, education, and accounts for the selectivity in perception…. As a result the same objective stimulus or happening could be seen differently by different people."

Interpretation is seen as the last step in the cognitive process of interpretation. According to Gilbert (in Fieldhouse <u>et al</u>, 1990:28) the forming of a perception consists of three processes:

2.2.4.1   Categorising

In this process actions are identified. It is an automatic process and happens immediately without the perceiver taking notice of it.

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2.2.4.2   Characterising

This process is one by which certain inferences are made with regard to the perceived individual. Gilbert (in Fieldhouse <u>et al</u>, 1990:28) identifies certain factors that may influence the process of perception.

a)   Cultural conditioning

According to Klein (in Fieldhouse <u>et al</u>, 1990:28) cultural differences cause individuals to interpret information about others in different ways. Forced interaction by individuals, disregarding their cultural differences, may negatively influence their communication.

b)   Stereotyping

This is the process of judging an individual on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs to (Robbins 1998:99). Stereotyping has certain drawbacks (e.g. judging all women as bad drivers just because they are female) and advantages (make the environment less complicated and permits more consistency).

c)   Projection

This is seen as a process in which a person projects his own attitudes and motives onto others in the interpretation of their behaviour.

d)   Halo effect and the horns effect

The "halo effect" can be described as taking place when after perceiving only one positive characteristic, a range of positive characteristics are attributed to the person in question. The 'horns effect" is seen as the opposite of the halo effect. It takes place for example when somebody is given an adverse evaluation at a particular stage of his or her career and

may find that subsequently, when his or her profile has improved, an evaluation still bears the scars of the earlier assessment (McKenna, 1994: 145). The "rusty halo effect" is seen as another form of the "halo effect". Here an employee that is seen as not being successful in one task, is perceived to be unsuccessful in all other tasks that he may do.

e)   First impressions

The expression "first impressions last" is a form of characterising. Individuals would add, ignore and modify information to suit first impressions formed about individuals. First impressions form a "resistance" against change. An example would be a soldier in uniform that has an untidy, dirty appearance. This impression would make one wonder if the person would be able to defend the country effectively, as it should seem that he has a lack of discipline (Klein in Fieldhouse et al, 1990:29)

f)   Role expectations

Roles can be seen as a set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit. How others believe a person in such a position should behave is explained by role expectations (Robbins, 1998:252). A doctor is expected to be knowledgeable in medicine and care for patients' health.

g)   Emotions

According to Hargie (1986:30) an individual's emotional state may influence his or her ability to perceive. A classical example would be that of "love is blind". This is when a person in love does not interpret any negative stimuli from the other person.

h)   Experience

Experience may influence the way in which behaviour is perceived. Landy (1984:184) refers to maturing that goes hand in hand with experience, which may lead to greater competence in perceiving others.

i)   Use of words

The way individuals use words, may influence perceptions in a social unit. Direct messages, with exact meanings could minimise the problem (Certo in Fieldhouse et al, 1990:30). Using "slang" in formal settings may influence perceptions in the social unit e.g. something described as "cool" may not have any reference to temperature.

j)   Perception of oneself

The self-perception a manager has may influence his perception of others as well as his behaviour towards them. If his self-perception is not as strong/positive he would rather associate with employees than with management (Megginson in Fieldhouse et al, 1990: 30).

k)   Selective perception

Individuals selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience and attitudes (Robbins, 1998:97). Prominent characteristics are interpreted, but less obvious characteristics are disregarded (Fieldhouse, 1990:31). Koontz (in Fieldhouse et al, 1990:31) state:

 "There is a tendency to disregard the unpleasant and to be more receptive to the positive and the pleasant". This implies that people would like to disregard the negative (unhappy employees), but will focus on the pleasant (higher profit).

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2.2.4.3   Correction

This is the final step in refining data and refers to adapt conclusions made in the previous steps to situational variables (Gilbert in Fieldhouse et al, 1990: 31).

The following are seen as important situational variables:

a)   Working environment

The physical working environment may influence perceptions. Factors that are seen as important are seen as lighting, noise, atmospheric circumstances, safety, resting periods and music (Degenaar, 1994:44).

b)   Psychological environment

Gerber (in Fieldhouse et al, 1990:31) describes the psychological environment as the psychological tension that employees experience in the process of completing their tasks and includes the psychological contract.

c)   Social environment

The social environment entails all interpersonal and intra-personal interactions that take place in groups and between groups in a working environment. The satisfaction an individual receives out of this interaction adds to his/her motivation and job satisfaction (Gerber in Fieldhouse et al 1990: 31)

d)   Organisational climate

Organisational climate refers to the typical or characteristic day-to-day properties of a particular work environment - its nature as perceived and

felt by those who work in it or are familiar with it (Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1975:456).

e)   The organisational environment

The organisation supplies individuals with stimuli that influence perceptions. According to Porter et al (1975:104-105), these stimuli can be characterised into two classes:

- **Expectations**

The organisation provides information to individuals with regard to what is expected from them. This is important to ensure control:

"Organisations must, to some extent, develop and use systems of control which ensure (1) that the activities of organisation members are, in fact, orientated toward the goals of the organisation; that organisation members who are assigned responsibility for carrying out specific functional activities in the interest of organisational objectives actually perform those functions – and not other functions which are the assigned responsibility of others in the organisation; and that explicit means of co-ordinating among individuals and sub units of the organisation be developed and followed- so that activities of organisation members are in fact organised, and organised in such a way that the various "pieces" of the organisation combine effectively toward achievement of organisational goals" (Porter et al, 1975:104-105).

This is achieved by selection, socialisation, evaluation and reward systems, measurement and control systems and supervisory practices. The organisation can communicate expectancies by means of supervisors, peers, subordinates and the employee's employment contract.

- **Resources**

The company can contribute resources to the individual-company interaction. Examples of resources are money, benefits, interesting activities and work. According to Porter et al (1975:104-105), even expectancies such as travel, can become a resource, if an employee experiences the travel activity as "a way to see the world".

2.3   PERCEPTION AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

2.3.1 INTRODUCTION

As perception is seen as a major role-player in individuals' lives, it was deemed important to illustrate the role of perception as an important factor in processes such as interpersonal communication.

Robbins (1998:2) describes an organisation, as "a consciously co-ordinated social unit comprised of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals."

As commonly known, communication in organisations are used to share ideas, goals, reduce stress, resolve conflict and all in all to inform members of important matters concerning them.

In the light of the above, it can be said that to be able to achieve goals, individuals in organisations communicate with each other in different ways:
- Management communicates with subordinates in groups, teams and on individual basis
- Supervisors communicate with subordinates in groups, teams and on individual basis
- Co-workers communicate with each other in groups, teams and on individual basis

In the model that follows, the influence of perceptions on behaviour is described in terms of goals, motivation, mediating factors and feedback in a social unit. As organisations compose of different social units such as work groups and teams the model is described in terms of application in an organisational setting.

2.3.2   MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

2.3.2.1   Goals and motivation

Maslow identified a number of needs that have to be satisfied before and individual can live life to the full. These needs are widely known and organised in a similarly known hierarchy of needs. These needs include physiological needs (hunger, thirst, shelter, sex and other bodily needs), Safety needs (security and protection from physical and emotional harm), social needs (affection and friendship), esteem (self-respect, autonomy, achievement) and self-actualisation (Robbins, 1998:169). Needs influence the individual's motivation to attain certain goals to satisfy these needs. A person in an organisation may have the need to earn more income as his personal need for providing financial comfort for his/her family may increase with the birth of a child.

2.3.2.2   Mediating factors

Hargie (1986:31) describes mediating factors in the following manner:

"The term 'mediating factors' is described as those internal states, activities or processes within the individual which mediate between the feedback which is perceived, the goal which is being perused and the responses that are made. These factors are important as they influence the way in which people and events are perceived, and determine the capacity of the individual to assimilate, process and respond to, the social information received during interpersonal encounters. It is in this stage

that the person makes decisions about the likelihood of goals being achieved, given the existing situation, and then decides upon an appropriate course of action."

These factors have already been discussed and include factors such as cognition, emotion, experience, and the disposition of the perceiver. The individual seeking financial security for his growing family in the above mentioned example of needs described above, would assess his working environment cognitively in terms of his experience of receiving rewards for effort in performance (incentives or other financial rewards).

2.3.2.3 Personal factors

Personal appearance plays a major role in the way individuals judge each other. These factors are visual and available to others. Examples of personal factors are seen as the sex of the individual, age and dress.

2.3.2.4 Situational Factors

Situational factors are vital in determining the behaviour of individuals during interpersonal encounters. This is explained by Magnusson (in Hargie, 186:50) by stating that individuals learn about the world and form conceptions about it in terms of the exposure to experiences, and could only be fully understood through knowledge of situational variables. He further states that knowledge of situations could then increase the understanding of the behaviour of individuals. Examples of situational variables in the organisational context are the working environment, the psychological environment, the social environment, and the organisational climate.

2.3.2.5 Responses

Responses are seen as the implementation of an action plan by employing a range of behaviour to achieve goals.

Hargie (1986:35) describes two ways of responding behaviour. Linguistic behaviour is seen as all aspects of speech (verbal content and the paralinguistic message associated with it such as pitch). Non-linguistic communication encompasses all bodily communication and focuses on the study of what a person does rather than what he says. Referring back to the example, a person may confront his manager verbally and ask for a raise or he could attempt to work harder and improve his performance.

2.3.2.6   Feedback

After a response has taken place, the individual will actively seek feedback do determine the impact of his or her behaviour. He or she will then alter subsequent responses in the light of the information received. In order to perform any task efficiently, it is deemed necessary to receive feedback, so that corrections can be made. Building on the example, a person may receive information form his supervisor after asking him/her about a raise or ask for feedback on performance delivered. If the verbal request is denied, the person would ask for channels to follow in order to qualify for a raise or if a person has performed, would like feedback in a form of a performance appraisal (either formally or informally).

2.3.2.7   Perceptions

As stated earlier, perception is the process through which individuals select, organise and interpret information brought to them by their senses in order to understand the word around them (Baron, (1990:116). Feedback, in this model, forms a component of this model feeding information back into the system (at perception as entry point) as an additional input, which in turn influences further output (Hargie, 1986:39). It could then be assumed that information received from the supervisor with regard to the raise or performance rendered would then affect his or her perceptions in determining further action to be taken.

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Interpersonal communication is influenced and influences perceptions in organisations as described above. As stated above, perceptions influence behaviour in organisations, but is also applied in organisations on a daily basis to reach organisational goals.

FIGURE 7   MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION
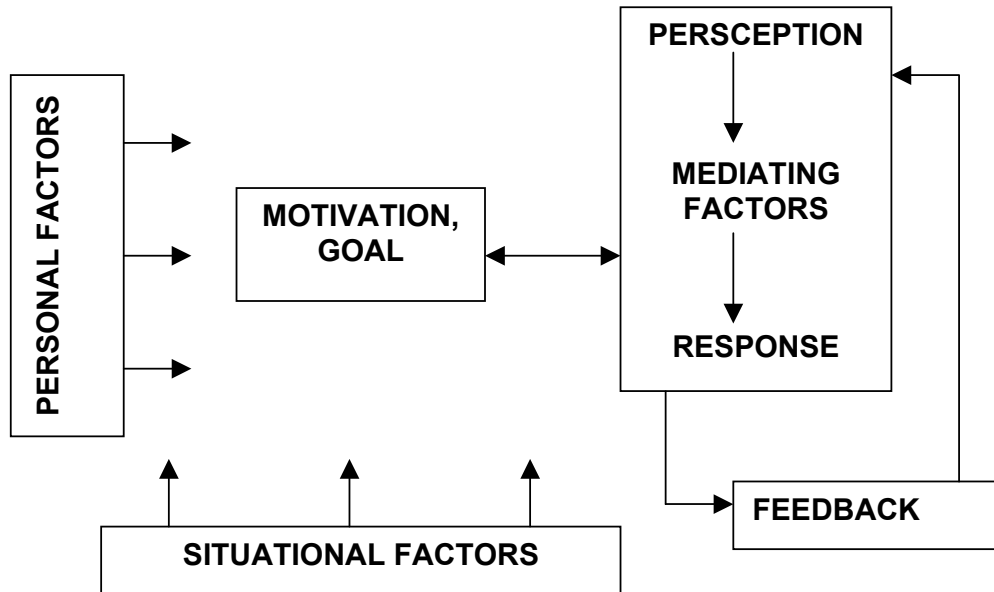
(Source: Hargie, 1986:25)

2.4 APPLICATIONS OF PERCEPTIONS IN ORGANISATIONS

"Individuals behave in a given manner based not on the way their external environment actually is but, rather, on what they see or believe it to be" (Robbins, 1998:120). This statement applies in various organisational settings that will be discussed below.

2.4.1 Employee selection

The objective of selection practices is to match individual characteristics such as ability and experience with the specific requirements of the job (Robbins, 1998:552). In this instance, perceptions play an important role.

2.4.1.1   Employment interview

Employment interviews are still widely used although they are seen as subjective. Employment interviews are first meetings between strangers and it is understandable that social perception will play a major role in the process of interviewing. It has been found that quite a few factors are important in this event:

2.4.1.2   First impressions

First impressions as discussed earlier, would influence the process of selection. If negative information is exposed in early phases of the interview, it tends to be weighted higher than if the information is uncovered later. An applicant making a favourable impression is characterised more by the absence of negative factors than by the presence of positive factors (Robbins, 1998:101).

2.4.1.3   Non-verbal cues

It was found that the more positive the cues that were transmitted by the applicants, the higher ratings they received. It is however not always the case. Research indicated that where information regarding the qualifications of a candidate was available, it weighed much more than the nature of the applicants' non-verbal behaviour. Where applicants with poor credentials emitted many non-verbal cues, they were rated lower, as it was perceived that they wanted to shift away from their poor performances (Baron, 1990:137).

2.4.1.4   Stereotypes

It was explained earlier that stereotypes can influence perceptions of others and according to Baron (1990:137), they play a role in job interviews. He referred to gender role stereotypes. Gender role

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stereotypes suggest that members of the two sexes possess different characteristics. Men for example tended to be more forceful, assertive, and defensive, while females seemed to be more passive, emotional, and indecisive. It must however be said, that these stereotypes have been proven either false or not so strong as gender stereotypes suggest. It was also found that the more information was available to the interviewer, the less the influence of gender (Baron, 1990:138).

2.4.1.5   Differences in the perceptions of interviewers

Interviewers differ in terms of what they perceive to be important characteristics of an applicant to be successful. Judgements of the same character may differ and it is thus important that interviewers take care to recognise the perceptual factors that influence the selection of applicants (Robbins, 1998:101).

2.4.1.6   Induction

Induction is described as a process that focuses on the adaptation of the new employee to the working environment. Induction decreases delays in becoming productive as well as reducing fear and insecurity. Both the individual and the organisation form perceptions. It is thus important to inform new employees with regard to important aspects of the company relating to their performance. (Nel, 2002:283).

2.4.2 Employee effort

Performance is not always the only indicator of a good future in an organisation. The perceived effort an employee puts into his/her job is also seen as very important. The subjective assessment of an individual's effort is open to perceptual bias and distortions. Perceptions may thus influence an individual's future in an organisation (Robbins, 1998:102).

2.4.3   Performance appraisals

Performance appraisals are of great importance as they influence the future of the employee with regard to promotions, raises and continued employment. Performance appraisals are very dependent on the perception process, as many jobs cannot be evaluated objectively (such as number of production outputs delivered). Subjective evaluations are easier to implement and provide a lager "scope" for evaluation. Individuals however, are never completely accurate in the role of evaluator, as they possess limited capacities to process, store, and retrieve information (Baron, 1990:139). (These subjective evaluations directly imply the evaluator being judgmental). What the manager thus sees as good or bad performance, will influence the outcome of the appraisal (Robbins, 1998:102).

2.4.4   Employee loyalty

Employee loyalty is perceived as important. Employees may be seen as less loyal if they are looking for alternative employment or if managers "disparage" a firm. Employees whistle blowing, may be perceived as being disloyal, even if they feel that their actions are done in the interest of the company (Robbins, 1998:102).

2.5   SUMMARY

This chapter examined perception by defining the concept and explaining the formation of perceptions. Perception was discussed as a process and each component of the process was described.

Finally, perceptions were described in terms of application in organisational settings. The roles of perceptions were discussed by referring to employment interviews, performance appraisals, employee effort, employee loyalty and expectancies.

Conclusively, managers and supervisors should understand the concept of perception and the influence it may have on individual's interpretation of reality and consequently, behaviour. Managers have a distinct role to play in the elimination of distorted perceptions that may negatively impact employee behaviour and thus must also try and understand and investigate the question of why employees do what they do……

CHAPTER 3:
MOTIVATION

3.1   INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION

Due to various reasons including globalisation, increased competition and high costs associated with employment, organisations are forced to utilise and manage their human resources at an optimum level. Katz en Kahn (in Steers, Porter and Bigley et al, 1996:2) showed that organisations had three requirements in this regard:

"People must be attracted not only to join the organisation, but also to remain in it; People must perform tasks for which the have been hired and must do so in a dependable manner; and people must go beyond this *dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative, spontaneous, and innovative behaviour at work"*. In this view the question may be asked: "What makes an employee do what he does?" or "What motivates employees?".

Motivation has to do with a set of dependant/independent variable relationships that explain the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behaviour, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment (Cambell and Pritchard in Steers et al, 1996:8).

Robbins (1998:168) defines motivation in an organisational context as:

" The willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need."

Robbins (1998) describes motivation as a process in terms of needs. A need is described as some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension and this tension,

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creates drives within the individual. These drives generate a search behaviour to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and lead to the reduction of tension.

3.2   THE MOTIVATION PROCESS

FIGURE 8   THE MOTIVATION PROCESS

Unsatisfied	Tension	Drives	Search behaviour	Satisfied need	Reduction of tension
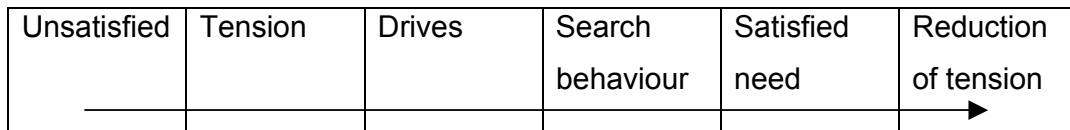
(Source: Robbins:1998:168)

To summarise, the following basic principles can be taken from research with regard to motivation:

Motivation is, according to Steers et al (1996:8) primarily concerned with what (1) activates human behaviour, (2) what directs or channels such behaviour, and (3) how this behaviour is maintained or sustained. They further state that these components represent an important factor in the understanding of human behaviour in the workplace. This conceptualisation points to energetic forces within individuals that drive them to behave in certain ways and to environmental forces that often trigger these drives. They also state that there is a notion of goal orientation on the part of the individuals – their behaviour is directed toward something and this particular way of viewing motivation contains a systems orientation i.e. it considers those forces in individuals and their surrounding environments that feed back to the individuals either to reinforce the intensity of their drive and the direction of their energy or to dissuade them from their course of action and redirect their efforts.

3.3   MODELS OF MOTIVATION

As is commonly known, the industrial revolution changed the whole world of manufacturing from home based operations or "home industries" to highly industrial operations with high levels of capital investments on a greater scale. This production revolution impacted on the social side of life as well. According to Steers <u>et al</u> (1996:25), the social revolution can be traced to three main factors.

Firstly, the higher capital investment for operations required increased efficiency to maintain returns on investment, thus indicating the need for an efficient work force.

Secondly, the size of operations increased the degree of impersonalizaton in superior-subordinate relationships that necessitated a change in the way supervision took place.

Thirdly, a notion of "every person for himself or herself " developed in the workplace.

It is thus obvious that in the light of the above management practises had to adapt and change to suit the changing environment. In this period, a few theories came to light and developed into the theories of work motivation, as we know them today.

3.3.1 TRADITIONAL MODEL

Frederick Taylor and his associates founded the traditional model of work motivation. It was argued that employees are motivated financially. This model represented a joint venture of management and workers to the benefit of both. Where production problems arose, alterations were made on the technology of the job or the wage incentive program.

In this model, workers were seen as being lazy, dishonest, aimless and dull. Tasks were simple and repetitive, output controls were externally set and workers were paid bonuses when exceeding quotas. It was seen as management 's responsibility to select suitable employees and train them (Degenaar, 1994:8; Steers et al, 1996:26).

The approach was used in many organisations, but it had certain distinct problems. The quest for more profit lead to more modifications to the basic systems and jobs became more routine and specialised, leading to more constraints on the incentive system, thus limiting worker income. Job security also became a factor, with the development of technology, more and more employees were laid off and jobs terminated. These changes lead to the start of unionism and a change in the managerial approach to increase production and maintain a steady workforce (Steers et al, 1996:26)

3.3.2 HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL

As stated above the traditional model was seen as inadequate to motivate employees. With this approach to motivation, employees were seen as social beings that interact with other employees in meaningful ways and try to satisfy their needs in a work environment. This approach was encouraged by the Hawthorne experiments where employees were recognised as individuals and felt important due to the attention given to them (Degenaar, 1994:9). Failure to recognise employees as human beings were regarded as the cause of low morale, poor craftsmanship, unresponsiveness, and confusion (Steers et al, 1996:28) in organisations. A few motivational strategies emerged from the "best method" of motivating employees.

- Management had a responsibility to make employees feel important.
- Communication channels were opened vertically to inform employees as well as receive information from employees

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- Employees were given the opportunity to make routine decisions concerning their own jobs
- Incentive schemes for groups were introduced as managers realised that small groups existed within organisations that had their own norms and role prescriptions.
- The role of the supervisor also changed from a task giver to person having to understand and be sympathetic to the needs and desires of their subordinates (Steers et al, 1996:28).

3.3.3 HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL

The Human Relations Model was seen as very oversimplified and an incomplete statement of human behaviour. According to the human resources model, human behaviour is viewed as being motivated by a range of complex factors. They are also viewed as reservoirs of potential talent and it is seen as management's responsibility to tap into the resources of these individuals.

The basic philosophy behind the human resources model are seen as the following:

- People want to contribute to the job they are doing
- Work is not always seen as distasteful
- Employees are quite capable of making decisions that are rational and significant
- Good and meaningful tasks lead to job satisfaction

The above mentioned assumptions lead management to apply certain strategies such as using the resource of human potential more effectively. It leads management to help the employees to reach their own goals within the organisational context. It further implies higher employee participation in decision-making activities and autonomy over task accomplishment.

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This approach to management receives a high level of attention. It can be said however that due to the dynamic and individual nature of all organisations, each of these approaches or combinations of approaches may lead to success (Steers et al, 1996:29).

3.4   MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

According to Steers et al (1996:9) two basic groups of theories exist. They are seen as:

a)   Content Theories

These theories assume that factors exist within the individual that energise, direct and sustain behaviour and are concerned with the identification of important internal elements and the explanation of how these elements may be prioritised within the individual.

Content models are seen as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Hertzberg's motivator-hygiene, McCleland's learned needs, McGregor's X and Y theory, Argyris' Theory and Alderfer's existence-relatedness-growth theory

b)   Process Theories

Process theories attempt to describe how behaviour is activated, directed, and sustained. These theories focus on certain psychological processes underlying action. In particular, process theories place heavy emphasis on describing the functioning of the individual's decision system as it relates to behaviour.

Process models are seen as Vroom's expectancy theory and the Porter-Lawler model of motivation.

For the purpose of this study the following theories will be discussed:

- Vroom's Expectancy Theory
- The Porter-Lawler model. In the process of describing the Porter-Lawler model, the Equity Theory is also used to explain the issue of equitable rewards.

3.4.1 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY

Vroom based his model on the assumption that individuals make conscious and rational choices regarding their behaviour in the workplace. He stated that employees rationally evaluate various work behaviours and then choose those that they believe will lead to the work related rewards that they value most. This means that employees will decide to apply effort to those tasks that they find attractive and that they believe they can perform. It can thus be said that the attractiveness of a particular task depends upon the extent to which the employee believes that its accomplishment will lead to valued outcomes (Steers et al, 1996:23).

3.4.2 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY AND THE PORTER-LAWLER MODEL

The Porter-Lawler model extended and refined the expectancy model of Vroom. It is agreed that employee effort is jointly determined by the valence that employees place on certain outcomes and the degree to which people believe that their efforts will lead to the attainment of these rewards. They emphasise that effort however, may not necessarily result in performance due to ability (an individual not having the needed ability) and not understanding the task needed to be performed (Steers et al, 1996:23).

FIGURE 9   THE PORTER-LAWLER MODEL OF WORK MOTIVATION
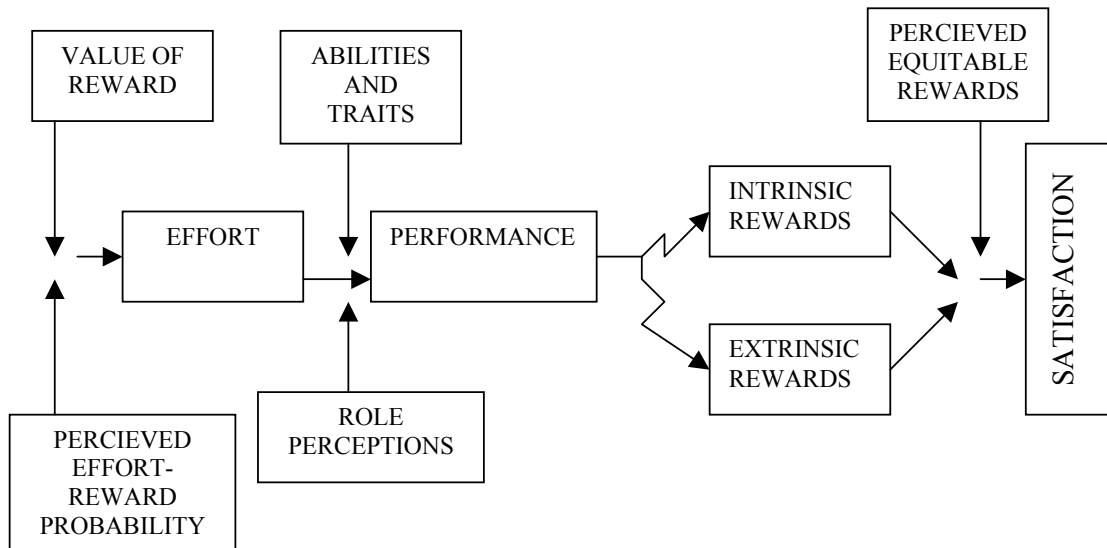
(Source: Landy, 1989:382)

"A person's motivation to exert effort towards a specific level of performance is based on his or her perceptions of associations between actions and outcomes (Hackman et al, 1979:74)."

The vital perceptions that contribute to motivation are regarded as the following (Hackman et al: 1979)

a)   Valence

Valence refers to the value or attractiveness of outcomes to an individual. These outcomes have different values for individuals and result from an individual's needs and perceptions, which differ because they reflect other factors in the individual's life.

b)   Performance outcome expectancy

Certain outcomes (rewards or punishment) have been associated with expectancies in the mind of the individual. The individual thus expects that if he or she behaves in a specific manner, there will be specific outcomes.

c)   Effort performance expectancy

Each behaviour performed by an individual has associated with it, a certain expectancy of success. This expectancy is seen as the individual's perception of how hard it will be to achieve a set behaviour and the probability of his or her successful achievement of that behaviour.

3.4.2.1   Discussion of the Porter-Lawler model of work motivation

a)   Value of reward

The value of reward describes the attractiveness of various outcomes to the individual. Due to the fact that people differ from each other they thus attach different preference values to outcomes. The feedback loop formed from "satisfaction" to "value of rewards" suggests that rewards acquire valence as their ability to satisfy (Landy, 1989:383).

b)   Perceived Effort-Reward probability

This refers to the individual's subjective estimate that increased effort will lead to the acquisition of some valued reward. It is said that the perceived effort-reward probability comprises of two specific subjective estimates or probabilities:

- The probability that improved performance will lead to the valued reward (P→R) and

- The probability that effort will lead to improved performance (E→P).

The above probabilities are seen to have a multiplicative relationship. If either one of the values are zero, the perceived effort-reward relationship probability will be zero. This is explained by using the example of a student who values good grades but finds himself in a class being taught by a processor with a reputation for not giving many A's. Even if the student may see a high relationship between the effort and performance, he would probably not view the relationship between performance and valued reward so positively (Landy, 1989).

### c)	Effort

This component supplies an explanation of how hard an individual must work to attain certain accomplishments i.e. the amount of effort needed to perform (Landy, 1989). A person's perception of how his or her effort can best be converted is important. It is assumed that this perception is learned by the individual on the basis of previous experience in similar situations (reinforcement or operant conditioning as discussed above). (Hackman, et al, 1983:74).

### d)	Abilities and Traits

The motivation of a person to perform is influenced by his or her effort, but also by ability. Unless effort and ability are high, high performance is unlikely (Hackman et al, 1983:74).

Traits are seen as the relatively stable characteristics of an individual such as intelligence, personality characteristics, and psychomotor skills. These characteristics are seen as boundary conditions and set upper limits for performance (Landy, 1989:383).

e)   Role perceptions

Role perception can be regarded as the agreement or disagreement between a supervisor and a subordinate about the nature of effective performance. With agreement, effort can be transformed into effective performance, but with disagreement, it is unlikely that effort will lead to effective performance (Landy, 1989).

f)   Performance

Performance refers to the level of accomplishment the individual achieves It is seen as the result of the combined efforts of expenditure, role perceptions, ability and trait patterns (Landy, 1989). Performance is seen as being dependent on both the level of the effort put forth and the individual's ability – that in turn reflects his or her skills, training, information, and talents (Hackman et al, 1983: 69).

g)   Rewards

Consequences of performance are seen as the actions after performance such as providing feedback, recognition and incentives typically. Consequences function in a motivational role, increasing or decreasing the probability of behaviours recurring (Steers et al, 1996:36).

Robbins (1998:70) states that individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modelled behaviour if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviours that are positively reinforced will be given more attention, learned better, and performed more often.

Porter and Lawler (in Landy et al 1989:384) distinguish between two kinds of reward for performance. Intrinsic rewards are seen to satisfy higher order needs as described by Maslow and are administered by the individual himself. The line between performance and the reward is "wavy" and it symbolises the direct relationship between performance and

intrinsic reward only when the job design is such that the worker feels challenged in the completion of job related activities. An external agent such as the individual's immediate supervisor administers extrinsic rewards. The line between performance and extrinsic rewards is also "wavy" due to the sporadic nature of the relationship. This happens because external rewards are not always provided once a task is completed, e.g. the supervisor may not be aware that it is completed or may not have the inclination or time to provide the appropriate reward (Landy, 1989).

Extrinsic outcomes have both a "controlling" and an informational value. In terms of the controlling aspect, feelings of lack of freedom to behave as one chooses as well as feelings of being controlled by outside forces may occur. In an informational perspective, extrinsic outcomes may also have an informational value, as it converts information (feedback) with regard to an individual's competence and self-determination (Lopez, 1981:60)

As the process of performance-reward occurs repeatedly, the actual events also provide information (feedback) that influences the perceptions of the individual and his or her motivation in the future.

Ilgen, Fisher and Tayor (1979:361) link the expectancy theory with feedback as an incentive. They state that individuals form cognitions about the degree of association between behaviour and the attainment of each of a set of rewards. The stronger the perceived association between behaviours and rewards, the more the individual believes that receipt of the reward in question depends upon behaviour.

Ilgen et al (1979:361) emphasises that feedback also plays a major role in the establishment and maintenance of beliefs about behaviour-reward contingencies.

It is explained by the following:

"Descriptive information about past behaviour clarifies the individual's perception of his or her own performance so that, when rewards are administered for that performance, the individual can establish a contingency between the performance and the reward. In the absence of explicit information about performance, the individual is often left to infer what is the desirable behaviour form the outcomes (positive or negative) that are administered. That is, the outcomes become feedback for behaviour. In the latter case, the process is identical with that of operant conditioning, although the focus is upon the cognition or belief about the contingence termed instrumentalities. However, because of the complexities of the behaviours emitted and the inconsistent scheduling of most rewards in organisations, the learning or instrumentalities through shaping process often is extremely difficult. More specific feedback about the behaviour emitted should aid the learning of instrumentalities by providing individuals with a clearer perception of the behaviour with which source outcome is concerned.

Once the reward is established, feedback allows the individual to anticipate rewards on the basis of the perceived instrumentality, even though the reward may be delayed for an extended period of time. In the latter case, feedback serves a function of a promise of the reward in direct proportion to the strength of the instrumentality for the reward in question" (Ilgen et al,1979:361).

h)   Perceived Equitable rewards

Individuals are not seen as passive observers of events that occur in the workplace. As employees they form impressions of others and the events that affect them and cognitively or behaviourally respond based on their positive or negative evaluations (Mowday [sa]:53).

The equity theory, as an exchange theory rests upon the belief that employees make social comparisons in the working environment. In terms of this theory, employees make social comparisons by using two components of exchange relationships, namely inputs and outcomes.

Inputs or investments are seen as something that an individual contributes to the exchange, e.g. services, work experience, education, effort and training. Outcomes are seen as results from an exchange, e.g. salary, supervisory treatment, fringe benefits and status symbols. They can however also be negative such as negative working conditions and lack of job security. Inputs and outputs are weighed up according to their importance to the individual. Inputs and outputs are also weighed up independently.

Mowday ([sa]:54) describes important aspects in terms of the definition that should be mentioned:

- Conditions necessary to produce equity or inequity are based on the individual's perceptions of inputs and outcomes.
- Inequity is seen as a relative phenomenon and does not necessarily exist if a person has high inputs and low outcomes as long as the comparison with the other has a similar ratio.
- Inequity also exists when an individual is relatively underpaid and relatively overpaid. In this instance, the equity theory suggests that individuals will react in a counterintuitive fashion when they are overpaid. (Mowday [sa]:54) refers to research done by Leventhal, Weiss and Long (1969) when stating that the threshold for underpayment is lower than that associated with overpayment. Individuals are as expected, more willing to accept overpayment in an exchange relationship than they are to accept underpayment.

With a perceived inequity the following consequences are seen to take place:

- The perceived inequity creates tension in the individual
- The amount of tension is proportional to the magnitude of the inequity
- The inequity that an individual perceives, will motivate the individual to reduce it
- The strength of the motivation to reduce inequity is proportional to the perceived inequity.

The above can be summarised by the statement that the presence of inequity motivates the individual to change the situation by means of behavioural or cognitive means to be able to return to a condition of equity (Mowday [sa]:54).

Different methods exist by which the individual will attempt to reduce inequity:

- Altering inputs. In the case of overpayment, the individual will try and increase inputs and in the case of underpayment, the individual will reduce inputs, e.g. work less.
- Altering outcomes. An individual can change his or her outputs if the relationships of inputs to outputs are seen as less than the other individual he compares himself to.
- Cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes. An individual can attempt to subjectively manipulate the inputs and outputs by re-evaluating their importance and use. This can basically be seen as changing the weight of the inputs and outputs.
- Leaving the field. This basically will lead to resignation, applications for transfers or absenteeism.
- Taking actions designed to subjectively change the inputs or outcomes of the comparison.

- Changing the comparison. This is done by replacing the employee with someone that is seen as more balanced in terms of comparison.

Perceived Equitable rewards play an important role in the behaviour of employees as they are able to adjust their inputs and outputs to suit the perceived equitable rewards received. It is thus important for management to realise that rewards and their applications in an organised setting are vital in the motivating process of individuals.

i) Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined (Robbins, 1998:25) as: "A general attitude towards one's job; the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive.

In this model, satisfaction is seen as a derivative variable as its value is determined by the individual's comparison of what he considers an equitable reward with the amount of the actual reward. If the individual perceives the equitable reward as exceeding the actual reward, the individual will be dissatisfied. If the actual reward exceeds the perceived equitable reward, the individual is satisfied. The larger the difference between the two values, the greater the dissatisfaction or satisfaction (Landy, 1989:383). In case of dissatisfaction due to perceived inequity of inputs and related outputs, Equity theory may be seen to play a role. The presence of inequity motivates the individual to change the situation by means of behavioural or cognitive means to be able to return to a condition of equity (Mowday [sa]:54) that may influence motivation and behaviour.

Hackman <u>et al</u> (1983:68) believes that in general, the motivation to attempt to behave in a certain way is greatest when:

- The individual believes that the behaviour will lead to outcomes (performance-outcome expectancy).
- The individual believes that these outcomes have positive value for him or her (valence).
- The individual believes that he or she is able to perform at the desired level (effort performance expectancy).

It is further stated that the individual will choose the level of performance which has the greatest motivational force associated with it, as indicated by the expectancies, outcomes and valences.

3.5   MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATIONS

In the light of the expectancy theory, managers in organisations have distinct roles to play in the motivation of employees. Managers have to understand and give attention to various factors that may influence motivational levels.

3.5.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Hackman (<u>et al</u>, 1983:69-73) describe a few factors that they seen as vital for motivation in organisations. They are discussed below.

3.5.1.1   The design of pay and reward systems

Due to the fact that employers most frequently reward employees for membership rather than for performance, behaviour in these organisations are seen as "safe and secure" rather as behaviour directed at performing well. It is therefore important that employers rather provide rewards for performance. Keeping rewards secret is "self-defeating". Not rewarding for performance also underscores the importance of

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performance appraisal and the need to evaluate people on how they perform clearly defined specific behaviours (Hackman et al, 1983:72).

Rewards should also be linked directly with performance. It is a fact that regardless of how closely rewards are actually correlated to performance criteria, if individuals perceive this relationship to be low, the results will be low performance. It could also decrease job satisfaction and lead to increased turnover and absenteeism (Robbins, 1998:226).

It is important to check the reward systems for equity. Employees should perceive the reward system as equating with inputs they bring into the job. Input should explain why there are differences in performance, benefits and rewards (Robbins, 1998:226)

3.5.1.2   The role of the supervisor

It is seen as the supervisors' role to create, monitor and maintain the expectancies and reward structures that will lead to good performance. It can thus also be assumed that supervisors must provide information (feedback) regarding performance to be able to set of realistic goals, clear reward expectancies and provide the appropriate reward to employees (Hackman et al, 1983: 72).

3.5.1.3   The importance of group structures

Groups are seen as powerful forces in the motivational environment of individuals (Hackman et al, 1983:72). Consisting of co-workers, groups both formal and informal are important sources of desired outcomes for individuals.

Groups are able to give immediate information about how individuals are perceived by the other members of the group. It is seen as a basic human need to know how an individual stands with his or her peers and how others perceive him or her in the group (Johnson et al, 1997:491).

In the case of individuals that find themselves in groups, they often benchmark themselves against other employees and this may have a distinct influence on inputs and outputs in terms of the equity theory (Johnson et al, 1997:119).

Employers must train managers and supervisors to be knowledgeable about how groups influence individual behaviour. Managers or supervisors must also be aware of the types of expectancies, which develop in informal groups and their conflict or consistency with the expectancies that the organisation attempts to create. A portion of the rewards given to individuals should be structured around group performance (not only on an individual basis). This is regarded as important where group members have to co-operate with each other to produce products or services, and where individual input is hard to determine (Hackman et al, 1983:72).

3.5.1.4   The design of tasks, jobs and roles

Job design should be done to enable employees to get their needs fulfilled and in the process also encourages higher levels of motivation. The expectancy theory acknowledges the fact that different individuals have different needs and abilities. Jobs should therefore be designed to give individuals the opportunity to make choices about the kind of job they would do as some individuals would not like to experience great job enrichment with more autonomy, variety, feedback and meaningfulness (Porter et al, 1975:301; Hackman et al, 1983:72).

3.5.1.5   Measuring motivation

Organisations should measure the levels of motivation, perceptions and attitudes at regular intervals. This information is useful both to the individual and to high level management in assessing the state of human

resources and the effectiveness of the organisation's motivational systems (Hackman <u>et al</u>, 1983:73)

3.5.1.6   Individualizing organisations

Due to the fact that individuals differ and have different needs and valances, organisations should be flexible in order to accommodate individual differences. This implies the "building in" of choice for employees in many areas where they previously had little input such as. rewards systems and the structuring of fringe benefits (Hackman <u>et al</u>, 1983:73).

Acknowledging the differences between employees will assist supervisors and managers in individualising goals, level of involvement, and rewards to align with individual needs (Robbins, 1998:226).

3.5.1.7   Giving feedback to employees

The role of feedback was discussed as an aspect of extrinsic outcomes, an influencing factor in the forming of perceptions for motivation in future (Hackman <u>et al</u>, 1983:69), an incentive (Ilgen <u>et a</u>l, 1979:361) and a major role player in the establishment and maintenance of beliefs about behaviour-reward contingencies.

If employees are not given information to make the perceived probability of these behaviour-reward contingencies linkages high, motivation will be negatively affected. If rewards are not clear and the criteria for determining and measuring performance are ambiguous or individuals are not certain that their efforts will lead to satisfactory performance, effort will be reduced.

Feedback thus serves a motivational function when it provides information about the outcomes associated with the rewards.

3.6   SUMMARY

In this chapter, the concept of motivation was defined, the process of motivation described and a short overview of the development of motivation was given.

The model of Porter and Lawler was discussed in detail and the influence of expectancies, outcomes and motivation was referred to.

Applications in organisational settings were also discussed. The design of pay and reward systems, the role of the supervisor, the importance of group structures, the design of tasks, jobs and roles, measuring motivation, individualising organisations and giving feedback to employees were emphasised.

"Performance of individuals is a critical issue in making organisations work effectively. If a manager (or supervisor) is to influence work behaviour and performance, he or she must have an understanding of motivation and the factors which influence an individual's motivation to come to work to work hard, and to work well (Hackman et al, 1983:73)".

Motivation has a very strong impact on behaviour. Managers and supervisors should thus take care in understanding the process of motivation and the tools to administer positive motivation in organisations.

CHAPTER 4:

COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK IN ORGANISATIONS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

"An idea, no matter how great, is useless until it is transmitted and understood by others" (Robbins, 1998: 310).

In the demanding, competitive world of business, companies have to realise that communication is vital to survival.

4.2   MOTIVATION AND COMMUNICATION

In the previous chapter motivation was discussed in terms of the expectancy theory. It is said that the strength of an individual's motivation to perform effectively is influenced by the person's perception that effort can be converted into performance, that the performance will lead to certain outcomes (rewards) and the attractiveness of the rewards to the individual (Hackman et al, 1983:74).

Robbins (1998:311) links communication and motivation by stating the following: "Communication fosters motivation by clarifying to employees what is to be done, how well they are doing, and what can be done to improve performance if it is subpar." He adds: "The formation of specific goals, feedback on progress toward the goals, and reinforcement of desired behaviour all stimulate motivation and require communication". Importantly, Robbins (1998:336) explains that communication is vital in motivation by conveying information to make the perceived probability of effort- performance, performance-reward and reward-goal satisfaction linkages.

As communication is important for motivation, the focus of this chapter is on feedback as a component of communication and its influence on motivation.

4.3   COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK

4.3.1   DEFINITION

Robbins (1998:310) defines communication as the transference and understanding of meaning. He also sees communication as a process and states that communication problems occur if there are deviations or blockages in the flow of information. Before communication can take place, a purpose, expressed as a message (what is communicated) to be conveyed is needed. It passes between a source (the sender) and a receiver. The message is then encoded (converted to symbolic form) and is passed by way of some medium (channel) to the receiver, who translates (decodes) the message initiated by the sender. It results in transference of meaning. The final link in the communication process is feedback. Feedback puts the message back into the system as a check against misunderstandings.

FIGURE 10   THE GENERAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION
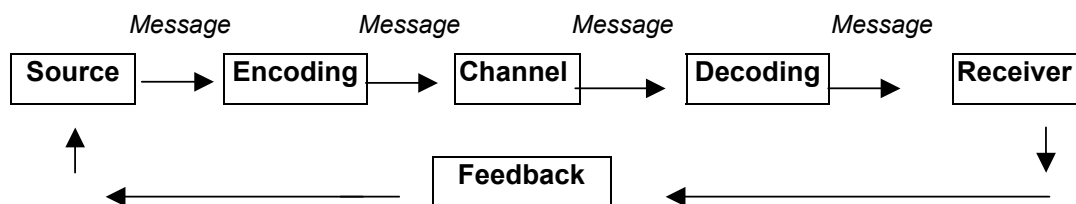
(Source: Robbins, 1998:312)

Robbins (1998:517) defines feedback as the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by a job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

Feedback influences perceptions as discussed earlier. In an organisational setting for example, performance on a job takes place

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(response behaviour) and individual will actively seek feedback (Ashford and Cummings, 1981:370-398) in order to determine the effects of the performance (response). Feedback thus influences perception by giving information on behaviour that took place and enables the person to alter any other responses due to information received (Hargie, 1986:39).

Feedback as a component of communication and the model of Porter and Lawler, thus has a distinct influence on behaviour. In the model as discussed earlier, feedback was described as a component of outcomes (informational) after performance and in the form of feedback loops running from actual behaviour to motivation. This indicated that events that occur also influence behaviour.

Feedback is seen as motivational and directive Ilgen et al (1979:351). In the directive sense, feedback serves to clarify roles by stating what behaviours should be performed. In the motivational sense, feedback increases motivation when it provides information about outcomes associated with rewards. It can thus serve as an incentive or a punishment/reward, if over time the pairing of a given level of feedback with certain positive and/negative outcomes leads the feedback to take on reinforcing properties.

As feedback is seen as important for the individual for different reasons (Walsch, Asford and Hill, 1985:27):

- Feedback is central to task learning. It is said that no job or task could be mastered without at least a few trial instances of task performance followed by task performance feedback (performance appraisal).
- After mastering a task, feedback forms a standard against which quality of task performance may be measured.
- Feedback is important in assessing career potential and individuals concerned with their potential for occupational mobility rely on various sources of feedback to assess their current status for advancement.

- Employment contexts can also be highly evaluative. Where occupational mobility is rapid with decisions being made very early, sorting those to be "fast tract" from those lacking the required attributes and skills warranting such quick promotion. In a South African context, "fast tracking" takes place on a large scale to comply with Employment Equity targets in Employment Equity plans as required by legislation. Self-presentation strategies may thus be central to successful negotiating such environments. Feedback provides the standard for the evaluation of self-presentation skills.

- Individuals want to achieve a sense of mastery over their environments and feedback offers information on how behaviours are perceived interpreted and evaluated (Ashford et al, 1981: 161).

- Feedback on past performance allows for uncertainty reduction in reaching goals that were set (Ashford et al, 1981).

4.3.2 FEEDBACK AS A COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Ilgen et al (1979:350) use the general model of communication (discussed above) as basis for their study of the consequences of individual feedback on behaviour in organisations. Feedback is described as a special case of the general communications process in which some sender (source) conveys a message to a recipient. The message comprises of information about the recipient. The recipient's perception of the feedback and response to it depends upon his or her personal characteristics, the nature of the message, and characteristics of the source of feedback. The source, message and recipient are discussed below and is followed by a discussion of a model of the effect of feedback on recipients.

a)   Source (Sender)

According to Ilgen et al (1979:350), all feedback that is provided originates from a source and sources of feedback are categorised into

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three groups: (i) Other individuals (such as supervisors, other employees and subordinates), (ii) task environment and (iii) judging their own performance (self).

b)   Message

Feedback in its most basic level, is seen as information received by the individual about his/her past behaviour and provides information about the correctness, adequacy, or adequacy of the response (Bourne in Ilgen et al 1979:351). Ilgen et al (1979:350) identified three dimensions that affect perceptions of feedback information. These dimensions are seen as timing of feedback information, the sign of feedback information and the frequency of feedback information.

- **Timing of feedback information**

Timing is seen as the interval between the individual's behaviour and the receipt of the feedback about the behaviour. For feedback to be seen as related to the behaviour, it must be paired with the appropriate response to be meaningful. The length of the post feedback interval, the frequency of the feedback itself, the nature of the intervening activity between the behaviours and the feedback all interact to influence perceived feedback (Ilgen et al, 1979).

If performance appraisals are set too far apart or too close to each other, they are seen as meaningless to the individual and of course the organisation a whole. If the time span between appraisals is seen as shorter than the time span of discretion it is difficult to appraise the performance, as performance is premature. For the organisation, it may constitute bad employment decisions e.g. promotions and training (Porter et al, 1975:334). If the time span of discretion is shorter than the interval between performance appraisals, feedback is seen to be irrelevant to their present performance. Employees then experience a lack of feedback between performance appraisals (Ilgen et al, 1979:353).

In all organisations delays in feedback occur. Research done by Bourne (in Ilgen et al, 1979:354) state that in many work settings feedback is often delayed for extended periods of time. It is however suggested that if activities that occur during the feedback delay time do not interfere with the individual's ability to accurately recall behaviour (and to associate the feedback with it) the length of the time that the feedback was delayed, will have no permanent effect on feedback perceptions (Ilgen et al, 1979).

- **The sign of feedback information**

The sign of feedback is seen as the positive or negative nature of feedback. Feedback influences performance by confounding it to the sign (Ilgen et al, 1979:360). This can happen by:

i)   Recipient having the opportunity to change performance in the response to the feedback. If this happens over time, the individual will tend to receive more positive feedback (if he or she takes corrective action)

ii)   Supervisor responses may also influence the positive correlation between frequency and performance. It happens when supervisors see providing negative feedback as unpleasant and tend to avoid it. They thus provide more positive feedback than negative feedback. Where periodic performance evaluations are not required, supervisors tend to avoid negative feedback and this increases the delay between the observation of poor performance and providing negative feedback. Poor performers would thus receive less feedback than star performers.

c)   **Recipient**

The recipient is seen as the processor of information about his or her past performance. It is important to note that the source and message characteristics interact with recipient characteristics to produce a reaction

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to feedback by the recipient. The recipient can both act as a source of information (self) and an interpreter of information or feedback (Ilgen <u>et al</u>, 1979:351).

4.3.3 THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE PROCESSING OF FEEDBACK

Various factors influence individuals and their processing of performance feedback. It is therefore important for managers or supervisors, to understand the process of feedback processing. The process in which an individual/recipient will process information is discussed below.

FIGURE 11   MODEL OF THE EFFECT OF FEEDBACK ON RECIPIENTS
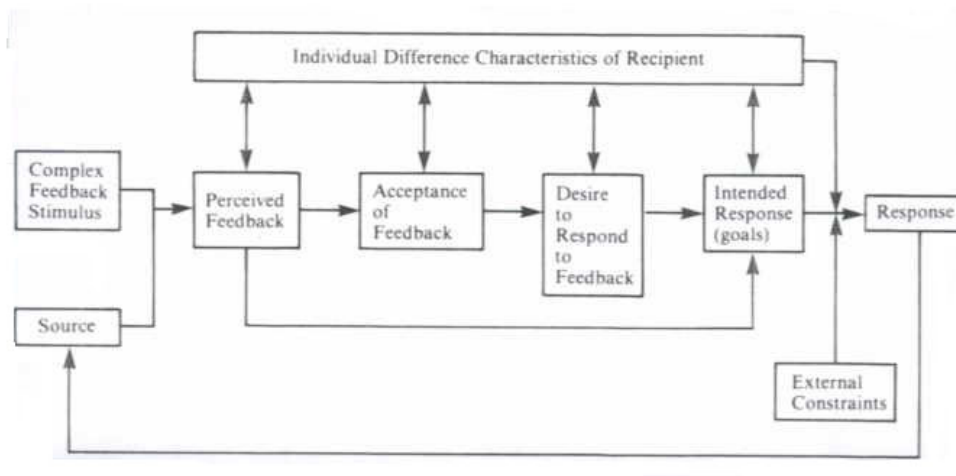
(Source: Ilgen <u>et al</u>, 1979:352)

Ilgen <u>et al</u> (1979) describes the individual's feedback processing in four stages.

- **Stage 1: Perceived feedback**

Perceived feedback is seen as how accurately the recipient perceives the feedback from any given source. It is seen as a function of properties of both the stimulus and the perceiver and involves the feedback stimulus

and then interpreting it. The stimulus (source and the message) and the recipient have been shown to influence the perceptions of feedback.

- **Stage 2: Acceptance of feedback**

When the recipient has formed a perception of the feedback and is aware of the source from which the feedback was received, the acceptance of the feedback is important. Acceptance is described, as the recipients' belief that the feedback received is an accurate portrayal of his or her performance.

- **Stage 3: Desire to respond**

The issue of whether the individual will want to respond in line with the feedback received is influenced by various factors. Some of the factors portraying an influence are the source of feedback and the message.

- **Stage 4: Intended response**

Reviews on goal setting literature document the positive effects of goals on performance and identify three major goal-related concepts as important for goal effectiveness.

They are seen as:

a) Specificity (Specific goals are better than general goals)
b) Difficulty (Difficult goals lead to better performance than easy ones)
c) Degree of control (The greater the control, the better the performance)

They further also specify that control effects must be considered in conjunction with difficulty effects and since goal specificity and difficulty, along with control over set goals, appear to be the major dimensions of

goals affecting performance, the impact of feedback on these constructs was also explored.

Ilgen et al (1979) described the interaction of goals and feedback as set out by the following figure.

TABLE 1   GOALS

	SPECIFIC	GENERAL
SPECIFIC	Feedback is easily understood and applied to future performance	Performance evaluation is difficult
GENERAL	Feedback is interpreted in terms of the performer's frame-of-reference	Feedback is difficult to interpret and apply

Feedback is seen to be superior if paired with the setting of specific goals. Non-specific feedback is seen to be of no value. Feedback should be detailed enough to set specific goals as they are seen as more useful than general goals (Ilgen et al, 1979: 365). Individuals are also seen to perform better when they receive feedback on performance as they progress towards set goals. Here the feedback identifies discrepancies between what was done and what needs to be done (Robbins 1998:181).

4.4   SOURCES OF FEEDBACK

Greller and Harrold (in Ilgen et al, 1979:353) identified five sources of feedback. The five sources of feedback (Supervisors, co-workers performance evaluation, tasks, and the self) will be discussed on an individual basis. The five the sources of feedback are generic to all organisations (Walsch, Ashford and Hill, 1981:29).

4.4.1 THE SUPERVISOR AS A PROVIDER OF FEEDBACK

4.4.1.1   Definition

Supervisors are defined as individuals who achieve their goals through other people (Robbins, 1998:2). Supervisors are directly responsible for attaining the goals of their specific departments, sections or organisations through management of the resources under their control (Luthhans and Martinko, 1979:5).

Henry Fayol identified 4 core managerial functions vital to organisations (Robbins, 1998:2). These functions are described in terms of the role of the supervisor.

a) Planning

Planning is seen as an action or actions that include defining goals, establishing strategy, and developing plans to co-ordinate activities. Examples of such planning are production planning and human resource planning.

In terms of human resource planning, activities may include needs forecasting and planning of programmes. Needs forecasting focuses on anticipating and responding to needs emerging from within the company (or from outside the company) and determines the priorities and the allocation of resources. Planning of programmes follows on the needs forecasting and focuses on the satisfactions of the set needs as far as possible (Casio, 1998:154).

In the light of the above, the supervisor must be able to plan certain activities in his section or department to be able to reach set goals.

b) Organising

Organising is defined as determining the tasks which are to be done, who is to do the tasks, what the report structure should be and where decisions are to be made (Robbins, 1998:3).

Supervisors can ensure that sections or departments become more effective by simplifying work and empowering employees. This is possible by enhancing the employees' skills and specialising within set ranges of responsibilities. It is thus important that supervisors take care in structuring jobs to ensure high performance as job structure can affect the reactions of employees in at least three ways (Porter et al, 1975:298):

- Employee activation levels are affected by jobs or tasks and they influence employees' cognitive and motor capabilities to perform as well as their affective reactions to their work.
- Jobs provide opportunities to attain important goals or to satisfy needs. These opportunities are important implications for long term motivation by offering the possibility that jobs can be designed to obtain need satisfaction or goal achievement (employees' and organisational needs thus can be met). Furthermore, as employees develop strategies based on their perceptions of what leads to desirable outcomes, certain motivational advantages following from this are sure to be persistent over time.
- Needs and goals states are directly influenced by the jobs employees do. Jobs affect the opportunities of need satisfaction and goal attainment that are desired by employees. These implications can be long term of short term in nature. Short-term implications may include arousing higher motives by cues imbedded in the task or work situation and thereby providing additional incentives for employees to engage in need-satisfying behaviours. On the long term, employees may learn to value various types of outcomes through their on-the-job experiences.

c) Leading

Robbins (1998:347) defines leadership as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals. The term differs from the term supervisor by means of the word "influence". The word supervisor is a job title and implies certain responsibilities that are part of the job function of an individual. Any person in the position of a supervisor thus, may have the job title, but lack the skills of leadership (Landy, 1989:494).

Power, is mostly referred to as a resource of influence. This is described in the following statement:

"In organisational settings, power is, in effect, a resource that leaders can use to exert social influence" (Steers et al, 1998:276).

Different types of power are available to supervisors (Steers et al,1998):

- **Reward power**

Reward power is seen as the power to withhold or to disperse rewards to subordinates. This implicates that supervisors are able to reward performance, thus able to sustain the expectancy-performance-reward contingency.

- **Coercive power**

Coercive power is described as the power to withhold or disperse of punishment. In this sense, supervisors are able to discipline unwanted behaviour, e.g. by means of warnings. It must however be said that explicit use of coercive power may lead to negative reactions on part of subordinates (e.g. strikes).

- **Legitimate power**

Legitimate power is power to influence behaviour and oblige the subordinate to accept the "right to govern". It is seen as the power of position.

- **Referent power**

Referent power is the power to influence subordinates so that they identify with the supervisor's goals.

- **Expert power**

Expert power is the power of knowledge and skill that the supervisor has in a specific area. It is seen as property of the supervisor, but is also determined by position.

The total amount of power is not fixed, but subject to expansion or contraction based on how power is used. Incremental influence power is additional to the above, where leaders have a degree of control over subordinates that cannot be explained by normal ways of power. It is seen as the sixth source of power and is seen as a combination of referent power and expert power (Landy, 1989:495).

In conclusion, supervisors, as leaders are advised to apply these powers to motivate and direct employee behaviour (Robbins, 1998:2).

- **Power and motivation of employees**

The supervisor's role should be seen as vital in creating, monitoring and maintaining the expectancies and reward structures that will lead to good performance. The supervisor's role in the motivational process becomes one of defining clear goals, setting reward expectations and providing the

right rewards for different people (Hackman <u>et al</u>, 1983:72). It was found that supervisors who are explicit in terms of their expectations for subordinates, who are consistent in their demands and convey support for the employee are more likely to have satisfied subordinates (Klimoski and Hays, 1980: 554).

- **Power and directing employees**

Leaders in organisations should take care in directing employee behaviour by means of setting a clear mission and vision that all members are committed to achieving. This could be done by having a vision of what the organisation (section or department) could be, communicating that vision with commitment and enthusiasm, making it a shared vision that is adopted by all and making it a rational vision based on sound implementation strategies (Johnson and Johnson, 1997:209).

Klimoski <u>et al</u> (1980:542) stated the following in directing individual behaviour:

"By knowing what goals are important to an individual and by operating on the means or behaviours required to accomplish these goals, an agent (e.g. supervisor) can influence that individual in some intended fashion."

d) Controlling

Controlling is defined as the monitoring of activities to ensure they are being accomplished throughout the organisation and correcting any deviations (Robbins, 1998:3). In many orgnisations however, the role of managers are changing. They are being called coaches, facilitators and advisors. Decision making is "pushed down to operational levels" and employees are given the choices regarding schedules, procedures and solving of work retaliated problems" (Robbins, 1998:16). In terms of group structures and teams, Johnson <u>et al</u> (1997:209) sees empowerment as an important leadership task:

"To be effective, a co-operative team must be carefully structured to include positive interdependence, face-to-face promotive interaction, individual accountability, social skills, and group processing skills".

4.4.1.2   Linking the supervisor as a provider of feedback to the model of feedback.

a)   Stage 1: Perceived feedback

With regard to perceived feedback, the more credible the source has been in the past, the more likely the feedback from the source (supervisor) will be seen as accurate (Ilgen et al, 353). Supervisors should thus take care to act and be credible sources of feedback over time.

b)   Stage 2: Acceptance of feedback

Credibility of the source is vital in the perception of feedback, but is also of importance in the acceptance of the feedback. In the essence of credibility, expertise and trust are seen as two very important aspects in the acceptance of feedback (Ilgen et al, 1979:354).

Expertise is seen as an individual's proficiency, adroitness, competence and skill (Johnson et al, 1997:564). In the sense of acceptance of feedback – the more the expertise, the higher the level of acceptance.

Familiarity with the task is also seen to play an important role in accepting feedback form the source. Trust is described as the perception that a choice can lead to gains of losses, that whether and individual will gain or lose depends on the behaviour of the other person, that loses will be greater than the gain, and that the person is likely to behave in such a way that the individual will gain rather than lose. In this sense it is seen that the source's intentions towards the recipient or trust is important in

the acceptance of feedback. In terms of supervisor feedback, it can thus be said that the greater the trust in the supervisor, the greater the acceptance of feedback (Ilgen et al, 1979:354).

In order to increase the acceptance of feedback, supervisors should be skilled, knowledgeable and be familiar with the jobs their subordinates do, but importantly they as leaders, must be credible and trustworthy.

c) Stage 3: Desire to respond to feedback

Power of the feedback source influences the receiver's desire to respond. Power, in the sense, refers to the extent to which a receiver of feedback believes the source has influence on the behaviour-reward contingency. It is believed that power should increase compliance even in the absence of feedback acceptance (Ilgen et al,359).

Supervisors have certain powers that are awarded to them for various reasons. Supervisors should take care in using these powers to positively influence subordinates, especially if he or she has the power to reward performance both intrinsically and extrinsically.

4.4.1.3   Induction and training of employees

For performance feedback to be effective, employees must be informed about how processes and structures function. Strategies to ensure employees are informed and know what to expect are seen as induction and training.

Supervisors should train employees to do their jobs effectively by means of instruction. It is seen as the supervisor's duty to train and continue training for new and better ways to work, and development of methods, introduction of new equipment and materials. It is seen as vital for employees to be trained, as they become "careless and sloppy". Training is seen as the responsibility of the supervisor based on first hand

knowledge of strengths and weaknesses of his subordinates. Knowledge regarding this can only be obtained by means of "careful and frequent observation and listening to employees". Maintenance and refining of skill can be ensured by frequent and casual contact (coaching) between supervisor and employees (Timbers, 2001:64).

In terms of training and prolonged learning, it can be seen that in order to train employees effectively and to make sure their induction periods are successful, supervisors must communicate frequently with all their employees.

4.4.1.4 Supervising and teams

In organisations teams are used as the central device to co-ordinate work activities (Robbins, 1998:493). Gee and Burke (2001) identified teamwork as a method of giving employees more control over their work. In research done it was seen that by using teamwork, a higher contribution of input and ideas were recorded. In this sense, the supervisor's role is vital by regulating team structure and becoming a leader in a group setting. Leadership in a group setting forms the basis of success. Leaders should take care not to impose their opinions or solutions on the group, but rather to clarify, introduce and summarise the tasks to be done to ensure success in projects. According to Robbins (1998:379), managers (or supervisors) struggle with becoming effective leaders in team structure. It is stated that managers have to learn new skills including sharing information, trusting others, giving up authority and understanding when to intervene. Functions of managers (or supervisors) are defined more in the sense of facilitators, handling disciplinary problems, performance reviewing, training and communication that is viewed quite differently when compared to traditional managerial functions.

Supervisors must take initiative to ensure the functionality of their work teams by encouraging teamwork and participation. Methods of

teambuilding include role play, discussions and other socially organised activities (Gee et al, 2001).

4.4.1.5   Supervising and performance appraisal

Supervisors are instrumental in the performance appraisal process (McGregor, 1957:5):

a)   Supervisors evaluate subordinates performance for back up to salary increases, promotions, transfers, and on occasion, demotions and terminations.

b)   Supervisors inform subordinates on how they are performing and offer suggestions to improve performance.

Supervisors are key players in the performance evaluation process, but even supervisors having to deliver performance feedback by means of performance appraisals, do not like to administer them (McGregor, 1957). There is always some discomfort in communicating to an employee that he or she is not doing well. When conducting performance evaluations, some supervisors feel that they are in a position "playing God". When feedback on performance is negatively, unpleasant situations may develop and the supervisor is at risk of not handling the situation correctly (Porter et al, 1975:319). Supervisors are also seen to dislike the idea of evaluating subordinates they are leading. Some supervisors may also dislike new procedures of performance appraisal or mistrust the instruments (McGregor, 1957:5). It is however vital that supervisors are encouraged to deliver performance feedback, as it is important to enhance performance and set standards for performance.

In the South African context, the Labour Relations Act (LRA) of 1995 provides for the existence of performance evaluations and feedback. In the Code of Good Practice in the LRA, employers are obliged to follow specific procedures in order to dismiss employees for lack of performance (South Africa, 1995: Code of good practice, item 9). These are described as:

a) Setting a specific performance standard

b) Ensuring that the employee or employees are informed of the standard and if the employee or employees could have been expected to be knowledgeable of the set standard of performance.

c) The employee should also be given a time framework in order to reach the set performance standard. In the case of non-performance, the employer is still obliged to evaluate the circumstances and decide if dismissal is the most appropriate form of discipline.

In the light of the above and the South African law, it is vital that supervisors provide feedback in a structured fashion in order to avoid negative employee relations that could be costly to organisations.

4.4.1.6   Summary

Supervisors are members of organisations with important functions including planning, leading and controlling. Additional to these functions, they must motivate and direct behaviour of subordinates.

In terms of feedback to employees, they play a vital role in the transfer of information of performance information. It is therefore crucial that supervisors are credible and trustworthy sources of information. In addition, they must also be skilled and familiar with the jobs their subordinates are to perform. In the South African context they are becoming key role-players in the regulation of employee relations, and should thus be trained and supported to conduct their functions effectively.

4.4.2 CO-WORKERS (INCLUDING GROUPS) AS PROVIDERS OF FEEDBACK

4.4.2.1   Definition

Co-workers are seen as peers in the organisational setting. They are close to the tasks being done and have daily interaction with employees (Robbins, 1998:568). Co-workers also form part of groups such as formal groups (designed by the organisational structure) and task groups (Robbins, 1998:240).

4.4.2.2   Linking co-workers as a provider of feedback to the model of feedback.

a) Stage 1: Perceived feedback

Employees use their co-workers as soundboards for their ideas and in many cases their performance. Co-workers and their feedback information can thus be seen as important sources of feedback for employees. In the case of perceived feedback, the more credible the source of feedback has been in the past, the more likely future feedback from the source will be perceived (Ilgen et al, 1979:354). It can thus be said that the more credible the co-worker(s) has been in the past, the more accurate the feedback from the co-worker(s) will be perceived.

b) Stage 2: Acceptance of feedback

Expertise, credibility, familiarity with the job and trust are the greatest role players in the acceptance of feedback from co-workers. The greater the credibility (similar to that of supervisors), the greater the acceptance of feedback form peers (Ilgen et al, 1979:354). In terms of expertise and familiarity with the job, the higher the level of expertise and familiarity, the greater the acceptance of feedback. Similarly, the greater the trust in the

source and its intentions, the greater the acceptance of the feedback (Ilgen et al, 356).

4.4.2.3   Groups

In a great number of organisations, groups are structures used to perform certain functions. Groups, in organisational settings comprise of employees either on the same job levels or on different levels, trying to reach common organisational goals.

Groups can be defined in different ways. Groups may be defined in terms of perceptions of membership, relationships, mutual interest, motivation, interpersonal interaction, interdependence and goals. Ultimately, a group can be seen as the collection of organisms in which the existence of all (in their relationships) is necessary to the satisfaction of certain individual needs in them. In terms of motivation, groups are defined as a collection of individuals who try and satisfy some personal need through their joint association. It is then assumed that individuals would not join groups unless they are motivated to do so. They would thus belong to groups in order to obtain needed rewards or to satisfy personal needs (Johnson et al, 1997:10)

a) Group motivation

Certain factors are seen to negatively impact the effectiveness of groups and their motivation. Although there are various factors social loafing is discussed below:

- **Social loafing**

When group members (co-workers) must complete a project, it usually require performing tasks on an individual basis (e.g. typing the project) and tasks done in a group (e.g. presenting the project to employees or managers). Additive tasks are the result of summing together individual

group members' inputs to maximise the group product (project). Social loafing is defined as a reduction of individual effort when working with others on an additive task (Johnson et al, 1997:255).

Several situational factors have been seen to impact social loafing (Johnson et al, 1997:254):

1)   Lack of identifiable contributions

When group members' individual contribution is identifiable and is evaluated by group members and the individual himself, no social loafing would take place (Johnson et al, 1997:254)

2)   Lack of cohesiveness among group members

Robbins (1998:263) defines cohesiveness as the degree to which group members are attracted to stay in their group. The interaction between group cohesiveness, productivity and performance norms is presented below.

FIGURE 12   RELATIONSHIP   BETWEEN   GROUP   COHESIVENESS, PERFORMANCE NORMS AND PRODUCTIVITY.

		Cohesiveness	
Performance norms		**High**	**Low**
	High	High productivity	Moderate productivity
	Low	Low productivity	Moderate to low productivity

In this figure it is seen that the relationship between cohesiveness and productivity is dependent upon the performance norms set. For example, if performance norms are set high and cohesiveness is low, moderate productivity can take place. It is thus important to note that cohesiveness is found to have a distinct influence on productivity (Robbins, 1998:263).

Groups become more cohesive when they work and formulate together on issues that are specific, attainable and immediate. It was found that where when cohesiveness increases (Johnson et al, 1997:113):

- ➢ Absenteeism and turnover of group members decrease
- ➢ Commitment to the group increases
- ➢ Feelings of responsibility towards the group increases
- ➢ Willingness to take on difficult tasks increases
- ➢ Motivation and persistence in working towards goal achievement increase
- ➢ Satisfaction and morale increases
- ➢ Willingness to defend the group against external criticisms or attack increases
- ➢ Willingness to listen and be influenced by colleagues increases
- ➢ Commitment to each other's professional growth and success increases
- ➢ Productivity increases and
- ➢ The willingness to endure pain and frustration on behalf of the group, increases.

3)   Increased likelihood of redundant or dispensable efforts

Free riding is defined as benefiting from the task efforts of other group members, while not contributing to the work oneself (Johnson et al, 1997:255). Johnson et al (1997) describe the issue of free riding as follows:

"When group members perceive their contributions to be dispensable, such that group success or failure depends very little on whether or not they exert effort, and when effort is costly, there are less likely to exert themselves on the group's behalf. The opportunity to free ride – to get something for nothing – is not the same as the opportunity to socially loaf – to hide in the crowd.

4)   Lack of responsibility for final outcome

Employees must feel personally responsible for a meaningful portion of their work (Porter et al, 1975:303):

"What is accomplished must be through the individual's own efforts; he must realise that the work he does is his own and he must believe that he personally is responsible for whatever successes and failures occur as a result of his work. This does not mean, of course, that feelings of personal responsibility for work outcomes cannot occur in team projects; all that is required is for team members to feel that their own efforts are important in accomplishing the task at hand" (Porter et al, 1975:302).

b) Group motivation and feedback

Co-workers provide comments about the performance of others (verbal and non-verbal) and also serve as standards for both comparative and reflective feedback (Jones and Gerhard in Walsch et al,1985:29).

c) Group members and equity (as part of feedback)

Where individuals reduce their efforts when other members are engaging in 'free riding" (benefiting form the tasks of other members whilst not contributing inputs) is called the sucker effect. Here individuals reduce their efforts (and thus their rewards) rather than being "suckered" and being exploited by a free riding member or members. In this instance the individual it is proved that co-workers provide and also serve as standards for both comparative and reflective feedback (Jones and Gerhard in Walsch et al) by which inputs and outputs are regulated.

When individuals feel that there is no incentive for contributing to the group, they make little effort to achieve group goals. Social loafing is also more likely to occur when there is not a strong incentive to perform the task (reward). There may be barriers that undermine the value of

contributing or provide motives to withhold contributions. If contributing takes time and energy that the member feels could be spent better elsewhere or if he or she feels that contributions are being exploited, there is an incentive for not contributing to a group effort (Johnson et al, 1997:261).

4.4.2.4   Performance feedback and co-workers

Performance evaluations by co-workers (peer evaluations) are used widely in organisations. They are seen as very reliable as they are "close to the action" – they have daily interaction with the employee and are aware of the employee's performance. Using more co-workers input for evaluations increases objectivity in terms of evaluations. Group members can influence co-worker evaluations if there are friendships or animosity in the groups. The use of the 360-degree performance appraisal method has grown in popularity and is useful in companies that have introduced teams, Total Quality Management (TQM) programs and greater employee involvement. This type of evaluation is seen to enhance feedback from co-workers, subordinates and customers and improve participation in organisations (Robbins, 1998:568). Peer assessments should not be used as sole provider of feedback information, but as an element in performance appraisal that have unique information or perspectives to offer (Cascio 1998:62).

4.4.2.5   Grapevine

Organisations have both formal and informal communication systems. Formal networks are usually vertical and limited to task-related communications and informal networks move freely in all directions (Pace, 1983:39).

Informal communication, also known as the grapevine has certain characteristics and include the following (Crampton, Hodge and Mishra, 1998:570):

- The grapevine is not controlled by management. The grapevine is free to move in any direction – even over authority levels, and is as likely to satisfy group members' social needs, as it is to facilitate task accomplishments.
- Most employees see it as more credible and reliable than formal communiqués issued by top management
- Individuals largely use the grapevine for personal gain.

The grapevine is more active when issues are perceived to be important and the situations are ambiguous. The grapevine is also relied upon when employees feel threatened, insecure, are under stress, when pending change, and when employees feel that communication from management is limited (Bronwell in Crampton et al, 1998:570).

If individuals desire feedback regarding performance, organisational sources (such as performance appraisals) are seen to be more valuable to the employee than informal sources. If the organisational sources are seen to be less competent (or non-existent) and thus less useful, individuals will begin to use the social sources of feedback in a greater extent (Ashford et al, 1981:164).

Bronwell (in Crampton et al, 1998:570) also links grapevine activity to informal communication as it is found to correlate with turnover, which in its turn is found to link with job satisfaction (Mobley and Hollingsworth in Landly et al, 1979:478).

4.4.2.6   Summary

Employees and their co-workers work together or in close contact to reach certain set by organisations. They are mostly in close proximity of each other and see each other at regular time intervals.

Co-workers provide individuals with feedback on their performance, and the perception and acceptance of feedback is dependent on very similar characteristics as those of the supervisor, being credibility, expertise and trust.

In an organisational setting, groups are important structures that influence behaviour in many ways. Care must thus be taken to ensure that groups are structured effectively and encourage participation by means of leadership.

Groups, as collections of co-workers, provide feedback to members by means of comments or peer ratings, but also set visible standards of performance.

Importantly, co-workers also influence perceptions by means of the grapevine when not enough information or feedback is received from management. It is obvious that must take care in communicating important information that may influence performance and motivation, to limit negative grapevine activity.

4.4.3 THE ROLE OF "THE SELF" AS A PROVIDER OF FEEDBACK

4.4.3.1   Definition

"The self" as a provider of feedback refers to the person himself providing himself with feedback on performance. It includes the "recipient's" own feelings and ideas (Ilgen et al, 1997:353).

"The ability to generate self-feedback usually follows from experience. Once an individual has developed personal performance standards, he or she is able to assess whether or not his or her behaviour is superior, adequate, or substandard (Walsh et al, 1985:29)".

4.4.3.2   The "self" as a source of feedback and its role in the four stages of individuals processing of feedback.

a) Stage 1: Perceived feedback

Where feedback is not given directly, properties of both the person and the stimulus influence the nature of the perceived feedback. In terms of the stimulus, the sign of the feedback and the source that administers feedback are of primary importance. The individual's frame-of-reference with which he or she addresses the performance environment is the major variable affecting perception. In terms of past experience with a task, an individual has certain expectations with regard to performance and expects to receive feedback that is consistent with the expectations. It was found that individuals tend not to perceive feedback that is inconsistent with expectations and seek out feedback that is expected (Ilgen et al, 1979:355)

Personality variables play a role in terms of perception. Some of these variables are seen as locus of control and self-esteem. Although other variables exist, the focus of the study is only on these two.

- **Locus of control**

Locus of control is defined a person's perception of the source of his or her fate. Those who believe that they are in control of their destinies are seen to have an internal locus of control and those who believe their lives as being controlled by outside forces are seen as externals (Robbins 1998:58).

In terms of locus of control and perception, individuals with an internal locus of control cued more task feedback that externals and therefore have been more aware of the feedback from the task. Individuals with an external locus of control tended to ignore the task feedback. This seemed to be reversed when the "experimenter" gave feedback (Ilgen et al, 1979:355).

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- **Self esteem**

Robbins (1998:58) defines self-esteem as the degree individuals like or dislike themselves.

Individuals with high self-esteem are seen to rely more on their own self-perceptions to guide task related behaviour, as they are presumably more confident. Responses to positive and negative feedback are also related to self-esteem. Individuals with high self-esteem raised their self-competence evaluations more after success and lowered them less after failure than did subjects with low self-esteem. Individuals with high self-esteem did not perceive negative feedback as clearly as positive feedback (Ilgen et al, 1979:355).

b) Stage 2: Acceptance of feedback

- **Locus of control and feedback**

Feather in (Ilgen et al,1979:358) found that individuals with an internal locus of control made more typical changes in performance expectations than externals. Changes were defined as in increases in expectations after success feedback and decreases after failure. Internals were also seen to be more likely to accept or believe feedback given to them than externals.

- **Age of the recipient**

Research done by Meyer and Walker (in Ilgen et al: 1979:358) found that older persons used feedback less than young ones due to the fact that age is positively correlated with experience in most job settings. The greater the experience the more the individual may rather use his or her past experience as a source of feedback.

c)   Stage 3: Desire to respond

- **Locus of control**

Individuals with an internal locus of control are seen to desire to respond to feedback that meets their needs for a sense of accomplishment and self-discovery. In most cases feedback from the task should be better able to meet the need than feedback from other individuals. (Ilgen <u>et al</u>, 1979:363).

- **Self-esteem**

Individuals should desire to respond to feedback that agrees with their self-concept.

Individuals with high self-esteem tended to increase their performance more in comparison to individuals with low self-esteem after positive feedback. Performance of individuals with low self-esteem decreased their performance more following negative feedback (Ilgen <u>et al</u>, 1979).
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4.4.3.3   "The self" and motivation

The motivational value of feedback is influenced by the extent to which it provides information to the individual in terms of a sense of competence, control over the task and the degree to which extrinsic rewards will follow. In terms of the personality of the individual, the following was found in terms of needs being filled by feedback from the task itself or from external factors (other than the task).

FIGURE 13   **PERSONALITY AND FEEDBACK**

	Personality of individual	**Nature of feedback information**
Needs being filled by feedback from the task itself	• Internal locus of control • High need for achievement • High self-esteem	• Information about competence • Control over the task
Needs being filled by external factors	• External locus of control • High need for affiliation	• Degree to which extrinsic rewards will follow

(Source: Ilgen et al, 1979)

A sense of personal control is important for intrinsic motivation. Personal control is seen as the extent to which the individual feels her or she has chosen freely to undertake some behaviour or set of behaviours. Personal control is seen to be the highest when the individual's behaviour is solely because he or she likes to do that behaviour. It is suggested that if the feedback provided adds little to what the recipient already knows about his or her performance, feelings of being controlled are likely to be higher than if the feedback information provides new information about performance (Ilgen et al, 1979:362).

4.4.3.4 Summary

Individuals differ in the way in which they perceive and accept feedback. Management should thus take care to acknowledge differences and specific needs of subordinates. Where supervisors have close contact with employees and know them well, they can adjust the manner in which feedback is provided or control over tasks are administered.

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4.4.4 THE TASK AS A PROVIDER OF FEEDBACK

4.4.4.1   Definition

Task feedback is information obtained directly due to the performance of a task. The extent to which the task provides clear information may vary, but it is still a valuable source of information regarding task performance (Walsch et al, 1985:29).

4.4.4.2   Linking the task as a provider of feedback to the model of feedback

The task as a provider of feedback is linked to the model of feedback mainly at Stage 3 (desire to respond).

The issue of whether the individual will want to respond in line with the feedback received is influenced by various factors. One of the factors is seen as intrinsic motivation. According to White in Ilgen et al (1979:362) individuals seek a sense of competence on a task and this sense of competence is a powerful reward for the individual. In order to be able to feel a sense of competence, an individual must be able to judge performance and for this, feedback is important. For evaluating performance, the task itself provides information (internal cues) that allows the employee to meet high order needs by verifying task accomplishment (Carino and White, 1982:95).

Current trends in motivation of employees are focused on the recognition of employees and their value by means of managerial approaches that places a high emphasis on innovation and creativity of employees. This current trend is known as "human potential management" and focuses on the "changing attitudes" towards motivating employees. In this sense, employers seek to realise the employees' needs of self-fulfilment and recognition through realising their potential. To accomplish this, employers focus on tasks and how to adapt or change the tasks to fulfil

the higher order needs of their employees. Job design is used more frequently to enhance motivation as managers base job design around factors and activities to tap into employees' previously neglected potential and skill. Job design strategies include: job enlargement, job enrichment and job rotation (Gee and Burke, 2001:132-133). These are explained below.

a)   Job enlargement

Job enlargement refers to the extension of the number of operations or tasks performed by an employee (Luthans et al, 1979:405).

b)   Job enrichment

Job enrichment is seen as an extension of job enlargement and loads the job vertically by including recognition, responsibility, achievement and growth. It creates a greater variety of work content and gives employees greater responsibility, independence and control in their work, but requires a higher level of skill and knowledge. Its purpose is mainly one of growth and meaningful work experience (Luthans et al, 1979:405).

c)   Job rotation

Job rotation is defined as the periodic shifting of an employee form one task to another in order to combat overroutinization. This takes place when activities are no longer challenging to stimulate interest. Jobs are usually on the same level, that has the same skill requirement (Robbins, 1998:533).

In terms of job design, five core job characteristics were identified (Hackman and Oldham, 1975:160-162) that contributed to the capacity of a job to internally motivate the person performing them. These characteristics are:

- **Skill variety**

Skill variety is seen as the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in doing the work that involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the individual.

- **Task identity**

It is described as the degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work – that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. Tasks are classified as having a high level of task identity usually have the following characteristics (Turner & Lawrence in Porter <u>et al</u>, 1975:203):

- ➢ The jobs provide a clear sense of beginning and end of a transformation process
- ➢ The process is very visible to the individual
- ➢ The transformation to the finished project is very visible
- ➢ The transformation must be considerable in magnitude

- **Task significance**

Task significance is defined as the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people – whether the immediate organisation or in the external environment.

- **Autonomy**

This is described as the amount of substantial freedom, independence and discretion the job provides in terms of scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

- **Feedback from the job**

Feedback from the job is described as the degree to which carrying out the work activities required results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance. It is said that an employee will not experience satisfaction of his high-order needs even if he performs effectively unless he obtains a form of feedback about his performance (Porter et al, 1975:303, Ilgen et al, 1979).

A formula measuring Motivation Potential (MPS) was developed (using the above) where feedback from the job plays an important role in motivation. In this instance, internal motivation was seen as the basic affective form of motivation being influenced. It is described as the degree to which the employee is self-motivated to perform effectively on the job – that is, the employee experiences positive internal feelings when working effectively on the job, and negative internal feelings when performing poorly (Hackman and Oldham, 1975:162).

4.4.4.3   Summary

Supervisors have a very strong influence in the design of tasks of employees. Job design is described as a variable that has a very strong impact on the intrinsic motivation of employees. By stimulating and designing jobs effectively, organisations cannot only expect higher levels of performance, bur definitively higher levels of motivation.

4.4.5 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL AS A PROVIDER OF FEEDBACK

4.4.5.1   Definition

"Performance appraisal is the systematic description of individual or group job-relevant strengths and weaknesses. Performance appraisal

comprises of two processes, observation and judgement, both of which are subject to bias" (Casio, 1998:58).

Bendix (1999:323) sees performance appraisal as important:

"Performance appraisal is seen as a communication process. Without feedback from management and employee, performance appraisals will be of little value. Where performance appraisals enhance communication, it results in corrective behaviour on both sides and leads to job enrichment and job satisfaction. It will improve the labour relationship, as might other schemes for job enrichment, which, again, should emanate from the personnel department. These could extend to career planning as well as education and training initiatives, both of which are increasingly being placed on union agendas in their negotiations with management".

Performance appraisal is seen as vital in information systems and control systems operating in organisations. Performance evaluations are used to facilitate information exchange and influence performance. It is thus informs role players in the organisation as to what is happening and acts as a medium through which organisations influence behaviour (Porter et al, 1975:316).

Performance appraisals serve the following functions (Casio, 1998:59):
- They serve as bases for employment decisions (including planning, transfers, and merit increases) and provide an important input into the administration of a formal organisational reward and punishment system
- Appraisals can serve as criteria for human resources research (e.g. validity studies)
- Appraisals can be used as predictors (promotions)
- Appraisals can be used to set objectives for training programs
- Appraisals can provide concrete feedback to employees
- Appraisals can facilitate organisational diagnosis and development.

4.4.5.2   The individual and performance appraisal

It was found that individuals seek feedback on their performance (Ashford et al, 1981:161), since it gives them more information about themselves (Porter et al, 1975: 318). Performance appraisal is an opportunity for an individual to receive performance feedback for self-evaluation of performance and development.

4.4.5.3   Performance Appraisal and extrinsic rewards

Performance appraisals are mostly used to determine the extrinsic rewards individuals should receive. For this reason employees would more often try to present themselves very positively during the performance appraisal process to obtain the valued rewards they desire. This position creates conflict in terms of goals in performance appraisal – for both the organisation and the individual. This conflict is described in the following figure (Porter et al, 1975:319).

FIGURE 14   CONFLICTS IN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL
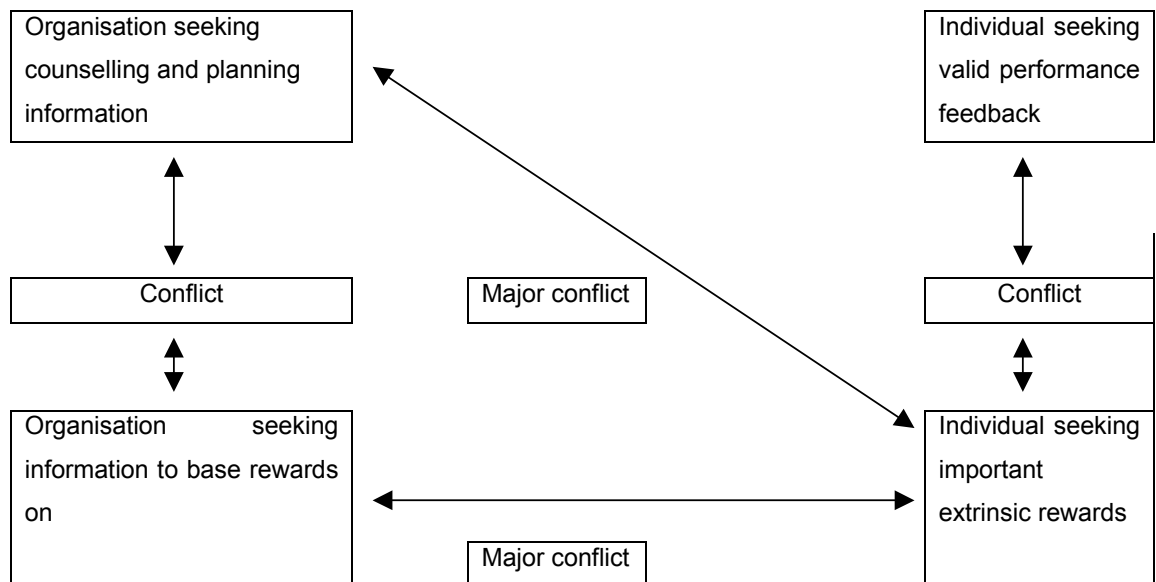
(Source: Porter et al, 1975:319)

Conflict is between two individual goals:

The feedback an employee seeks in terms of performance appraisal.
The extrinsic awards and employee seeks (promotion, pay)

Conflict is also seen between two organisational goals:

- The organisation seeking counselling and planning information
- The organisation seeking information upon which to base external rewards.

Major conflict arises between the individual that seeks extrinsic rewards and the organisation's two goals. This conflict arises mainly as the organisation seeks complete data with reference to performance to be able to counsel the individual and reward performance. In the light of the above, individuals might see that providing too much information, may lead to a restriction in performance rewarding, especially if performance is poor (Porter et al, 1975:319).

To minimise the effect of the above-mentioned conflict, it is proposed that the individual takes part in the evaluation process. This can be done by including them in the setting of performance goals, choosing the way in which measuring would be done and evaluate own performance. They may also provide supervisors with information in the appraisal process that they otherwise should not have known (that might influence the performance appraisal). By including employees in the appraisal process, may enhance the credibility of the process by making employees feel that they have been fairly assessed.

4.4.5.4   Performance appraisal and reward systems

Performance appraisal can be a significant motivator of performance if the system measures performance validity and makes explicit pay-performance connections. This link is important because only by relating

rewards such as pay for good performance, can one generate strong extrinsic motivation. This type of motivation is functional for organisations, especially if the type of activities they perform are low level and repetitive. Purely extrinsic rewards are also possible by making sure employees participate in the performance evaluation process (e.g. giving them control).

4.4.5.5   Performance appraisal and motivation

Robbins (1998:565) refers to the expectancy model with regard to the motivational functions of performance evaluation. He states that it is seen as one of the best explanations as to what conditions the amount of effort an individual will exert on his or her job. He further states that the vital element in the model is performance - especially the effort-performance and performance-reward linkages. To maximise performance, employees need to perceive that the effort they exert leads to a favourable performance evaluation and that the favourable evaluation will lead to the rewards that they value.

4.4.5.6   Individuals seek performance feedback

In the light of the above, it can thus be assumed that individuals would like to know if their efforts are acknowledged and if they have performed by reaching goals set and if their performance would lead to desired rewards.

Research found that individuals actively seek feedback on performance in their working environments and are seen to do it in two ways (Ashford <u>et al</u>, 1981:162)

    a) Individuals actively monitor the information environment for cues from which feedback is extracted. This could be done by observing others performing the same task and my include activities that may

be rewarded and using the observations as feedback on his or her own behaviours.

b) Individuals may generate feedback by asking others for their perceptions, interpretations and evaluations of particular behaviours. This form of feedback is seen as effortful and risky as the individual establishes contact with a source (supervisor), seek the attention of the source, request the source to expend effort and interpret both the context and style of the feedback received.

FIGURE 15   FEEDBACK SEEKING STRATEGIES ADOPTED BY INDIVIDUALS
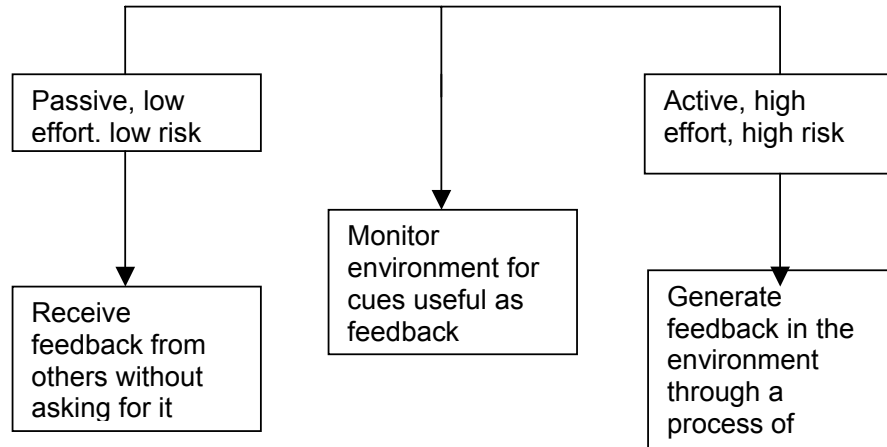
(Source: Ashford et al, 1981:162)

Graphically, the feedback strategies are described on a continuum of feedback strategies. The activities vary in the amount of effort and risk of "loosing face". Various factors thus influence the amount and type of feedback an individual receives. Certain factors enhance feedback (e.g. well-developed relationships between supervisor and subordinate and some cause barriers or obstructions).

4.4.5.7 Summary

Performance appraisal is an important communication process as it informs employees about their performance and provides important information to organisations that impacts their personnel decisions.

Performance appraisals create a platform of communication for performance reward contingencies. It therefore also plays an important role in behaviour as it can influence an individual's motivation to perform due to the link with rewards.

Certain problems or barriers do however, exist that are known to negatively influence performance appraisals. A natural conflict between individuals and organisations exist. This occurs when employees want to be seen as better performers than what they are in order to receive rewards and organisations wanting information to correct performance discrepancies.

Never the less, individuals seek performance feedback and they use certain strategies to gain the information as described by Ashford and Cummings.

4.5 FEEDBACK OBSTRUCTION

4.5.1 DEFINITION

It is a fact that all sources of feedback are not always in a position to provide feedback to individuals, e.g. physical distance between supervisor and subordinate may limit opportunity to provide frequent and timeous feedback. Feedback obstruction takes place when attempts to obtain feedback are blocked in some way. In environments where feedback is obstructed it has certain consequences for the individual such as higher levels of stress, anxiety and withdrawal behaviour. When

feedback obstruction takes place the following conditions apply (Walsch, et al1981:26).

a) Individuals receive very little feedback from tasks or the environment and information flowing toward the individual is blocked.
b) The ability of individuals to obtain feedback from various sources by their own effort is blocked by either contextual or interpersonal factors.

Walsch,et al (1981:26) describe instances of feedback obstruction and refer to each source of feedback:

a)	Self-feedback is seen as obstructed for new employees as quality and performance standards are not available. The individual has therefore difficulty in comparing himself or herself to standards.
b)	Task feedback is obstructed as it may have an element of ambiguity as tasks vary in terms of the amount of feedback they can supply. It is described in the example of a pharmaceutical sales person being assured by the doctor that he or she will prescribe a certain product to patients. Such forms of feedback are seen as ambiguous as they do not provide any useful feedback.
c)	Co-worker feedback obstruction can mainly be due to the fact that there is little contact – either by distance or not forming part of an ongoing work group.
d)	Supervisory feedback obstruction is seen as being obstructed due to the lack of approachability that may occur by:

- Absence of contact (Supervisors being physically far away)
- The employee may feel the need to act competently and the "face work costs" for appearing ill informed may be perceived as too high.

e)	Organisational feedback obstruction is described as performance feedback not being provided timeously (or not at all) e.g. lag time

in providing production results. It can also refer to the extent that feedback is too general and not personally relevant.

Casio (1998:60) adds a few other obstructions or barriers to performance appraisals:

- **Interpersonal barriers**

Employees may be under the impression that that they are judged according one set of standards, whilst supervisors rate them on another set of standards. Managers and supervisors often complain that face-to-face interviews tend to interfere with the constructive coaching relationship that is valuable to both the employee and the supervisor (Casio, 1998).

- **Organisational barriers**

Organisational feedback obstruction is seen as feedback that is not given timeously or that has little relevance on the employee on a personal level. This could take place with regard to providing information on a company wide basis that has little or no performance feedback value for the individual or if performance appraisals do not take place (thus no timeous feedback is given). Another form of organisational obstruction is the performance system itself. Casio (1998:61) states that common causes of problems are built into the system such as decisions made prior to the implementation, design flaws and other managerial shortcomings. These may include operators of the system or subgroups within the system.

- **Political barriers**

Internal political barriers are seen as barriers stemming from deliberate attempts by raters to enhance or to protect their self-interests when conflicting courses of action are possible (Casio, 1998:59).

All performance appraisals take place in organisations where the environment is never completely rational, straightforward or dispassionate. Managers do not want to allow excessive accurate ratings to cause problems for themselves and it was found that managers use the appraisal process to their own advantage (Casio, 1998: 60).

External political and regulatory barriers also exit that influence performance appraisal. In the South African context, the political environment has always influenced the workplace quite dramatically. It is commonly known that from the early years of industrialisation in South Africa the employment environment has been characterised by racial divisions and suppression of communism.

Today, in post-apartheid South Africa, unionism is a given. Revised labour laws provide a more regulated labour system by creating various formal structures for employee participation, collective bargaining and conflict resolution. These structures include the workplace forums, bargaining councils, statutory councils, Commission for conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration and the Labour Court.

In terms of the above, bargaining councils are becoming very prominent centralised instruments that are used for the regulation of industrial relations in sectors such as the metal and engineering sections.

A Bargaining Council is defined as an organisation that is registered by the Department of Labour, comprising of one or more registered trade unions and one or more registered employer organisations. Membership is voluntary (Finnemore, 1998:163).

Many advantages of centralised bargaining do exist, such as common conditions for a specific industry, uniform wages that prevent undercutting of wages by competitors, training may be enhanced, establishing of dispute resolution procedures, fewer strikes and removing conflict form

the shop floor as negotiations take place on a higher level (Finnemore, 1998:166).

Certain problems do however, occur with the establishment of bargaining councils.

Bargaining councils restrict the operation of market forces. As stated by Finnemore (1998), a few large employers may set up a bargaining council and via an extension of the collective agreement cover all employers and employees in the demarcated area. In terms of a wage agreement, all employers are then bound to apply the minimum wage, even if they are not members of the bargaining council. Market forces thus would have restricted influence on the wages of the sector.

Flexibility in terms of employment practices and pay systems are also influenced. It is argued that centralised bargaining does not provide sufficient flexibility to allow companies to adapt their basic conditions of employment to suit their specific environments. A flat pay rate is not seen to produce a motivated workforce (Finnemore, 1998). In terms of a flat rate of pay, all employees are paid the same wage increase (irrespective of performance) and are not allowed to be paid under the set minimum wage. Productivity agreements as incentives do exist, but are focused on group structures only (MEIBC Main agreement, 2003-2004:59). Individual incentives to payment are seen as "over and above" normal yearly increases, which become very expensive for organisations in general.

In terms of the application of expectancy theory of motivation, it can be inferred that a "flat pay rate"- practice is detrimental to the motivation of employees as it eliminates the effort-performance-reward contingency. In terms of equity theory, the presence of inequity motivates the individual to change the situation by means of behavioural or cognitive means to be able to return to a condition of equity (this concept is described in the chapter on motivation). For example, where an employee (X) is a hard worker of nature, and he is rewarded in the same way (financially) as

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another employee (Y) that is not working as hard or productively, he (X) would adjust his own performance to return to a level where he perceives his inputs and outputs to be equal to the other employee's (Y). This would not only negatively influence the bottom line of the company, but also influence the motivation and satisfaction of the employees.

It can further be inferred that the flat rate of pay also negatively influences the power base of reward of the supervisor (as discussed earlier). He or she thus would be limited in terms of rewarding performance on ground level. The power of "motivation" by the supervisor would then be negatively influenced.

In conclusion, it can be stated that organisations do experience difficulties to provide effective performance feedback. These are barriers identified are applicable to all sources of feedback, both in and outside organisations. It does not however, minimise the importance of providing feedback to employees.

4.6   SUMMARY

In this chapter, communication was defined in terms of the model of communication and emphasis was placed on the feedback component.
The feedback component was explained by referring to the application of feedback and its role in the communication process. The manner in which individuals process information was described by using the model of the effect of feedback op recipients. The four stages of the model were explained.

The generic sources of feedback were discussed with reference to the above-mentioned model and motivation, perception and communication (feedback).

This chapter in conclusion, emphasised communication and feedback as vital in all organisations. Feedback and its relationship with perceptions and motivation were highlighted as important influencing factors in all organisations.

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CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1   INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters, perception, motivation and feedback were discussed in terms of their importance in daily activities of mankind and in the organisational setting. The role of perceptions in social and organisational context was reviewed. The impact of motivation on behaviour was described in terms of expectancy theory. Feedback as part of communication was discussed with special reference to the sources of feedback.

In this chapter, specific attention will be given to the measuring instrument used, the respondents and the statistical methodology applied.

5.2   RESEARCH STRATEGY

The aim of the study was to determine if source feedback (from the five different sources) has a significant influence on the motivation of employees.

To determine the influence relationship, it was decided to conduct a survey. De La Rey (1978:14) sees the survey method as a reflection whereby the researcher gathers information about a certain phenomenon and interprets it. The information is then used to determine the causality of the phenomena as well as the factors influencing it. When conducting a survey, a researcher samples respondents who answer the same questions. Researchers measure variables, test hypotheses and make inferences about past behaviour, experiences and characteristics (Neuman, 1997:231).

To determine the relationship of feedback to motivation, it is vital to (1) determine the level of motivation of the employees and (2) to determine the perceptions of employees with regard to the five feedback sources.

5.3   QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire was compiled consisting of 86 questions. The questionnaire consisted of four sections:

Section 1: Biographical information

This section was used to profile the candidates in terms of years of service, gender, status in the company, nature of their job activities, department, home language, qualifications and age.

Section 2:   Feedback

Feedback was described in terms of the sources of performance feedback commonly used in organisations. Respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with statements made on a seven point Likert type rating scale. Due to the importance of direction and intensity of the respondents' perceptions, a Likert-type rating scale was used. The respondents indicated the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with statements. The scale representing number 1 indicated agreement and number 7, disagreement. Due to the fact that some of the items have an inverse context, adjustments were made in order to process the data.

Four sources of feedback were focused upon:
Self feedback
Task feedback
Co-worker feedback
Supervisor feedback

Due to the fact that no formal performance appraisal system was in use in the company, the section did not focus on the formal process of appraisal as a source of providing information on performance. It was however referred to in question 56 and question 57, where respondents were asked if they would prefer performance appraisals or not.

Section 3:   Satisfaction

A short section comprising of three items were placed in the questionnaire to determine basic job satisfaction.

Section 4:   Motivation

In this section, the questionnaire by Lawler et al (1975) was used to determine job motivation, based on the expectancy theory of motivation. The section comprised of 25 questions on a Likert-type rating scale.

The first set of questions focused on the expectations of reward with regard to performance (11 questions). Respondents were asked to rate their answers in terms of "not at all likely" to "extremely likely". The second set of questions focused on the list of elements important to individuals. Respondents were also asked to rate their answers in terms of "less important" to "very important". The third set of questions focused on the expectancy that working hard (effort) would lead to a performance outcome.

5.4   RESEARCH GROUP AND RESPONDENTS

The research group comprises of 196 employees of a manufacturing company working on different levels. The levels ranged from management to production workers and included employees from different levels of qualification, age, status (permanent or contractors), language, years of service and gender. The respondents were drawn randomly within their different sections.

5.5   DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

5.5.1 DISTRIBUTION AND COLLECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaires were distributed by the researcher to the different sections via the management channels in the organisation. All questionnaires were completed using pen and paper and sent to the Human Resources Department via internal mail.

5.5.2 DATA ANALYSIS

All data received from the questionnaires were read into a spreadsheet format and the computer based program, SPSS (Statistical Package for for the Social Sciences) was used to analyse the data.

5.5.3   STATISTICAL METHODS

5.5.3.1   CORRELATION

Cascio (1998:322) describes correlation by stating:

"The degree of relationship between any two variables is simply the extent to which they vary together in a systematic fashion. The magnitude or degree to which they are related linearly is indicated by some measure of correlation, the most popular of which is the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, r. As a measure of relationship, r varies between +/-1. When r is 1.00, the two sets of scores are related perfectly and systematically to each other."

The Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient is a parametric correlation statistic and is a quantitative index of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (Peers, 1996:253).

5.5.3.2   REGRESSION

Correlation does not allow prediction of criterion scores form predictor scores. For this function, a statistical technique known as regression analysis is used (Cascio, 1998:322).

Regression analysis is used for the following (Peers, 1996:253):

a)   Describing the relationship between a response variable and an explanatory variable

b)   Predicting the values of a response variable from independent variables

5.5.3.3   RELIABILITY

Reliability of a measurement refers to a measurement constantly providing the same results measured repeatedly under near identical conditions (Pears, 1996:3). Reliability means that the information provided by indicators does not vary as a result of characteristics of the indicator, instrument or measurement device itself (Neuman, 1997:138).

5.5.3.4   EFFECT SIZES

Effect sizes are seen as standardised measures of relationships. The score indicates the relative importance of the covariate, main or interaction effect. A main effect is seen as the direct effect of an independent variable and an interaction effect is the joint affect of two or more independent variables on the dependent variable (Source: Becker, 2000:1).

Effect sizes can be calculated in different ways. One such a method is using the point-biserial correlation. The effect size correlation can be computed directly as the point-biserial correlation between the dichotomous independent variable and the continuous dependent variable. The point-biserial is a special case of the Pearson product-

moment correlation that is used when one of the variables is dichotomous. the point-biserial is a shorthand method for computing a Pearson product-moment correlation. The value of the point-biserial is the same as that obtained from the product-moment correlation (Source: Becker, 2000:5).

FIGURE 16   EFFECT SIZE CORRELATION

$$r_{Y.} = r_{dv,iv}$$

The relationship between d, r (Pearson product-moment coefficient) and r² is shown in the following table.

TABLE 2   THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN d, r AND r²

Cohen's Standard	d	r	r²
	2.0	.707	.500
	1.9	.689	.474
	1.8	.669	.448
	1.7	.648	.419
	1.6	.625	.390
	1.5	.600	.360
	1.4	.573	.329
	1.3	.545	.297
	1.2	.514	.265
	1.1	.482	.232
	1.0	.447	.200
	0.9	.410	.168
LARGE	0.8	.371	.138
	0.7	.330	.109
	0.6	.287	.083
MEDIUM	0.5	.243	.059
	0.4	.196	.038
	0.3	.148	.022

SMALL	0.2	.100	.010
	0.1	.050	.002
	0.0	.000	.000

(Source: Becker, 2000:5)

5.6   SUMMARY

Research is seen as a systematic process where variables, which may influence outcomes, are controlled as far as possible (De La Rey, 1978:15). It is thus important for all researchers to follow set scientific procedures in ensuring credible results.

In this chapter, the research methodology followed was discussed with reference to the research strategy, the questionnaire, statistical methods, and reliability. This chapter thus formed the background to the following chapter where interpretations were made.

CHAPTER 6
RESULTS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the application of statistical measures and results obtained when analysing the data. The findings and the interpretations will be discussed.

6.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

6.2.1 FREQUENCY TABLES

For each value of a variable, a frequency table displays the number of times (count) that value occurs. The table displays the number and percentage of cases for each value of the variable.

TABLE 3   GENDER

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	119	60.7	60.7	60.7
	female	77	39.3	39.3	100.0
	Total	196	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 presents the gender distribution in the study. A greater number of participants were male (119), with a percentage of 60.7 percent in comparison with females (77), with a percentage of 39.3 %.

TABLE 4   STATUS OF EMPLOYMENT

Permanent or contract

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	contract	19	9.7	9.8	9.8
	permanent	175	89.3	90.2	100.0
	Total	194	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.0		
Total		196	100.0		

There are both permanent and contract workers in the employ of the company. In the study, a greater number of participants were permanent employees (175), with a percentage of 89.7 % in comparison with females (19), with a percentage of 9.7 %.

TABLE 5   NATURE OF JOB

Nature of job

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	management	11	5.6	5.8	5.8
	supervisor	24	12.2	12.7	18.5
	administrative	33	16.8	17.5	36.0
	specialist	21	10.7	11.1	47.1
	security	7	3.6	3.7	50.8
	quality	23	11.7	12.2	63.0
	production worker	70	35.7	37.0	100.0
	Total	189	96.4	100.0	
Missing	System	7	3.6		
Total		196	100.0		

The nature of the job distribution refers to the different types of jobs the employees perform in the company. Seven different categories were described. The greatest number of participants was production workers (70), with a percentage of 35.7 %. Administrative personnel were also found to be of a high number (33), with a percentage of 16.8 %, followed by supervisors (24), with a percentage of 12.2 % and employees in quality assurance (23), with a percentage of 11.7 %. Specialists include employees with specialist knowledge (such as tradesmen) and

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represented 10.7 % of participants. Managers, were represented by 11 participants (5.6 %) and security with a percentage of 3.6 %.

TABLE 6   LANGUAGE

Home Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tswana	17	8.7	8.9	8.9
	Afrikaans	126	64.3	66.0	74.9
	N-Sotho	26	13.3	13.6	88.5
	Tsonga	8	4.1	4.2	92.7
	Other	14	7.1	7.3	100.0
	Total	191	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.6		
Total		196	100.0		

Home language refers to the mother tongue of the participants. Although English is the official language of the company, the majority of employees are not English speaking individuals. Afrikaans is spoken more frequently (64.3 %). This phenomenon is probably due to the influence a combination of white employees and coloured employees with Afrikaans as their home language. It was found with the completion of the questionnaires that employees had difficulty in completing the questionnaires. Negative feedback due to the use of English questionnaires was received.

TABLE 7   HIGHEST SCHOOL QUALIFICATION

Highest school qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Std. 6 or lower	10	5.1	5.2	5.2
	Std. 7	15	7.7	7.8	13.0
	Std. 8	35	17.9	18.2	31.3
	Std. 9	13	6.6	6.8	38.0
	Std. 10	86	43.9	44.8	82.8
	N 1	9	4.6	4.7	87.5
	N 2	3	1.5	1.6	89.1
	N3	12	6.1	6.3	95.3
	Other	9	4.6	4.7	100.0
	Total	192	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.0		
Total		196	100.0		

A cumulative percent of 31.3% of employees have a school qualification (academic) of std. 8 (grade 10) and lower. A matric level of education (Grade 12 or std. 10) represents 43.9 % of the study. It is important to see that there are employees who did not complete an academic qualification, but attended a college or similar educational institution (to complete N1, N2 and N3) to complete certain "N" qualifications.

TABLE 8   QUALIFICATIONS

Qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Trade qualification	26	13.3	32.5	32.5
	National Certificate	10	5.1	12.5	45.0
	National Diploma	21	10.7	26.3	71.3
	University degree	9	4.6	11.3	82.5
	Other	14	7.1	17.5	100.0
	Total	80	40.8	100.0	
Missing	No Response	116	59.2		
Total		196	100.0		

Trade qualifications refer to the technical qualifications after completing an apprenticeship-training programme. Examples of trade qualifications include fitting, turning and toolmaking. Trade qualifications represented 13.3 % of formal qualifications of participants. National certificate employees represented 5.1% of employees and employees with National

Diplomas in various fields, 10.7 %. Graduates represented 4.6 % of the participants. The no-response category represents all the other participants to the study not having any form of formal qualification other than school qualifications. This group is large, and forms 59.2 % of the participants to the study.

TABLE 9   AGE

Age in years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Younger than 25	15	7.7	7.7	7.7
	25-30	30	15.3	15.3	23.0
	31-35	24	12.2	12.2	35.2
	36-40	16	8.2	8.2	43.4
	41-45	40	20.4	20.4	63.8
	46-55	58	29.6	29.6	93.4
	Oder than 55	13	6.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	196	100.0	100.0	

The age distribution of participants to the study is described in this table. Age group 46-55 has the largest amount of participants, namely 58 (29.6 %), followed by the age group 41-45, with 40 (20.4%). The smallest groups are participants younger than 25 (7.7 %), the group 36-40 (8.2 %) and participants older than 55.

TABLE 10   MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES

Motivational score

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low motivation score	3	1.5	1.5	1.5
	Low motivation score	12	6.1	6.1	7.7
	Below average motivation score	39	19.9	19.9	27.6
	Average motivation	61	31.1	31.1	58.7
	Above average motivation score	30	15.3	15.3	74.0
	High motivation score	37	18.9	18.9	92.9
	Very high motivation score	14	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	196	100.0	100.0	

The table indicates the level of motivation of employees. The highest group of participants have average motivational scores. Close to twenty percent (19.9 %) of participants have below average motivational scores and 15.3 % of participants have above average motivational scores.

TABLE 11   NEED FOR PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL (FORMAL)

Need for formal performance appraisal

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very high need for performance feedback	89	45.4	46.1	46.1
	High need for performance feedback	33	16.8	17.1	63.2
	Above agverage need for performance feedback	14	7.1	7.3	70.5
	Average need for performance feedback	17	8.7	8.8	79.3
	Below average need for performance feedback	4	2.0	2.1	81.3
	Low need for performance feedback	18	9.2	9.3	90.7
	Very low need for performance feedback	18	9.2	9.3	100.0
	Total	193	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.5		
Total		196	100.0		

This table describes the need of participants for formal performance appraisals. In this table, 70.5 % of participants have an above average need for performance appraisal feedback.

6.3   RELIABILITY

Alpha (Cronbach). This is a model of internal consistency, based on the average inter-item correlation.

TABLE 12   RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Feedback	Items (N)	Alpha	Standardised Alpha
1. Self feedback	7	0.6855	0.6949
2. Task feedback	12	0.7774	0.7780
3. Supervisor feedback	9	0.7530	0.7597
4. Co-worker feedback	8	0.5306	0.5336

A high level of reliability was found with reference to task feedback, supervisor feedback and self feedback. Satisfactory reliability was found on co-worker feedback.

6.4   CORRELATION

TABLE 13   MOTIVATION AND SOURCE FEEDBACK

		Supervisor feedback	Co-worker feedback	Self feedback	Task feedback	Motivational score
Supervisor feedback	Pearson Correlation	1	.236**	.143	.306**	-.467**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.	.002	.065	.000	.000
	N	183	169	168	171	183
Co-worker feedback	Pearson Correlation	.236**	1	.241**	.197*	-.088
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.002	.	.002	0.10	.242
	N	169	179	165	169	179
Self feedback	Pearson Correlation	.143	.241**	1	.401**	-.191*
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.065	.002	.	.000	.010
	N	168	165	181	171	181
Task feedback	Pearson Correlation	.306**	.197*	.401**	1	-.381
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	0.010	.000	.	.000
	N	171	169	171	182	182
Motivational score	Pearson Correlation	-.467	-.088	-.191*	-.381**	1
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.242	.010	.000	.
	N	183	179	181	182	196

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The table displays Pearson correlation coefficients, significance values, and the number of cases with non-missing values (N). The Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables.

The values of the correlation coefficient range from -1 to 1. The sign of the correlation coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship (positive or negative). The significance of each correlation coefficient is

also displayed in the correlation table. The significance level (or p-value) is the probability of obtaining results as extreme as the one observed. If the significance level is very small (less than 0.05) then the correlation is significant and the two variables are linearly related.

In the table correlations between motivation and feedback are negative for all sources of feedback. Significant correlations are supervisor feedback (-0.467), Self-feedback (-0.191) and task feedback (-0.381).

Effect sizes are also seen to play an important role. Effect sizes are seen as standardised measures of relationships. Using the table as set out in the previous chapter, the following effects were found:

Large effects were found for:

- Supervisor feedback and task feedback (0.306**), d= 0.6.
- Motivation score and supervisor feedback (-4.67**), d=1.0
- Motivation score and task feedback (-3.81**), d=0.8
- Self feedback and task feedback (-3.81), d=0.8

Where d=0.6, the amount of variance in the dependent variable that is accounted for is about 8.3%, where d=1.0 the variance is 20% and where d=0.8, the deviation is 13.8%.

Medium effects were found for:
- Supervisor feedback and co-worker feedback (0.236**), d=0.4
- Co-worker feedback and self-feedback (0.241**), d=0.4
- Task feedback and co-worker feedback (0.197**), d=0.4
- Motivation and self-feedback (-1.191*), d=0.4

In all cases, d=0.4. The amount of variance that is accounted for is about 3.8%.

It can be seen that the higher the "r", the higher the "d" and this implicates the large size effect.

TABLE 14   **FEEDBACK AND AVERAGE EXPECTANCY VALENCE**

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Average Expectancy valence	23.3312	10.46441	196
Supervisor feedback	3.10	1.246	183
Co-worker feedback	3.73	1.185	179
Self feedback	2.3564	.84816	181
Task feedback	2.9231	1.01317	182

The table describes the mean, the standard deviation and the number of cases with no missing values.

The mean or arrhythmic average, are set in the proximity of 3 for supervisors feedback, co-worker feedback, task feedback and 23.331 for the expectancy valence. The mean of self-feedback is set at 2.356. This is computed by adding up the scores and then dividing the scores by the number of scores. This is a well-known way of measuring central tendency and is only used for interval or ration level data (Neuman, 1997:300). Scores at the extreme ends (high and low) will disproportional influence the mean (Bless and Kathuria, 1993:46). This concept of influence is commonly known as the standard deviation (Op'thof, 2000:93). The standard deviation indicates the extent individual scores are distributed around the mean (De La Rey, 1978:66). The standard deviation "tells you how much dispersion there is in the distribution of the values in a sample" (Op'thof, 2003:93). The distribution scores as set out in the table indicate that the employees responded very similarly, especially in terms of self-feedback with a standard deviation of 0.848.

TABLE 15   EXPECTANCY VALENCE AND FEEDBACK

		Average Expectancy Valence	Supervisor feedback	Co-worker feedback	Self feedback	Task feedback
Average Expectancy Valence	Pearson Correlation	1	-.432**	-.086	-.222**	-.333**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.	.000	.253	.003	.000
	N	196	183	179	181	182
Supervisor feedback	Pearson Correlation	-.432**	1	.236**	.143*	-.306**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.	.002	.065	.000
	N	183	183	169	168	171
Co-worker feedback	Pearson Correlation	-.086	.236**	1	.241**	.197*
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.253	.002	.	.002	.010
	N	179	169	179	165	169
Self feedback	Pearson Correlation	-.222**	.143*	.241**	1	.401
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.003	.065	.002	.	.000
	N	181	168	165	181	171
Task feedback	Pearson Correlation	-.333	.306	-.197*	401**	1
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.010	.000	.
	N	182	171	169	171	182

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

As can be seen, there are negative correlations between the average expectancy valence and supervisor feedback (-0.432**), self-feedback (-0.222**) and task feedback (-0.333**).

All of the correlations in the table are of significant value. N is the number of cases with non-missing values. In this case, a large number of the research group is represented in all instances.

As this study is based on the expectancy theory of motivation, expectancy valence refers to a combination of a number of beliefs about what the outcomes of successful performance will be and the value or attractiveness of these outcomes for the individual. Based on the theory, the more likely a person feels that performance will lead to valent outcomes, the more likely her or she will try to perform at the required level. The expectancy valence and source feedback correlations are negative. The negative correlations thus indicate that the more source feedback on performance is received, (excluding formal performance appraisals) the lower the average expectancy valence. It can thus be inferred that source feedback in this instance, negatively influences the perceptions or belief about what the outcomes of successful performance

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will be and the value or attractiveness of these outcomes for the individual. It can thus further be inferred that behaviour of employees will be negatively influenced by the feedback they receive.

Other correlations are also present. It is seen that there is a positive correlation between supervisor feedback and co-worker feedback. Where an individual thus receives positive feedback from his or her supervisor, he or she would receive positive feedback form the co-workers he or she works with. It can be assumed that group influence on behaviour is high. There is also a positive correlation between supervisor feedback and task feedback. The correlation could be explained by an individual completing a task and receiving feedback from it, and the supervisor providing the same or similar feedback on performance. Correlations also exist between self-feedback and co-worker feedback. Due to the fact that a large number of tasks are performed in group settings, it is quite likely that the performance feedback from the co-workers would positively influence self feedback, as self feedback is a product of the environment and employee finds himself in. Task feedback also positively correlates with self-feedback. This could be illustrated by the fact that if a person performs well on a task e.g. turning asset piece, the employee will receive information of task success as well as information of self worth and increased control over his or her work piece.

Effect sizes are also seen to play an important role. Effect sizes are seen as standardised measures of relationships. Using the table as set out in the previous chapter, the following effects were found:

Large effects were found for:

- Supervisor feedback and average expectancy valence (0.432**), d= 0.9
- Task feedback and self feedback (0.401**), d=0.8
- Supervisor feedback and task feedback (0.306**), d=0.6

- Task feedback and expectancy valence (0.333*), d=0.7

Where d=0.9, the amount of variance in the dependent variable that is accounted for is about 16.8%, where d=0.8 the variance is 13.8%, where d=06, the variance is 8.3% and where d=0.7, the deviation is 10.9%.

Medium effects were found for:

- Self feedback and expectancy valence (-0.222**), d=0.4
- Co-worker feedback and supervisor feedback (0.236**), d=0.4
- Self-feedback and co-worker feedback (0.241**), d=0.4

In all cases, d=0.4. The amount of variance that is accounted for is about 3.8%.

A small effect was found for co-worker feedback and task feedback (0.197*), d=0.1. The amount of variance that is accounted for is about 2%.

TABLE 16   MOTIVATION AND AVERAGE EXPECTANCY VALENCE

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Motivational score	4.3776	1.41432	196
Average Expectancy valence	23.3312	10.46441	196

Table 16 describes the mean, the standard deviation and the cases where no missing values were identified.

The mean or arrhythmic average is set at 4.7 for the motivational score and at 23.331 for the expectancy valence.

In terms of the standard deviation, the motivational score has an average distance of 1.4 from the mean, indicating that a large amount of scores

fall in relative close proximity to the mean. This indicates that employees do not vary much in terms of motivational scores. This is also true for the standard deviation of 10.4 of the average expectancy valence. They do however, not fall as closely together as the motivational scores.

TABLE 17   CORRELATIONS OF MOTIVATION AND AVERAGE EXPECTANCY VALENCE

Correlations

		Motivational score	Average Expectancy valence
Motivational score	Pearson Correlation	1	.892**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	196	196
Average Expectancy valence	Pearson Correlation	.892**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	196	196

**· Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlations table displays Pearson correlation coefficients, significance values, and the number of cases with non-missing values. As can be seen, there is a significant positive correlation between the motivational score and the expectancy valence score.

The positive correlation implies that the higher the expectancy valence, the higher the level of motivation. This is in accordance with the expectancy theory of motivation as discussed in chapter 3**.**

6.5   REGRESSION

With the calculation of regression, the stepwise method was used.

**TABLE 18   FEEDBACK, MOTIVATION AND EXPECTANCY VALENCE: MODEL
SUMMARY**

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.911[a]	.830	.828	.60544
2	.917[b]	.842	.840	.58538
3	.921[c]	.849	.846	.57379

[a.] Predictors: (Constant), Average Expectancy valence

[b.] Predictors: (Constant), Average Expectancy valence,
Supervisor feedback

[c.] Predictors: (Constant), Average Expectancy valence,
Supervisor feedback, Task feedback

This table displays R, R squared, adjusted R squared, and the standard error. R, the multiple correlation coefficient, is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variable (motivation).

The values of R for models produced by the regression procedure range from 0 to 1. Larger values of R indicate stronger relationships. R squared is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable explained by the regression model.

In using multiple regression, the best fitting model is sought to describe the relationship between a dependent variable and more than one independent variable. In table 18, the predictions with regard to motivation, as a dependent variable were possible.

Due to the fact that R=0.921 in model three, it is seen as the highest correlation coefficient and the lowest standard error of estimates. This implies that model 3 is chosen to describe the relationship between feedback, motivation and expectancy valence.

TABLE 19   FEEDBACK, MOTIVATION AND EXPECTANCY VALENCE: ANOVA

ANOVA[d]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	262.264	1	262.264	715.489	.000[a]
	Residual	53.883	147	.367		
	Total	316.148	148			
2	Regression	266.117	2	133.059	388.293	.000[b]
	Residual	50.031	146	.343		
	Total	316.148	148			
3	Regression	268.408	3	89.469	271.748	.000[c]
	Residual	47.739	145	.329		
	Total	316.148	148			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Average Expectancy valence

b. Predictors: (Constant), Average Expectancy valence, Supervisor feedback

c. Predictors: (Constant), Average Expectancy valence, Supervisor feedback, Task feedback

d. Dependent Variable: Motivational score

The output for regression displays information about the variation accounted for by the model. The output for residual displays information about the variation that is not accounted for by the model. The model has a large regression sum of squares in comparison to the residual sum of squares and indicates that the model accounts for most of variation in the dependent variable (motivation). This is shown by regression sum of squares being 268.408 and the residual sum of squares equaling 47.739.

The mean square is the sum of squares divided by the degrees of freedom. The F statistic is the regression mean square (MSR) divided by the residual mean square (MSE). As the F statistic is smaller than 0.05 it explains the variation in the dependent variable (motivation).

TABLE 20   COEFFICIENTS WITH DEPENDENT VARIABLE: MOTIVATIONAL SCORE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.503	.118		12.780	.000
	Average Expectancy valence	.121	.005	.911	26.749	.000
2	(Constant)	2.113	.215		9.848	.000
	Average Expectancy valence	.114	.005	.858	23.509	.000
	Supervisor feedback	-.140	.042	-.122	-3.353	.001
3	(Constant)	2.517	.260		9.678	.000
	Average Expectancy valence	.111	.005	.834	22.636	.000
	Supervisor feedback	-.120	.042	-.104	-2.869	.005
	Task feedback	-.132	.050	-.092	-2.638	.009

a. Dependent Variable: Motivational score

The unstandardised coefficients are the coefficients of the estimated regression model. The estimated model is average expectancy valence (0.111), Supervisor feedback (-0.120) and Task feedback (-0.132). Due to measurements in different units, standardised coefficients or betas are used to make the regression coefficients more comparable. Average expectancy valence (0.834), supervisor feedback (-0.104) and task feedback (-0.092) combined to form significant predictors of motivation. It can thus be said that the more feedback received from the task and the supervisor, the less the expectancy that the outcome will lead to rewards. As expectancy valence positively correlates with motivation, it can be said that the lower the expectancy of rewards, the lower the motivation.

This relationship implies that average expectancy valence (positive relation), supervisor feedback (negative relation) and task feedback (negative relation) plays a significant role in determining motivation.

6.6   SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of the study were obtained by using different statistical methods. These were mainly descriptive statistics, frequency

tables, correlation and multiple regression. The results were also discussed in terms of expectancy theory and possible reasons for negative correlations were discussed. In the following chapter, conclusions and recommendations are made in the light of the results described in this chapter.

CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was initiated as a result of identifying certain problems in performance feedback when abolishing formal performance evaluations. Although performance appraisal is not seen as the only form of performance feedback, traditionally it has been linked to effort-performance-reward contingencies as explained in the expectancy theory of motivation.

7.2 REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was therefore to examine motivation by means of expectancy theory, perception and feedback in order to determine if performance feedback perceptions have an influence on employee motivation.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS

Research indicated that there is a significant relationship between motivation and performance source feedback. The relationship however, is negative for all of the feedback sources.

A probable reason for the negative correlation is the negative relationship between feedback sources and average expectancy valence (the perception or belief that performance would lead to desired rewards or outcomes). This "lack" of belief or perception is most likely to be due to a lack of formal performance feedback structures. This inference is made due to the following reasons:

- Negative correlation between average expectancy valence and supervisor feedback. It can thus be said that feedback received from supervisors do not enhance the perception that performance will lead to a desired outcomes, but rather limit it. Supervisor feedback could be negatively influenced by limited or feedback given in a "too general" sense. This can be attributed to the fact that sections are large and formal performance feedback is a not given. In a sense one would expect feedback on performance to be more frequent to those who perform well and where their performance is very visible or where performance is below standard.

- Negative correlation between average expectancy valence and task feedback is seen to exist. This could be due to fact that the company manufactures small components, where individual control is limited. Where most of the individuals that participated in the study work on the production floor, it can be inferred that task feedback is negatively influenced and expectancies of performance outcome on an individual basis, is limited.

- A negative correlation between average expectancy valence and self-feedback is described. As stated earlier it was found that where feedback is not given directly, properties of both the person and the stimulus influence the nature of the perceived feedback. The individual's frame-of-reference with which he or she addresses the performance environment is the major variable affecting perception.

- Lack of formal performance appraisal could also contribute to the negative correlation. As no formal performance feedback is given, the evaluation of performance is even more subjective and open to bias. The effort-performance-reward contingency link can also be difficult to put in place. An employee may perceive his or her performance to be outstanding, but it is not necessarily the case (lack of ability) and finds it difficult to accept that his or her performance is not rewarded. It is

also true that some employees may be more advantaged in the "no-performance appraisal" idea – some employees could perhaps position themselves better as "blue eyed boys" and receive more outputs or rewards than others. The high need of participants to have a formal performance appraisal system in place (70.5 %) is also important and could probably be due to perceived inequities.

7.4   RECOMMENDATIONS

"Why do employees do what they do?"

According to the study, employees are motivated do what they do in order to satisfy needs. According to Timbers (2001), employees need recognition, communication, a feeling of belonging and emotional security.

Commitment from top management to improve motivational levels and communication in the organisation is vital. It is advised that communication must form part of management planning as production schedules, procurement of materials and maintenance of equipment. Improved communication will enhance the employee's sense of belonging.

Effective organising of groups and teams, would also be of value to organisations as they provide resources to fulfil needs in a social structure and create the opportunity for sharing of ideas, belonging and various other advantages. Effective communication from management to employees would also limit the negative effects of rumours.

A formal feedback structure, such as a performance appraisal system should be set in place in order to inform employees (directly) on their performance on a regular basis, that could also improve on the information organisations need to improve their performance as a whole. Supervisors should be trained to effectively act as raters and as co-

ordinators of effective providers of feedback. By doing this, the negative effects of bias in evaluation will reduced. Leadership skills of supervisors should also be developed.

In terms of recognition, it is important to know that employees need to know that they are valuable assets to organisations. Where possible, their contributions should be recognised and jobs should be designed in such a fashion that it contributes to the growth of the employee. Where production workers are concerned, job rotation could contribute to improve task-related feedback.

7.5 SUMMARY

In conclusion it can be said that organisations should take care to communicate with employees in order to positively influence the formation of perceptions that could lead to higher motivational levels. Communication structures, such as performance feedback sessions should be set in place and function effectively.

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ANNEXURE A: QUESTIONNAIRE

COMMUNICATION QUESTIONAIRE

The questionnaire is intended to obtain information on the communication practices within the company. Employees may have different perceptions on various matters. While completing this questionnaire, consider the present situation in the section in which you are employed. Do not think of how things were in the past or how you hope they will be in future; instead, describe the present situation. Think of recent events and use those events as examples in answering the questions.

SECTION 1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

For each question, mark only one answer (X)

1.   Years of service (If permanent)

1	2	3	4	5
0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20<

2.   Gender

1		2	
Male		Female	

3.   Status

1		2	
Contract		Permanent	

4.   Nature of your job

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Management	Supervisor	Administrative	Specialist (tradesman/ toolsetter)	Security	Quality (All levels)	Production (operators-setters /operators and others working on the production floor)

5.   Home language

1		2		3		4		5	
Tswana		Afrikaans		N-Sotho		Tsonga		Other	

6.   Highest school qualification

1	Std. 6 or lower		6	N 1	
2	Std. 7		7	N 2	
3	Std. 8		8	N 3	
4	Std. 9		9	Other (Specify)	
5	Std. 10				

7.   Other Qualifications

1	Trade qualification	
2	National Certificate	
3	National Diploma	
4	University Degree	
5	Other (Specify)	

8.   Age (in years)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Younger than 25	25-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-55	Older than 55

SECTION 2   FEEDBACK

2.1   "SELF" FEEDBACK

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

		Agree		Don't know		Do not agree		
9	It is useful for me to figure out how I am doing without asking anyone for their opinion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I trust my own opinion on how well I perform	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I feel I have control over my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I feel confident that my success in my job is assured	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I feel confident about my abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I feel that I do my job well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I find that I am the best judge of how well I am doing my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.2   TASK FEEDBACK

Think of the work you do and indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

		Agree		Don't know		Do not agree		
17	I do much more than I am supposed to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	My job is really exiting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	My job motivates me to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	My job requires a lot of supervision and control from my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	My job offers me the opportunity for growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	

	for growth and development							7
22	My job gives me complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	My job requires me to do a lot of different things and tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	My job affects other people in very important ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	My job requires me to use a number of different and complex skills and talent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	My job is set up in such a way that I can work forever without finding out how well I am doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I can compare my tasks to the tasks I did in the past to see how well I am performing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I can see that the effort I put into a task, pays off	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I only have to look at my job to see if I am doing it well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.3   CO-WORKER FEEDBACK

Think of the people you work with and indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

		Agree		Don't know		Do not agree		
30	It is difficult for me to compare my job to those of my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I can easily compare my day-to- day tasks with my co-workers' tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I can not easily compare my career record with my co-workers' careers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	I am always aware of promotions, demotions and turnover within my work section	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I feel that I am the only one in the section that works hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I do not feel part of the section I work in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	I work hard even if I see the others do not work so hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	I have close friends in he section I work in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	All of the employees of our section work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	I do not feel part of the work group I find myself in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	I ask my co-workers how well I do my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

41	I feel a sense of team spirit with my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.4   SUPERVISOR FEEDBACK

Think of your supervisor and indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

		Agree		Don't know			Do not agree	
42	My supervisor is always available when I need him or her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	I feel that the information regarding my performance is too general	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	My supervisor is approachable when I have personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	I think I don't get enough appreciation for all my hard work from my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	My supervisor will think I am irritating if I ask him about my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	My supervisor knows my job well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	I think I don't get enough appreciation for all my hard work from my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	I trust my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	I have contact with my supervisor on a regular basis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	I can easily speak to my supervisor if I have money problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	My supervisor thinks that I will want extra pay if I ask him about my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53	I think it is a good idea to ask my supervisor about my work performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54	It is embarrassing to ask my supervisor for information regarding my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55	I would like to have more information about my performance even if it is negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56	I am too scared to ask my supervisor for information about my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57	I would like a more direct indication on my performance, but in a informal way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58	I would like to have information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	about my performance on a formal basis (performance evaluations)						
59	I am scared of my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60	I don't like to have more feedback on my job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3   SATISFACTION

Think of the work environment you find yourself in and indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

61	I would recommend my friends to work at this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62	Most people are satisfied with their jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 4   MOTIVATION

4.1   Here are some things that could happen to people if they do their jobs especially well. How likely is it that each of these things would happen if you performed your job especially well?

		Not at all likely		Some what likely		Quite likely		Extre mely likely
64	You will get a bonus or a pay increase	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65	You will feel better about yourself as a person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66	You will have an opportunity to develop your skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67	You will have better job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68	You will be given chances to learn new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69	You will be promoted or get a better job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70	You will get a feeling that you've accomplished something worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71	You will have more freedom on your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72	You will be respected by the people you work with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73	Your supervisor will praise you	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74	The people you work with will be friendly with you	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4.2 **Different people want different things from their work. Here is a list of things a person could have his or her job. How important is each of the following to you?**

	How important is…..?	Less important			Quite important			Very important
7 5	The mount of pay your get	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 6	The chances you have to do something that makes you feel good about yourself as a person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 7	The opportunity to develop your skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 8	The amount of job security you have on your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 9	The chances you have to learn new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 0	Your chances for getting a promotion or getting a better job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 1	The chances you have to accomplish something worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 2	The amount of freedom you have on your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 3	The respect you receive from the people you work with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 4	The praise you get form your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 5	The friendliness of the people you work with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4.3 **You are to indicate by checking the appropriate number to the right of each pair how often it is true for _you personally_ that the first factor (working hard) leads to the second on _your job_. Indicate how often it is true by checking the box under the response, which seems most accurate.**

		Never		Some times		Often		Almost always
8 6	Working hard → high productivity in the section	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 7	Working hard → doing my job well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 8	Working hard → good job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your co-operation !

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