**Gordon Institute
of Business Science**
University of Pretoria

Total Reward Preferences and Implications for the Employee Value Proposition

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for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

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Abstract

Orientation: Post-pandemic, voluntary resignations are on the rise due to various factors, shifting the power balance between employees and employers. Employees now expect more, making it crucial for organisations to understand evolving reward preferences and their impact on the employee value proposition (EVP). The EVP is a vital tool for retaining current talent and attracting new talent. Unfortunately, limited research leaves organisations without essential insights with which to adapt their EVP strategies.

Research purpose: This study investigated employees' changing reward preferences post-pandemic, as well as the implications for the EVP.

Research design: A quantitative, cross-sectional survey collected 142 responses, utilising a validated instrument adapted from existing literature.

Main findings: The study yielded valuable insights into the dynamics of reward preferences, including distinct differences in both financial and non-financial reward preferences amongst various demographic groups. These findings underscore the importance of crafting customised EVPs to effectively attract and retain talent. Notably, the research found a positive correlation between individuals' total rewards preferences and their perceptions of the company's EVP, suggesting that aligning these factors could prove instrumental in fostering employee satisfaction and loyalty.

Contributions: The study makes key contributions to human resource management, total rewards, and EVP research, and provides practical contributions relating to attraction and retention strategies.

Keywords

total rewards; employee value proposition; human resource management; attraction; retention

Plagiarism declaration

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces a comprehensive study focused on determining the evolving preferences of employees concerning total rewards in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent implications regarding perceptions of the employee value proposition (EVP).

The chapter commences with a detailed context, outlining the unprecedented spike in employee turnover due to voluntary resignations, colloquially termed as 'the Great Resignation'. This backdrop sets the scene for understanding the centrality and criticality of the total rewards system within an organisation's EVP. The dynamic nature of this relationship and its inherent complexities are underscored by the profound impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, particularly on human resource management (HRM) practices and their consequential effects on employee retention.

Ensuring organisational success in a post-pandemic world necessitates a nuanced understanding of employee motivations and the instrumental role of rewards in fostering retention. This segment delves into the overarching business rationale, highlighting the symbiotic relationship between effective reward strategies, employee retention, and the larger organisational objectives. By emphasising the substantial costs and disruptions associated with employee turnover, the narrative underscores the strategic imperative of mastering the art and science of retention.

Iin light of the rapidly changing organisational and global landscape, traditional reward systems now require re-evaluation. This section focuses on the theoretical need to innovate and realign these systems to ensure their relevance to and resonance with contemporary employee needs and expectations. Moreover, it underscores the pivotal role of a well-crafted EVP in not just attracting but also retaining talent, especially in a competitive post-pandemic environment.

Building on the background and the theoretical needs identified, the research problem is defined, and the purpose of the study — investigating these transformations to provide actionable insights for organisations — is elucidated. The chapter underscores the unique contributions of study, namely bridging the existing

gaps in academic literature and offering pragmatic recommendations for organisational HRM strategies.

1.2. Research Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the transforming reward preferences of employees in the post-pandemic era and examine the implications for the EVP. The findings provide valuable insights for organisations to make necessary adjustments to their EVP from a rewards perspective, to align it with the changing needs and preferences of employees, effectively retain existing talent, and attract new employees post-pandemic.

1.3. Context of the Study

Since the COVID-19 outbreak in March 2020, there has been a spike in employee turnover, due to a vast number of voluntary employee resignations, known as 'the Great Resignation' (Serenko, 2023). A recent article in Businesstech (2022) stated that compensation has typically been the leading factor in voluntary resignations, followed by better career opportunities and professional advancement, but notes that the trend has since turned, with compensation no longer being the leading factor.

An organisation's EVP includes various employment-related factors, such as its beliefs, positions, culture, co-workers, and the total rewards system (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019). A well-defined proposition is a useful instrument for promoting the employer brand to both prospective and current employees (Binu Raj, 2021).

The total rewards system holds a crucial position within the employee value proposition framework of an organisation (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019). It is the sum of all the benefits provided to employees in exchange for their workplace contributions, and includes financial, non-financial, intrinsic, and extrinsic benefits, which are aimed at retaining, attracting, and motivating employees (Hoole & Hotz, 2016).

1.4. Problem Statement

Voluntary resignations have increased post-pandemic, and the reasons for the phenomenon are diverse (Serenko, 2023). Furthermore, as a result of the shifting power dynamics between employers and employees, caused by poor retention,

employees may now expect more from their employers (Moss, 2022). Therefore, it is essential that organisations understand the transforming reward preferences of existing employees and the implications for their EVP. Now, more than ever, the EVP is a vital tool for the retention of existing employees and the attraction of new talent. However, the problem is that the lack of research in this area leaves organisations without the necessary insights to effectively adapt and optimise their EVP strategies.

1.5. Business Significance of the Study

Human resources are widely considered the most essential asset enabling organisations to achieve their objectives, and high organisational turnover results in adverse performance outcomes (Gerhart & Feng, 2021; Heavey et al., 2013). Employee turnover is both expensive and disruptive for organisations (Bryant & Allen, 2013).

1.5.1. Employee retention

Employee retention is vital for organisations aiming to achieve sustainable growth and minimise unnecessary costs stemming from employee resignations (Jayathilake et al., 2021). The relationship between HRM policies and employee retention is crucial, as companies must provide their employees with the means to fulfil their professional and ethical needs (Elsafty & Ragheb, 2020). Motivation, a key factor in retention, can be categorised into intrinsic and extrinsic factors, highlighting the importance of understanding what motivates employees (Elsafty & Ragheb, 2020).

The costs associated with replacing an employee, encompassing recruitment costs and the time required for a new hire to reach peak productivity, are substantial, as highlighted by Bryant and Allen (2013). Hence, organisations are strongly motivated to prioritise retention as a cost-saving strategy (Singh, 2019). Additionally, a stable and experienced workforce plays a pivotal role in maintaining operational continuity, fostering innovation, and fortifying the organisational culture.

The contemporary job market is characterised by fierce competition through enticing compensation packages and favourable career development prospects (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2020). This competitive landscape, coupled with the challenges posed by the Great Resignation and the rising rates of voluntary turnover, accentuates

organisations' pressing need to retain talent as a strategic imperative (Tessema et al., 2022).

1.5.2. Employee attraction

In the aftermath of the pandemic, it is imperative that organisations investigate approaches that could attract employees, especially when considering the shifting employee preferences. This underscores the urgent requirement for research to tackle these differences and for businesses to adjust to the changing norms in the workplace.

1.5.3. Total rewards

Organisational commitment — the bond between the employee and the organisation — has a positive relationship with total rewards (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018; Saqib Khan et al., 2014). Employee retention, job satisfaction, and high performance are outcomes of organisational commitment, highlighting the important role of rewards (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018).

1.5.4. Employee value proposition

As Binu Raj (2021) argues, organisations need to design and communicate a well-defined EVP to attract and retain employees. This means making sure that both financial and non-financial rewards are appropriately balanced in the overall rewards system, with consideration of the optimal balance in the post-pandemic context (Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017). By doing so, organisations can enhance employee commitment, reduce turnover costs, and improve overall performance outcomes.

1.6.   Theoretical Significance of the Study

1.6.1. Human resource management

Organisations have been profoundly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, which created a complex environment for leaders and HRM, as well as the specific functions of HRM, which include rewards (Hamouche, 2021). In the post-pandemic context, few studies specifically examined the functions of HRM; rather, researchers have focused on how the crisis influenced HRM (Hamouche, 2021). Post-pandemic

research on HRM functions is essential for firms to stay ahead of the curve and adapt to the new realities of work.

1.6.2. Total rewards

Luţ (2022) argues that post-pandemic total reward systems need to be reconsidered and adjusted to ensure the attraction and retention of employees. In addition, employers must consider several factors that have become more important since the pandemic, namely the work environment, development needs, and work–life balance (Chan et al., 2022; Luţ, 2022).

Traditional reward systems may no longer be effective, necessitating the implementation of new reward strategies. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct research aimed at improving reward strategies in the post-pandemic era, to better align these strategies with the changing organisational landscape and address the evolving needs of employees (Bezuidenhout, 2022).

1.6.3. Employee value proposition

An organisation's EVP encompasses both financial and non-financial offerings that could serve as effective tools for attracting and retaining talent. It includes a package of benefits, advantages, or values that employees gain from working for a company (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019). Attractive EVPs also enhance organisational commitment (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019). As total rewards are an integral component of the EVP, organisations may need to adjust their total rewards offering post-pandemic to match employees' new expectations and preferences. However, research on this recent development is scant (Bezuidenhout, 2022).

The pandemic has highlighted the need to reconsider and adjust total reward systems to retain and attract employees. Factors such as the work environment, employer expectations, development needs, and work–life balance have become more important (Bezuidenhout, 2022). Traditional reward systems may no longer be effective, necessitating the implementation of new strategies that align with the changing organisational landscape and address evolving employee needs. Similarly, the EVP, which encompasses both financial and non-financial offerings, plays a crucial role in talent retention and attraction (Pandita & Ray, 2018).

Further research is necessary to gain a comprehensive understanding of employees' evolving expectations and preferences, and to ascertain the implications for the EVP. The results of this research may assist organisations in making the necessary adjustments to align their EVP with the changing needs and preferences of employees.

1.7. Research Scope and Delimitations

The research is specifically focused on the domain of total rewards and the rewards component within the EVP. While the EVP encompasses multiple factors, this study focuses exclusively on the rewards aspect. The notions of rewards and EVP, along with pertinent literature on retention and attraction, were crucial in forming the research questions and hypotheses. This was done to address both practical business needs and theoretical gaps in the field.

1.8. Contribution of the Study

The study contributes to the field of HRM by examining HRM functions in the post-pandemic context. It recognises the complex environment created by the COVID-19 crisis, and emphasises the need for research on HRM functions to help organisations adapt to new work realities. Additionally, the study contributes to the field of total rewards by calling for the reconsideration and adjustment of reward systems in the post-pandemic era. It highlights the need for research on improving reward strategies to align with the changing organisational landscape and address the evolving needs of employees. The study also contributes to the understanding of the reward aspect of the EVP by investigating employees' reward preferences and the implications for the EVP. Overall, the study addresses the paucity of research in these areas, and highlights practical implications for organisational settings.

In the current study, the WorldatWork Total Rewards Model of 2017 (expanded on in the following chapter) was used as the theoretical framework in determining employees' total reward preferences and the implications for the EVP. The rationale for selecting a specific theoretical framework was based on two primary factors. Firstly, the framework has been widely employed in previous studies, enabling meaningful comparisons with existing research (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018; Pregnolato et al., 2017). This allows researchers to build upon prior findings and establish connections between a study and the existing body of knowledge.

Secondly, the framework is extensively utilised in industry as the foundation for reward policies and practices (Pregnolato et al., 2017). This indicates its relevance and applicability to organisational contexts, strengthening the potential contribution of the current research to practical settings.

1.9.   Structure of the Research

The research report is structured in chapters. A review of the academic literature is presented in the next chapter, which serves as the basis for the research by demonstrating the need for the study through an argument found in the literature. In Chapter 3, the objective of the research is defined through the formulation of research questions and hypotheses that are substantiated by literature. The study's methodology, which is covered and argued in Chapter 4, was dictated by the research questions and hypotheses that were chosen. Along with references to literature, the discussion covers the research design, philosophy, approach, methodological decisions, strategy, and time horizon. The strong methodological base lays the groundwork for the presentation of the study's results in Chapter 5. Referencing the literature studied in Chapters 1 and 2, the results are discussed in Chapter 6, providing a thorough analysis and rigorous comparisons in line with the study objectives and hypotheses. Chapter 7 provides a summary of the principal conclusions, addresses the research questions, offers practical recommendations for relevant stakeholders, notes the study's limitations, and makes suggestions for future research directions.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a review on the extant literature on employee retention, employee attraction, total rewards, and the EVP. These interrelated concepts bear critical significance in the intricacies of talent management and their profound influence on contemporary organisational success.

Employee retention has emerged as a strategic imperative of paramount importance. This multifaceted challenge, when effectively addressed, aligns an organisation's workforce with its future objectives and goals. As elucidated by Kamalaveni et al. (2019), employee retention transcends mere cost containment; it encompasses the growth, stability, and culture of an organisation. This chapter examines the various facets of retention, shedding light on the ramifications of elevated turnover rates, the substantial costs incurred in employee replacement, and the pressing necessity for organisations to excel in talent retention amidst formidable challenges such as the Great Resignation and competitive labour markets.

The discussion of the domain of employee attraction examines the process involved in drawing potential employees based on job- and organisational attributes. The comprehension of how the alignment between individual interests and organisational offerings augments attraction is of paramount significance in a perpetually evolving job market. This chapter dissects the factors contributing to an organisation's appeal to prospective candidates through compensation, benefits, workplace culture, and geographic location.

Central to the discourse is the overarching theme of total rewards, underscoring the pivotal role played by rewards in both retention and attraction. An organisation's capacity to furnish an enticing amalgamation of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards shapes employee motivation, engagement, and dedication. The chapter delves into the subtleties of extrinsic rewards, such as financial incentives, and their influence on performance and retention. The discussion includes an exploration of intrinsic rewards, which stem from meaningful work and personal fulfilment, together with their impact on job satisfaction and engagement. The chapter also addresses the dynamic nature of reward preferences across demographic groups, considering factors such as age, gender, and occupation.

This is followed by an in-depth examination of the WorldatWork Total Rewards Model, which proposes a reward strategy that integrates compensation, well-being, benefits, development, and recognition. The chapter scrutinises the role played by each of these pillars and their interconnectedness in shaping the employee experience and enhancing organisational performance.

The chapter culminates in an investigation of the EVP as an indispensable tool for attracting and retaining high-calibre talent. The strategic dimensions of an EVP are examined, highlighting the need to align it with employees' expectations and evolving job-market dynamics. The significance of EVP in tailoring offerings for diverse demographic groups and its implications for attraction and retention take centre stage in the discussion.

2.2. Context

2.2.1 Employee retention

Employee retention is not merely a concern for organisations, it is a critical strategic imperative. Voluntary turnover, when employees choose to leave an organisation on their terms, can have profound effects on the company's long-term success (Kamalaveni et al., 2019). It is thus imperative that organisations realise the importance of retaining employees.

Firstly, retention plays a pivotal role in HR planning, which involves aligning the workforce with the organisation's future objectives and goals. By retaining employees, organisations ensure a stable pool of talent, making it easier to estimate the gap between workforce demand and -supply. This proactive approach facilitates smoother succession planning through the identification and grooming of high-potential individuals for key strategic positions in the organisation. As Kamalaveni et al. (2019) suggest, this strategic approach results in a workforce that is not only talented but also committed, ultimately reducing the costs of recruitment, training, and development.

However, the challenge of employee retention is steadily growing as market competitors offer attractive compensation packages and conducive work environments for career development (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2020). In today's business

world, organisations are engaged in a fierce war for talent, with the ability to attract and retain skilled individuals becoming a defining factor for success.

The implications of high turnover rates are significant. When employees leave organisations, they take with them valuable elements such as organisational culture, institutional knowledge, and skillsets (Singh, 2019). This intellectual capital can then be readily harnessed by competitors, potentially putting the departing employee's former company at a disadvantage.

The cost of replacing an employee, both in terms of recruitment expenses and the time it takes for a new hire to reach peak productivity, is substantial (Bryant & Allen, 2013). There are various costs involved when an employee leaves the organisation. These include employee separation costs, which include temporary coverage and HR professionals' time; employee replacement costs related to advertising, resume reviews, onboarding, and induction; and employee training costs, which involve on-the-job and off-the-job training, productivity loss, and time required for mentoring (Tessema et al., 2022). Thus, successful organisations are motivated to prioritise retention as a cost-saving strategy (Singh, 2019).

Furthermore, retention is not only about cost management, but also about ensuring the growth and stability of the organisation, as highlighted by Singh (2019). A stable, experienced workforce contributes to the continuity of operations, fosters innovation, and strengthens the organisational culture. Employees who stay with a company over the long term often become its most committed ambassadors, aligning themselves with the company's mission and values (Singh, 2019).

The challenges posed by the Great Resignation and rising voluntary turnover rates underscore the urgency of employee retention as a strategic imperative (Tessema et al., 2022). Organisations that excel at retaining talent will not only reduce their costs, but also strengthen their competitive edge, ensuring sustained success in an increasingly competitive business landscape.

2.2.2 Employee attraction

The attraction of talented employees relies on job- and organisational characteristics, amongst other variables, which these employees infer but cannot completely ascertain in advance (Acikgoz, 2019; Butler et al., 2014). The job- and organisational characteristics encompass features related to the job that applicants find desirable,

such as the salary, benefits, and working hours, along with organisational aspects like the company's brand and reputation, size, workplace culture, and geographic location (Acikgoz, 2019). When individuals' interests align with the organisational information they gather from public sources and personal connections, it enhances the organisation's appeal (Butler et al., 2014).

Therefore, recognising the significance of aligning an individual's interests with the organisation's offerings is paramount in not only attracting potential employees, but also in mitigating the financial burdens associated with prolonged vacancies, as highlighted by Tessema et al. (2022). Promoting this alignment can have a significant impact on the long-term viability and profitability of the company in a constantly changing labour market.

2.3. Total Rewards

2.3.1. The role of rewards in retention and attraction in an organisation

The management and development of people is considered a difficult process and is centred around employee motivation. Highly motivated employees perform better and, as a result, impact the organisation's performance. The total reward system should have a positive impact on employee motivation, attraction, and retention (Tirta & Enrika, 2020).

Organisations provide employees with a combination of rewards in exchange for their work efforts, categorised as extrinsic and intrinsic, consisting of financial and non-financial rewards. The sum of these benefits is known as the 'total reward system'. These benefits are meant to attract and retain employees and encourage high performance (Hoole & Hotz, 2016).

The importance of setting attractive total rewards with careful consideration of the economic costs cannot be overstated in the context of attraction and retention of employees (Victor & Hoole, 2021). As Fulmer and Li (2022) note, failing to do so may make it difficult for a company to hire the right people, and may also result in higher turnover. Competitive organisations allocate substantial resources towards the recruitment and selection of employees, followed by even greater investments in their continuous training and development (Mabaso et al., 2021). As such, it is imperative that organisations retain well-trained employees for as long as possible,

in order to maximise the returns on their investment and contribute to the overall success of the organisation.

Reward satisfaction, which refers to the extent to which employees are satisfied with the rewards they receive for their work, has been identified as a crucial factor in employees' turnover, performance, and organisational commitment (De Gieter & Hofmans, 2015; Haar & Spell, 2004; Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018). Thus, organisations must ensure that their total rewards package is aligned with the expectations and needs of their employees, in order to achieve high levels of reward satisfaction, which could contribute to both higher retention rates and improved performance (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2020).

2.3.2. Extrinsic rewards

Extrinsic rewards, a crucial aspect of organisational motivation strategies, encompass a wide range of tangible and intangible incentives provided to employees by their organisations. These rewards are external to the employees and serve as a means of recognising and motivating individuals for their contributions to the organisation. Extrinsic rewards take various forms, including both monetary and non-monetary incentives (Kumar et al., 2015; Victor & Hoole, 2017).

In practice, extrinsic rewards often take the form of financial incentives, and are characterised by their objective measurability. These rewards encompass remuneration packages, performance-based incentives, sales commissions, and supplementary benefits such as medical coverage, paid time off, and retirement investment schemes (Nnaji-Ihedinmah & Egbunike, 2015; Victor & Hoole, 2017). The appeal of such rewards plays a crucial role in attracting and retaining employees. Job seekers often exhibit a heightened preference for opportunities that offer substantial remuneration packages and attractive fringe benefits, illustrating the allure of extrinsic incentives in the recruitment process (Victor & Hoole, 2017).

Furthermore, extrinsic rewards have demonstrated the potential to effectively boost employee performance through motivation (Kumar et al., 2015). The promise of an incentive upon successful completion of a task can significantly enhance an employee's willingness to exert extra effort to meet deadlines or achieve goals. This motivation factor underscores the practicality and value of extrinsic rewards in enhancing overall workplace productivity (Kumar et al., 2015).

Numerous managerial perspectives align with the posited positive impact of extrinsic rewards on employee performance. High salaries, salary increments, bonuses, paid vacations, benefits, and gifts are all recognised as influential factors in enhancing employee motivation and job satisfaction (Emmanuel & Nwuzor, 2021). These rewards offer easily measurable benchmarks for employees, making them justifiable elements of organisational routines and processes, which elucidates their role in workforce management (Emmanuel & Nwuzor, 2021).

Empirical evidence also supports the notion that extrinsic rewards contribute significantly to employee retention (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2020). In a study by Alhmoud and Rjoub (2020), a mere one-degree increase in extrinsic rewards led to an impressive 8.4% improvement in employee retention. This finding underscores the importance of extrinsic rewards in fostering employee loyalty and reducing turnover rates. Some organisations even offer flexible benefits plans that allow employees to choose the rewards that best suit their needs and preferences (Nnaji-Ihedinmah & Egbunike, 2015).

2.3.3. Intrinsic rewards

Intrinsic rewards, which are typically intangible benefits, include social rewards, such as those stemming from an employee's involvement in meaningful tasks and responsibilities, and these rewards constitute a fundamental element of workplace motivation and satisfaction (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2020; Byars & Rue, 2011). These rewards are inherent to the job itself, and often hinge on an employee's personal perceptions (Emmanuel & Nwuzor, 2021). The perceptions are deeply personal and internal. Employees are imbued with a sense of fulfilment and purpose when they achieve meaningful results in their work (Kleynhans et al., 2009). Intrinsic rewards thus encompass a psychological dimension by contributing to positive, emotionally resonant work experiences (Stumpf et al., 2013).

Intrinsic incentives can be classified into different categories, incorporating factors such as meaningful activities, recognition, autonomy, gratitude, and demanding assignments, amongst others (Hafiza et al., 2011; Özutku, 2012). Intrinsic rewards also serve as a motivator (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011), propelling employees to excel in their roles. Work engagement, characterised by emotional investment in tasks and responsibilities, is positively linked to intrinsic rewards (Jacobs et al., 2014). Moreover, intrinsic rewards have been associated with enhanced work performance,

as employees driven by intrinsic motivation often exhibit heightened productivity and work quality (Aktar et al., 2012).

While extrinsic rewards continue to hold significance, intrinsic rewards should not be underestimated. Victor and Hoole's (2017) study revealed a robust positive connection of rewards — particularly intrinsic rewards — with both workplace trust and work engagement. The next section examines rewards preferences of demographic groups.

2.3.4. Total reward preferences and demographics

Reward systems are a crucial aspect of employee satisfaction and performance enhancement. However, it is important to recognise that individuals or groups may have varying responses to different combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. According to Mahaney and Lederer (2006), designing effective reward systems requires careful consideration of what employees perceive as valuable, the cultural context of their work environment, and the available resources. These factors play a vital role in ensuring the efficiency and effectiveness of reward systems. While some organisations and professions tend to emphasise intrinsic rewards, the commercial sector often leans towards incorporating more extrinsic components (Emmanuel & Nwuzor, 2021). Finding the right balance between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards is crucial for motivating employees (Emmanuel & Nwuzor, 2021).

The organisational landscape has undergone significant changes due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to a renewed focus on retention strategies. Previous studies on reward preferences in South Africa were conducted before the pandemic and the Great Resignation phenomenon (Hoole & Hotz, 2016; Pregnolato et al., 2017). Nienaber et al. (2011) discovered that different personality types exhibit distinct reward preferences, and that demographic groups also display varying preferences. Financial rewards appear to be universally important for employee retention across demographic groups (Pregnolato et al., 2017).

Letchmiah and Thomas (2017) stressed the need for further research to determine the optimal balance between financial and non-financial rewards, especially for retaining high-potential employees in the financial services sector. In their recent qualitative study, Mabaso et al. (2021) examined reward preferences within the consulting industry in South Africa. The study revealed that retention in this industry

is influenced by a combination of financial and non-financial rewards. Specifically, factors such as performance management systems, work-life balance, employee recognition, and career progression opportunities were identified as crucial elements in retaining employees. Therefore, understanding how employees' reward preferences evolve across demographic groups in the post-pandemic era is essential for organisations seeking sustainable growth.

The research conducted by Harunavamwe and Kanengoni (2013), revealed that non-financial rewards had a moderate and statistically significant impact on the motivation of employees at lower hierarchical levels. Conversely, the study did not find any significant relationship between monetary awards and employee motivation. Previous studies have indicated that demographic factors, such as gender and occupation, have a significant impact on the association between rewards and motivation (Kumar et al., 2015).

The study by Tausif (2012) found that non-financial rewards significantly influenced job satisfaction amongst employees in the public education sector in Pakistan. The study also found that job satisfaction tended to increase with age, indicating that older employees were generally more satisfied with their job rewards. Age differences amongst employees also impacted the relationship between rewards and job satisfaction (Tausif, 2012).

In the construction industry, motivating workers often relies on extrinsic rewards of a financial nature such as higher compensation and on-time payment (Al-Abbadi & Agyekum-Mensah, 2022; Funso et al., 2016).

The study conducted by Hashiguchi et al. (2021) aimed to investigate the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on the performance of construction workers, with a particular focus on how these motivations vary across different age groups. Their findings indicated that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations positively affected the perceived productivity of construction workers of all ages. Notably, younger individuals tended to prioritise intrinsic motivation, whereas older workers tended to assign greater importance to extrinsic motivation (Hashiguchi et al., 2021).

The next section discusses the Worldatwork Total Rewards Model.

2.3.5. WorldatWork Total Rewards Model

In the current study, the WorldatWork Total Rewards Model was the theoretical foundation for evaluating preferences for rewards. This framework has been extensively employed in prior research, facilitating meaningful comparisons between existing studies, as evidenced by the works of Mabaso et al. (2021) and Pregnolato et al. (2017). This approach enables us to build upon prior discoveries and establish connections between our investigation and the preexisting body of knowledge.

The WorldatWork Total Rewards Model holds significant prominence in industry circles, serving as the bedrock in shaping reward policies and practices (Pregnolato et al., 2017). This model incorporates both organisational and external environmental factors as inputs in the formulation of the total rewards strategy. This strategy, in turn, rests upon five pillars encompassing a blend of extrinsic, intrinsic, financial, and non-financial rewards: compensation, well-being, benefits, development, and recognition. When effectively put into practice, the anticipated outcomes include enhanced workforce experiences and improved organisational performance.

Established in 1955 as a non-profit organisation catering to professionals worldwide, and serving various industries engaged in total rewards practices (WorldatWork, 2020), WorldatWork introduced its Total Rewards Model in 2000, which subsequently underwent redesigns in 2006 and 2015. The latest iteration of this model was released in 2017 (WorldatWork, 2020), shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Total Rewards Model (Source: (WorldatWork, 2020)

The following are the pillars of the Total Rewards Model (WorldatWork, 2020):

Compensation

Compensation, which encompasses both fixed and variable pay, is the monetary element of the benefits package offered to employees in return for their services (WorldatWork, 2020). Insufficient compensation has been identified as a prominent factor voluntary employees' turnover (Hung et al., 2018; Lyons & Bandura, 2020).

Numerous studies have delved into the connection between compensation and employee retention and yielded mixed results. Lavoie-Tremblay et al. (2006) conducted research suggesting that performance-related pay plays a pivotal role in determining employee retention. Milkovich and Newman (2004) emphasised the importance of monetary compensation in retaining employees.

Hytter (2007) found that rewards were positively linked to employee retention. Similarly, Hausknecht et al. (2009) uncovered the significant role of compensation and benefits in retaining employees. Gberevbie (2010) concluded that offering appropriate incentives is vital for retaining skilled individuals and enhancing their performance. Pitts et al. (2011) established that compensation levels serve as a significant predictor of employee turnover.

Companies offering high compensation often establish stringent selection and performance standards that employees must meet to maintain their employment, advance within the organisation, and continue receiving high pay (Gerhart & Fang, 2015).

Well-being

The well-being of an employee is a multifaceted construct encompassing various factors related to psychological, social, and workplace aspects (Pradhan & Hati, 2019). It is imperative that employers recognise and cater to their employees' well-being in fostering a positive work environment. The COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated pre-existing concerns regarding employee well-being, revealing additional factors that play a role, and ultimately disrupt employees work- and home life, leading to adverse effects on their overall well-being (Liang et al., 2022).

Benefits

Employee benefits, as highlighted in studies by Pregnolato et al. (2017) and Hoole and Hotz (2016), encompass various non-monetary perks and compensation beyond regular wages. These benefits encompass a wide range of offerings, including health benefits, retirement plans, income protection, and absence-related benefits.

Consistent with the results presented by Makhuzeni and Barkhuizen (2015), employee benefits encompass both monetary and non-monetary forms of remuneration. These include retirement packages, unemployment support, as well as provisions for death, accidents, and sickness.

Joshi (2015) further underscores the comprehensive nature of employee benefits aside from salary or wages, which encompass additional offerings like sickness pay, housing allowances, medical coverage, flexible work hours, and the option of telecommuting.

Research conducted by Mukwevho and Bussin (2021) revealed that South African Police Service employees expressed satisfaction with their benefits. Notably, leave benefits, encompassing study, family, medical, and yearly/excursion leave, were identified as pivotal factors in retaining these employees.

Development

Employers play a pivotal role in fostering the growth of their employees' careers, in both the short and long term, by offering rewards and opportunities designed to enhance their skills, knowledge, and competence (Hoole & Hotz, 2016). These opportunities serve as a catalyst for personal and professional development, motivating employees to be more productive, committed, and engaged in their roles (Hoole & Hotz, 2016; Pregnolato et al., 2017).

In the realm of employee retention, Bassi and Van Buren (1999) indicated the significance of competency development and professional advancement, acquired through training, as the primary drivers of employee retention. Rather than being viewed as an expenditure, investing in training should be seen as an avenue for enhancing organisational value and strategy (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999). Deery (2008) advocates for on-the-job training opportunities as a means to bolster retention and commitment amongst the workforce.

HR practices play a pivotal role in bolstering employee devotion to the organisation, as highlighted by Leidner and Smith (2013), who found that superior training programmes contribute to employee loyalty.

In the context of retention, development opportunities have emerged as a crucial factor, with several studies focusing on this aspect. The significance of personal and professional development and the impact of promotion possibilities on enhancing employee engagement and, as a result, retention, are highlighted by Horwitz et al. (2003). According to the study conducted by Kroon and Freese (2013), the provision of growth opportunities has been found to have a considerable positive impact on employee commitment, hence playing a crucial role in the retention of talented people inside organisations.

Recognition

Recognition initiatives encompass practices and initiatives designed to convey an organisation's gratitude for the contributions of its workforce, thereby ensuring that employees experience a sense of appreciation (WorldatWork, 2020). Recognising employees is a fundamental human need, and it is crucial that any recognition bestowed upon them is grounded in a just and impartial assessment, as highlighted by Brun and Dugas (2008).In an organisational context, the act of recognising employees can be guided by specific policies or endeavours that underscore the organisation's intent to acknowledge the achievements and dedication of its staff (Tirta & Enrika, 2020).

2.4.   EVP

Branding plays a pivotal role in business strategy and encompasses a wide array of tactics aimed at positioning organisations in the market, creating a distinctive identity, and bolstering organisations' competitiveness. One essential component of branding is the EVP, which comprises the benefits a company extends to its workforce (Sharma, 2019).

The EVP is a strategic approach adapted by organisations to attract and retain talent through a comprehensive set of appealing offerings (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019). The EVP encompasses various facets, such as compensation, benefits, professional growth prospects, technological resources, remote-work options, and flexible

scheduling, all designed to enhance employee satisfaction, engagement, and retention (Society for Human Resource Management, 2023). The WorldatWork Model of 2017 categorises the reward offerings of the EVP into compensation, well-being, benefits, development, and recognition (WorldatWork, 2020).

To gauge the quality of the EVP, it must be viewed from the perspective of the employee (Binu Raj, 2021). As highlighted by Arasanmi and Krishna (2019), the EVP mirrors employees' expectations of an organisation and its ability to fulfil its promises. Consequently, the EVP must evolve to align with the ever-changing needs and expectations of employees in the current job market. Binu Raj (2021) contends that, in a competitive job market, a compelling EVP becomes indispensable for attracting and retaining top-tier talent, which talent differentiates companies from their rivals (Tanwar & Prasad, 2017).

Notably, Pandita and Ray (2018) introduced a framework that underscores the importance of creating an appealing and effective EVP as the initial step towards improving retention in organisations. Such an EVP bolsters employee capabilities, enriches their experiences, fosters engagement, and nurtures a lasting employer–employee relationship, ultimately contributing to better retention (Pandita & Ray, 2018; Pawar, 2015).

In light of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is imperative that organisations develop an EVP tailored to diverse employee demographics. The reward system, an integral component of the EVP, necessitates meticulous consideration to bridge the gap between what is advertised by the company and what is experienced by employees (Theurer et al., 2016). Effective communication of the EVP to target audiences is vital. In designing the EVP, organisations have to take into account the varying perceptions of employees across different organisational levels, as well as tenure and gender. Notably, previous studies primarily assessed the employer brand perception from the perspective of potential employees, rather than existing ones (Tanwar & Prasad, 2017). Furthermore, EVP research pertaining to total rewards remains limited, necessitating further investigation to address gaps in the knowledge in this domain (Binu Raj, 2021).

The concept of an EVP has gained prominence in recent years as organisations strive to create a competitive edge in the labour market. Previous research shed light on various aspects of EVP and its implications for talent management. Lee et al.

(2020) emphasise the importance of an employee-centred approach in managing organisational diversity, including recognising that different employees have distinct needs, interests, and values that significantly influence their attitudes and behaviour at work. This underscores the relevance of tailoring the EVP to address the diverse demographics within an organisation's workforce.

Furthermore, research by Rzemieniak and Wawer (2021) underscore the global significance of EVP in firms, particularly in developing countries like India. They highlight that the EVP sets organisations apart from their competitors and fosters employee loyalty. This loyalty stems from the recognition and importance that employees receive from their organisations, highlighting the pivotal role of EVP in employee retention (Rzemieniak & Wawer, 2021).

Itam et al. (2020) note that the EVP is a critical tool in recruitment, as it articulates why being employed by a specific organisation is preferable to working for competitors. An EVP comprises attributes perceived as valuable both within and outside the organisation, which motivate individuals to either join the organisation or remain with their current employer. Central to this is the inclusion of benefits that employees receive for their contributions, which directly influence job satisfaction and motivation (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019).

Notably, the identification of values specific to Generation Z, as mentioned by Itam et al. (2020), highlights the significance of EVP customisation. For this generation, the tangible factors such as salary and training packages, along with intangible values related to work–life balance, should be aligned with the concept of sustainable development. This emphasises the adaptability of EVP to evolving workforce expectations (Itam et al., 2020).

These studies collectively underscore the multifaceted nature of EVP and its far-reaching implications for employee satisfaction, loyalty, and recruitment. The evolving landscape of the EVP calls for continued research to deepen our understanding and to address critical gaps. While existing studies have shed light on various aspects of EVP, there remain several avenues for future research.

One key area of interest is the customisation of EVPs to meet the unique needs of diverse employee demographics. As the workforce becomes increasingly heterogeneous, investigating how EVP can be tailored to resonate with different groups, considering factors such as age, gender, and tenure, is crucial (Tanwar &

Prasad, 2017). Moreover, exploring the impact of cultural differences on EVP perception and effectiveness would provide valuable insights.

The EVP's role in employee retention remains a critical subject for further investigation. As Pandita and Ray (2018) highlight, an effective EVP can significantly enhance employee engagement and foster enduring employer–employee relationships. Therefore, research into the specific elements of an EVP that most strongly influence retention and engagement is warranted.

Theurer et al. (2016) call attention to the need for organisations to develop EVPs that cater to evolving employee expectations. Additionally, as organisations grapple with the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is of paramount importance that organisations understand how the pandemic has reshaped the EVP landscape, indicating that investigating the changes in employee priorities and values post-pandemic, together with their implications for EVP design, is a pressing research area. Finally, Binu Raj (2021) points out a gap in research related to the relationship between EVP and total rewards.

2.5.   Conclusion

Through a thorough examination of employee retention, employee attraction, total rewards, and the EVP, this chapter discussed the critical importance of these interrelated elements in shaping contemporary talent management practices and their profound impact on organisational success. Employee retention emerged as a strategic imperative, emphasising the multifaceted nature of the challenge and the imperative that organisations excel in retaining talent in today's competitive landscape. The discussion of employee attraction illuminated the factors that make organisations appealing to potential candidates, underscoring the importance of alignment between individual interests and organisational offerings. Total rewards, as a central construct in the current study, play an integral role in motivating and engaging employees, and organisations have to consider both extrinsic and intrinsic aspects. The WorldatWork Total Rewards Model provides a holistic framework for understanding and implementing rewards strategies. Finally, this chapter explored the EVP, and emphasised its strategic significance in customising offerings in alignment with evolving expectations in order to enhance recruitment and retention efforts.

The next chapter presents the research questions and hypotheses of the current study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

3.1.   Introduction

The main research objective of this study was to investigate the transforming reward preferences of employees in the post-pandemic era, using the 2017 WorldatWork Total Rewards Model, and to examine the implications for the EVP. Based on the review of literature, the following research questions (RQ) and hypotheses (H) were formulated.

3.2.   Research Hypotheses

RQ1: What rewards are most preferred across demographic groups post-pandemic?

H1: Financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

A study by Pregnolato et al. (2017) found that different demographic groups exhibit different preferences with regard to total rewards, but that financial rewards are the most crucial factor in enhancing employee retention. The above hypothesis states that all demographic groups prioritise financial rewards over other total rewards components, such as non-financial benefits and work–life balance.

The justification for this hypothesis stems from the understanding that financial rewards play a significant role in meeting employees' basic needs. However, it is important to note that, while financial rewards may hold significant importance across demographic groups, other factors such as well-being, development, recognition, and the overall work environment may also contribute to employee retention. Therefore, while financial rewards may be considered crucial, it is essential to examine the preferences and priorities of different demographic groups comprehensively, to gain a more holistic understanding of the factors that drive employee retention and engagement.

H1a: Non-financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

A study by Letchmiah and Thomas (2017) found that non-financial rewards play a crucial role in retaining employees across demographic groups. These non-financial

rewards include well-being programmes, development, recognition, and a positive work environment.

RQ2: What is the extent of the relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP?

H2: There is a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP.

Considering the role total rewards play in the EVP, it is assumed that there is a positive relationship between the constructs. The alignment between employees' preferences and the total rewards offered in the EVP is crucial for attracting and retaining employees. Conversely, any misalignment in this regard could have negative implications for organisations.

3.3. Research Model

The research model depicted in Figure 2 illustrates the research hypotheses.

Figure 2: Research Model
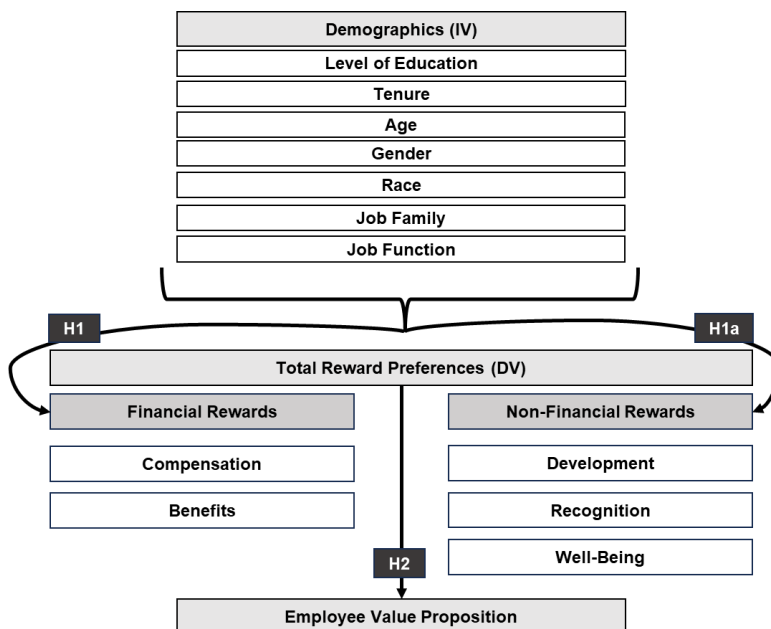
This concludes the discussion of the research hypotheses. The next chapter discusses the methodology followed in conducting the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1.   Research Design

The current research was based on a positivist philosophy, which emphasises the collection of pure data and facts without human interpretation or bias. This philosophy relies on quantifiable data that can be subjected to statistical analyses (Saunders & Lewis, 2017) In line with the positivist philosophy, the study's approach was quantitative. Quantitative research enables researchers to quantify phenomena and to determine reasons for respondents' actions or thoughts (Barnham, 2015).

The current study's analysis approach was deductive; that is, existing theory was tested to draw specific conclusions. This approach was executed in five stages (Saunders & Lewis, 2017). First, the research questions were formulated based on existing theory. Second, the questions were operationalised as testable propositions or hypotheses that specified the relationships between variables. Third, data were collected on the statements of the formulated hypotheses. Finally, the collected data were analysed in order to confirm or reject the hypotheses (Saunders & Lewis, 2017).

The research design was a descripto-explanatory study. This type of study seeks to accurately describe people, events, or situations and explain the relationships between variables (Saunders & Lewis, 2017). In the current study, the variables of interest were the total rewards components and employees' perceptions of the EVP in relation to the reward components.

The research strategy was a survey. The use of surveys is aligned with the descripto-exploratory design, as the instrument enables the collection of structured data from multiple individuals. Survey research enables the exploration of intricate phenomena within their natural context while upholding the required standardisation for quantitative analysis and theory testing. It also facilitates the gathering of information about the perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs that influence respondents' behaviour (Speklé & Widener, 2018).

The current study's time horizon was cross-sectional, which means data were collected from respondents at a single point in time, providing a 'snapshot' of their responses and perceptions at that particular point in time (Saunders & Lewis, 2017).

4.2. Population

The population of this study was all formally employed full-time employees of South African companies.

4.3. Sampling

It is of utmost importance to disclose the methods employed to select a sample, as this allows assessment of the representativeness of observations and the generalisability of the results (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012).

The current study's sample was drawn from the researcher's employing organisation. The researcher believed the organisation in question would serve the research purpose, as, prior to the study being conducted, the organisation's HR practices, specifically rewards, had been assessed, validated, and externally audited to ensure high-quality HRM practices, which was the discipline in which the current study resided.

Purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, was used to select the sample. This method is appropriate when the researcher is unable to obtain a list of the entire population (Saunders & Lewis, 2017). In using purposive sampling, respondents are selected based on their traits, in this case, full-time employees on all levels of the organisation. It is a non-random technique; therefore, there was no need for underlying assumptions or a predetermined number of respondents (Tongco, 2007). However, the sample has to be representative of the population under study (Saunders & Lewis, 2017).

4.4. Sample Size

The organisation under study had approximately 220 full-time employees. The survey was disseminated to all employees. To ensure that sufficient responses were received to statistically analyse the data, the research study objectives and methodology were shared with the company's general manager and HR director, who supported the study and encouraged participation.

4.5. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis was individual employees of the chosen organisation.

4.6.   Measurement Instrument

The measurement instrument, a survey, was based on the existing instruments of Smit et al. (2015) and Tanwar and Prasad (2017), and the same Likert scales used by these researchers were used to measure perceptions of total rewards and EVPs. The survey consisted of four sections, as outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: Overview of Measurement Instrument

Section	Purpose	Rating	Questions	Source
Consent	Agreement to take part in study	-	-	-
A	Demographic Information	Descriptive	7	-
B	Total rewards preferences	5-point Likert scale	18	Smit et al. (2015)
C	Perceptions of the EVP	5-point Likert scale	18	Tanwar & Prasad (2017)

The complete survey is provided in Appendix 1.

4.6.1. Demographics

To gather data on demographic characteristics, the survey items were specifically designed to incorporate the unique attributes of the organisation under study. By aligning the collection of demographic data with the specific context of the study, a more accurate and comprehensive understanding of the organisation's population was obtained, i.e., the demographic information obtained was relevant and reflective of the individuals within the organisation under study.

4.6.2. Total rewards

The Total Rewards Preferences section of the survey contained items adapted from the Total Reward Model questionnaire of Smit et al. (2015), which were adapted based on the 2017 WorldatWork Total Rewards Model (WorldatWork, 2020).The Total Rewards Model consists of five financial and non-financial components. Compensation and benefits are financial rewards, while well-being programmes,

development opportunities, and recognition are non-financial rewards (WorldatWork, 2020). Smit et al. 2015) reported Cronbach alphas of 0.82, 0.92, and 0.95 for the questionnaire. The adapted questionnaire was used to determine which components of total rewards respondents across demographic categories valued the most. Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert-type scale where *1* = "Strongly disagree" and 5 = "Strongly agree" with regard to the importance of each reward to the employee.

4.6.3. EVP

Items of the EVP section of the questionnaire was developed based on Tanwar and Prasad's (2017) Employer Brand Scale. The scale was developed to measure existing employees' perceptions of the employer brand, which included the EVP. The utilisation of a questionnaire aids organisations in the identification of areas for improvement, thereby facilitating the development of effective attraction and retention strategies that are both compelling and relevant (Tanwar & Prasad, 2017). The scale was developed based on an extensive literature review of previous measurements of the employer brand and EVP, and Cronbach's alpha for the scale was reported as above 0.7 (Tanwar & Prasad, 2017). Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from *1* = "Strongly disagree" to *5* = "Strongly agree'.

4.7.   Data Collection

4.7.1. Pilot testing

The instrument was pilot tested using two respondents internal to the organisation and ten external respondents. Their feedback regarding clarity and ease of use was incorporated to refine the instrument before it was disseminated to potential respondents in the final survey.

4.7.2. Main study

The final self-administered survey instrument was distributed to respondents through a quick response (QR) code during a quarterly townhall meeting held by the organisation, to which all full-time employees were invited.

A brief description of the research accompanied the QR code, which directed respondents to Microsoft Forms. Respondents were provided instructions on how to complete the survey and given an indication of the approximate time it would take to complete it.

The data were collected over a period of two weeks, during which the response rate was continuously tracked and reminders to participate were sent to potential respondents, to ensure an acceptable sample size. A total of 143 usable responses were received, i.e., a 65% response rate.

4.8. Data Transformation

The data were extracted from Microsoft Forms and transferred to an Excel file, which was saved on Microsoft OneDrive. The first round of data processing was then completed. During this processing, extraneous fields, specifically "Name" and "Last Modified Time", were eliminated.

The numerical values were derived from the Likert scale responses for both Total Reward Preferences and Perceptions of the EVP (1 = Strongly disagree" and 5 = "Strongly agree".

The data transformation is summarised below and detailed in Appendix 2.

4.8.1. Demographic data transformation

In order to provide meaningful analysis, data transformations were executed for the demographic variables.

Level of education

Responses of "Other" were removed from the data, as only nine respondents had selected this option, with total responses then at 134, consisting of Group 1: Grade 12 (40), Group 2: Diploma/Degree (68), and Group 3: Postgraduate degree (26).

Tenure

Numerical groups were assigned to all options presented to respondents, namely Group 1: Less than 1 year (16); Group 2: 1 year – less than 2 years (20); Group 3: 2

years – less than 5 years (33); Group 4: 5 years – less than 10 years (40) and Group 5: 10+ years (34).

Age

As only three responses were received for the option "56+ years", this was combined with "46–55 years" resulting in a total of 15. Numerical groups were thus assigned as follows: Group 1: 25–35 years (72), Group 2: 36–45 years (56), and Group 3: 56+ years and 46–55 years combined (15).

Race

Only the options "Black African" and "White" provided results suitable for analysis. The options "Coloured", "Indian", "Other" were removed due to too few respondents. Numerical Group 1 was assigned to Black African (51) and Group 2: White (78), reducing the total responses to 129 for the *Race* variable.

Job function

Numerical groups were assigned: Group 1: Team leader (23) and Group 2: Team member (120).

Job family

Due to a low number of respondents for a few options, the options were combined. Group 1 was assigned to Sales, with 96 respondents (no combination was created). In Group 2, Customer service (4), Finance (7), Human resources (1), Logistics (2), Other (5), and Repairs (4) were combined, with a total of 23 responses. Group 3 consisted of Engineering (11), and Group 4 consisted of Marketing (13).

4.8.2. Financial rewards

To generate the overall Financial rewards component, the subcomponents Compensation_1 and Benefits_1 were merged to create the FinancialRewards1 component.

4.8.3. Non-financial rewards

For Non-financial rewards, the subcomponents Wellbeing_1, Development_1, and Recognition_1 was combined to create the NonFinancialRewards1 component.

4.8.4. Total rewards preferences

For Total reward preferences, the components Financial and Non-financial rewards, namely Compensation_1, Benefits_1 Wellbeing_1, Development_1, and Recognition_1, were merged to produce TotalrewardPreferences.

4.8.5. EVP

To measure employees' perception of the EVP, the components of Financial and Fon-financial rewards, namely Compensation_2, Benefits_2, Wellbeing_2, Development_2, and Recognition_2, were merged to produce EVP as a component.

4.9. Analysis Approach

The gathered data underwent a comprehensive analysis utilising various statistical methods to gain insights and draw meaningful conclusions. All data analyses were executed using SPSS.

4.9.1. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the main characteristics of the data. This included measures such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies, which provided a clear overview of the distribution and variability of the variables under study (see Zikmund et al., 2013).

4.9.2. Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were conducted to further explore the data and test the hypotheses, enabling the researcher to draw conclusions about the population by analysing the sample (see Zikmund et al., 2013).

Independent sample t-tests were utilised to examine differences in the rewards preferences of different demographic groups. This analysis helped determine

whether there were significant differences in reward preferences between two groups (Kim, 2015).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) allowed for the comparison of means of two or more groups. ANOVA was conducted because t-tests only allow for the comparison of two groups, while the aim of the current study was to determine if there were significant differences across multiple groups (see Pallant, 2020).

The nonparametric, independent median test was employed to test differences between groups when the sample sizes for certain categories were too small. Nonparametric tests are often run when sample sizes are small (Dwivedi et al., 2017; Fagerland, 2012).

Pearson's correlation analysis was performed to analyse the relationship between two variables, employees' *Total reward preferences* and their perception of the *EVP*. Utilising Pearson's correlation not only enabled the researcher to examine the presence of a relationship, but also to gauge its strength and direction (see Zikmund et al., 2013).

The decision to employ these statistical methods was supported by previous research. Similar analyses were used by Pregnolato et al. (2017) and Smit et al. (2015) in evaluating total reward preferences, and by Arasanmi and Krishna (2019) in research on EVPs.

4.10. Quality Controls

As the study was quantitative, the quality controls employed were centred around reliability and validity.

4.10.1. Validity

The concept of validity pertains to the evaluation of the extent to which a measuring instrument effectively captures the intended behaviour or quality that it was specifically meant to evaluate (Sürücü & Maslakci, 2020). In the context of total rewards and EVP, validity was crucial for determining the effectiveness of the instrument. Four primary validity assessments include face validity, content validity, construct validity, and criterion validity (Taherdoost, 2016). In the current study, construct validity was evaluated using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This method

reduces the complexity of data by identifying the factors that are responsible for the observed relationships amongst variables (Graham, 2003).

4.10.2. Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of results obtained from different applications of a measuring instrument over time (Taber, 2018). To assess reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficient analysis, a commonly used internal reliability measure, was conducted in the current study (see Taber, 2018). Cronbach's alpha coefficient analysis evaluates the extent to which the items within the instrument consistently measure the intended constructs and a desirable level of reliability is indicated by a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.70 or higher (Adeniran, 2019).

4.11. Research Ethics

The study adhered to ethical principles at all stages. Prior to data collection, ethical approval (refer to Appendix 3) was obtained from the GIBS Ethics Committee. Only individuals who provided informed consent voluntarily participated in the data collection process. Participants were informed of the voluntary nature of their involvement and their right to withdraw at any time without consequences. The study's purpose was explained to respondents, and their anonymity was guaranteed. Personal identifiers were not included in the reporting, and data is securely stored, with deletion scheduled five years after the study's conclusion.

4.12. Limitations

As with any research study, the current study has limitations. One limitation is that the researcher assumed the chosen research methodology was the most appropriate and relevant, based on previous research. While every effort was made to select a suitable methodology, the possibility remains that alternatives could have yielded different or more comprehensive insights.

Another limitation is the small size of the sample and the restriction of focusing on only one industry and organisation. The limited sample size reduced the generalisability of the results and increased the likelihood of statistical error. A larger sample would have provided more robust and representative results. The narrow

industry focus may also have led to the exclusion of unique characteristics or factors present in other industries (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012).

The survey used in the study was self-administered, and it was therefore assumed that respondents understood the contents of the questionnaire and responded truthfully. This introduced a potential limitation regarding the accuracy and reliability of the data collected. Respondents may have misinterpreted the items or provided socially desirable answers (Ross & Bibler Zaidi, 2019). These factors could have introduced bias or error into the study's results, affecting the study's overall validity and reliability.

4.1.   Conclusion

This chapter provided a thorough explanation of and justification for the chosen research philosophy and methodology, including the design, approach, strategy method, and time frame. The discussion detailed the target population, unit of analysis, sampling method and sample size, measurement instrument, data collection procedures, analytical methods, and quality assurance measures. Limitations of the study, mainly associated with the chosen methodology, were acknowledged.

Chapter 5 present the results of the study.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1.   Introduction

In this chapter, an overview of the analyses conducted on the data collected through the survey is presented. It starts with an examination of the characteristics of the sample, followed by the results of the assessment of reliability and validity, as well as the results of the statistical tests pertaining to the constructs and research hypotheses discussed in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4.

5.2.   Description of the Sample

Multiple demographic questions were posed to gather a comprehensive profile of the sample and to ensure an ample dataset for subsequent statistical analyses. The results are presented below.

5.3.1. Level of education

Amongst the respondents, 47.6% held either a diploma or a degree, 28% held Grade 12, 18.2% had completed a postgraduate degree, and 6.3% indicated "Other", as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptives: *Level of education*

<table>
<tr><th colspan="6">Level of education</th></tr>
<tr><th></th><th></th><th>Frequency</th><th>Percent</th><th>Valid Percent</th><th>Cumulative Percent</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">Valid</td><td>Diploma/Degree</td><td>68</td><td>47.6</td><td>47.6</td><td>47.6</td></tr>
<tr><td>Grade 12</td><td>40</td><td>28.0</td><td>28.0</td><td>75.5</td></tr>
<tr><td>Other</td><td>9</td><td>6.3</td><td>6.3</td><td>81.8</td></tr>
<tr><td>Postgraduate degree</td><td>26</td><td>18.2</td><td>18.2</td><td>100.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>143</td><td>100.0</td><td>100.0</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

5.3.2. Tenure

Most of the respondents (28%) had a tenure with the organisation ranging from five years to less than 10 years, 23.8% had worked for the organisation for 10 or more years, 23.1% have a tenure ranging from two to less than five years, 14% had a

tenure of at least one but less than two years, and the smallest group, 11.2%, had been with the organisation for less than one year. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptives: *Tenure*

Tenure		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 year – less than 2 years	20	14.0	14.0	14.0
	10+ years	34	23.8	23.8	37.8
	2 years – less than 5 years	33	23.1	23.1	60.8
	5 years – less than 10 years	40	28.0	28.0	88.8
	Less than 1 year	16	11.2	11.2	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

5.3.3. Age

A total of 50.3% of the respondents fell in the age bracket 25–35 years, 39.2% were aged 36–45 years, 8.4% were aged 46–55 years, and the smallest segment, 2.1%, comprised respondents aged 56 years or older. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptives: *Age*

Age		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25–35 years	72	50.3	50.3	50.3
	36–45 years	56	39.2	39.2	89.5
	46–55 years	12	8.4	8.4	97.9
	56+ years	3	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

5.3.4. Gender

The sample consisted of 65.7% men and 34.3% women, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Descriptives: *Gender*

Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	49	34.3	34.3	34.3
	Male	94	65.7	65.7	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

5.3.5. Race

The respondents' racial distribution indicated diverse representation. The majority of respondents, 54.5%, identified as white, followed by black African, at 35.7%, Indian, at 4.9%, and Coloured, at 3.5%. A small proportion, 1.4%, had indicated "Other." These percentages provide a comprehensive view of the racial composition of the survey respondents, with white and black African individuals being the two most prominent groups, collectively representing a substantial portion of the sample. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Descriptives: *Race*

Race		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Black African	51	35.7	35.7	35.7
	Coloured	5	3.5	3.5	39.2
	Indian	7	4.9	4.9	44.1
	Other	2	1.4	1.4	45.5
	White	78	54.5	54.5	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

5.3.6. Job family

The distribution of respondents across various job families revealed a dominant presence in the Sales job family, comprising a substantial 67.1% of the total. The Marketing job family was the next most prominent, at 9.1%, followed by Engineering, at 7.7%, and Finance, at 4.9%. Other job families, including Customer Service, Logistics, Repair, and Human Resources, accounted for smaller percentages, ranging from 0.7% to 3.5%. The results are shown in Table 7.

Job Family		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Customer service	4	2.8	2.8	28
	Engineering	11	7.7	7.7	10.5
	Finance	7	4.9	4.9	15.4
	Human resources	1	0.7	0.7	16.1
	Logistics	2	1.4	1.4	17.5
	Marketing	13	9.1	9.1	26.6
	Other	5	3.5	3.5	30.1
	Repair	4	2.8	2.8	32.9
	Sales	96	67.1	67.1	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

5.3.6. Job function

A significant portion (83.9%) of the respondents held the role of team member, while 16.1% occupied the position of team leader, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Descriptives: *Job Function*

Job Function		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Team leader	23	16.1	16.1	16.1
	Team member	120	83.9	83.9	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

5.4. Quality of Measurement Instrument

The next sections report the results of the EFA.

5.4.1. Validity: EFA

Conducting EFA was the initial step to amalgamate the two variables associated with Financial Rewards construct, namely *Compensation* and *Benefits*. It was imperative to examine whether the nine items in the questionnaire indeed measured *Financial*

rewards. A parallel approach was taken for *Non-financial rewards*, measured using the variables *Well-being*, *Development*, and *Recognition*.

5.4.1.1. Financial rewards

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy reached the recommended threshold of 0.5, and Bartlett's test of sphericity yielded statistically significant results ($p < .000$) for the construct (see Field, 2013). These results collectively confirmed the suitability of conducting a factor analysis for the Financial Rewards construct. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: KMO and Bartlett's test: Financial Rewards

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.500
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-Square	73.115
	df	1
	Sig.	0.000

The communalities represent the proportion of variance in each variable that is accounted for by the extracted components (Shrestha,2021). For the Financial Rewards construct, the initial communalities were both 1.000, indicating that each variable initially explained all of its own variance. After extraction, the communalities for *Compensation* and *Benefits* decreased to 0.818, indicating that the extracted component accounted for 81.8% of the variance in these variables. The results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Communalities: Financial Rewards

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
Compensation_1	1.000	0.818
Benefits_1	1.000	0.818

The factor analysis identified two components. The first component had an initial eigenvalue of 1.637, explaining 81.8% of the total variance. The second component has an initial eigenvalue of 0.363, explaining the remaining 18.2% of the variance. In

this analysis, the first component was dominant, and accounted for the majority of the variance in the Financial Rewards construct. The results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Principal Component Analysis: Financial Rewards

	Total Variance Explained					
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.637	81.848	81.848	1.637	81.848	81.848
2	0.363	18.152	100.000			
Extraction method: Principal component analysis						

The component matrix provides the relationships between the variables and the extracted components (Shrestha,2021). In this case, one component was extracted, and both *Compensation* and *Benefits* had high loadings of 0.905 on this component. This suggested that both variables were strongly associated with the same underlying factor, which represented Financial Rewards. The results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Component Matrix: Financial Rewards

Component Matrix[a]	
	Component
	1
Compensation_1	0.905
Benefits_1	0.905
Extraction method: Principal component analysis	
a. 1 component extracted	

The analysis confirmed that the nine items for *Compensation* and *Benefits* indeed measured Financial Rewards. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity supported the suitability of the analysis. High communalities and a dominant first component, explaining 81.8% of the variance, further substantiated the construct's robustness. The strong association of *Compensation* and *Benefits* with the same underlying factor solidified the validity of the Financial Rewards construct.

3.4.1.2. Non-financial rewards

In the case of Non-financial Rewards, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy surpassed the recommended threshold, registering at 0.704, while Bartlett's test of sphericity produced statistically significant results ($p < .000$) for this construct (Field, 2013). These outcomes strongly supported the appropriateness of conducting a factor analysis for the Non-financial Rewards construct. The results are shown in Table 13.

Table 13: KMO and Bartletts test: Non-financial Rewards

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.704
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	193.668
	df	3
	Sig.	0.000

After extraction, the communalities of *Wellbeing*, *Development*, and *Recognition* were 0.739, 0.838, and 0.742, respectively. This suggested that the extracted component accounted for a significant portion of the variance in these variables. The results are shown in Table 14.

Table 14: Communalities: Non-financial Rewards

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
Wellbeing_1	1.000	0.739
Development_1	1.000	0.838
Recognition_1	1.000	0.742

The factor analysis identified three components. The first component had an initial eigenvalue of 2.319, explaining 77.3% of the total variance. The second component had an initial eigenvalue of 0.427, explaining 14.2% of the variance. The third component had an initial eigenvalue of 0.253, explaining 8.4% of the variance. In this analysis, the first component was dominant, and accounted for the majority of the variance in the Non-financial Rewards construct. The results are shown in Table 15.

Table 15: Principal Component Analysis: Non-financial Rewards

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.319	77.309	77.309	2.319	77.309	77.309
2	0.427	14.244	91.553			
3	0.253	8.447	100.000			
Extraction method: Principal component analysis						

Total Variance Explained

One component was extracted, and all three variables (*Wellbeing*, *Development*, and *Recognition*) had high loadings on this component, with values of 0.859, 0.916, and 0.862, respectively. This indicated that all the variables were strongly associated with the same underlying factor, Non-financial Rewards. The results are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: Component Matrix: Non-financial Rewards

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Wellbeing_1	0.859
Development_1	0.916
Recognition_1	0.862
Extraction method: Principal component analysis	
a. 1 component extracted	

The analysis of the Non-financial Rewards construct confirmed its validity. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy exceeding the recommended threshold at 0.704 and Bartlett's test of sphericity's highly significant results supported the appropriateness of factor analysis (Shrestha,2021). Communalities after extraction indicate that the extracted component significantly accounted for variance in the variables. Three components were identified, with the dominant first component explaining 77.3% of the total variance. All three variables (*Wellbeing*, *Development*, and *Recognition*) exhibited high loadings on this component, confirming their strong association with the same underlying factor and solidifying the validity of the Non-financial Rewards construct.

5.4.2. Reliability: Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha is a vital tool for assessing the reliability of a scale, particularly when examining the internal consistency of a set of items (Adeniran, 2019). Using SPSS, the Cronbach's alpha was calculated for both Financial Rewards and Non-financial Rewards.

5.4.2.1.   *Financial rewards*

The Cronbach's alpha value of 0.778 for the two items related to Financial Rewards suggested that the measurement instrument exhibited a level of internal reliability exceeding the acceptable threshold of 0.70 (Adeniran, 2019), as shown in Table 17.

Table 17: Cronbach's Alpha: Financial Rewards

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	*n* of Items
0.778	2

5.4.2.2.   *Non-financial rewards*

In assessing the reliability of the measurement instrument for Non-financial Rewards, a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.851 was calculated based on three items. This reliability statistic indicated a high level of internal consistency of the scale, as it surpassed the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Adeniran, 2019), as shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Cronbach's Alpha: Non-financial Rewards

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	*n* of Items
0.851	3

The assessment of reliability using Cronbach's alpha for both the Financial and Non-financial Rewards constructs yielded favourable results. For Financial Rewards, the Cronbach's alpha value of 0.778 indicated a level of internal reliability exceeding the acceptable threshold of 0.70. Similarly, in the case of Non-financial Rewards, the

Cronbach's alpha value of 0.851, based on three items, indicated a high level of internal consistency of the scale, as it surpassed the recommended threshold (see Adeniran, 2019). These findings confirmed the reliability of the measurement instruments for both constructs and gave confidence in the consistency of the responses gathered in the study.

5.5. Statistical Assumptions

In performing the statistical analysis, the initial step was confirming the appropriateness of the statistical methodology by validating the underlying assumptions for the analysis of the variables.

For the independent t-test, ANOVA, and Pearson's correlation, an underlying assumption is the presence of approximately normal data distribution. However, the constructs under investigation in the current study did not conform to this assumption, as their skewness and kurtosis values fell outside the acceptable range of -2 to 2. Per the criteria of George and Mallery (2010), values within this range are considered indicative of a normal univariate distribution. To conduct the statistical analysis effectively, it has been demonstrated that the independent samples t-test, ANOVA, and Pearson's correlation test exhibit robustness even in the presence of deviations from normality (Blanca Mena et al., 2017; Fagerland, 2012; Havlicek & Peterson, 1976). The results of these analyses are shown in Table 19.

Table 19: Descriptives: Financial Rewards and Non-financial Rewards

Statistics		FinancialRewards1	NonFinancialRewards1
n	Valid	143	143
	Missing	0	0
Mean		4.3199	4.2430
Median		4.5000	4.4167
Std. deviation		0.69625	0.75708
Skewness		**-2.320**	**-2.076**
Std. error of skewness		0.203	0.203
Kurtosis		**7.278**	**5.316**
Std. error of kurtosis		0.403	0.403
Minimum		1.00	1.17
Maximum		5.00	5.00

5.5.1. Independent samples t-test

Each assumption required for the analysis was satisfied, except for the normality assumption; however, the t-test exhibits robustness in the face of deviations from normality, as demonstrated by Fagerland (2012).

One dependent variable (DV) was measured at the continuous level. The independent variable (IV) comprised of two categorical, independent groups. Both the DV and IV are illustrated in Figure 2 of Chapter 3. Independence of observations was ensured, meaning that there was no interrelationship between observations within each group of the independent variable. If outliers were present, they were not removed from the data, as the t-test is robust against deviations from normality (Fagerland, 2012). While it is preferred, it is not strictly necessary for the dependent variable to exhibit approximate normal distribution within each group of the independent variable (Fagerland, 2012).

The Levene test included in the output assesses the equality of variances assumption. Depending on the test results, equal variances are assumed or not.

5.5.2. One-way ANOVA

All assumptions required for the analysis were met, except for the assumption that the data are normally distributed within each group of the independent variable. However, ANOVA is known to be robust against non-normal distributions (Blanca Mena et al., 2017).

One DV was measured at the continuous level. The IV comprised of two or more categorical, independent groups. Both the DV and IV are illustrated in Figure 2 of Chapter 3. Independence of observations was ensured, meaning that there was no relationship between the observations within each group of the independent variable or between the groups themselves. Any outliers detected in the dependent variable were not removed, as the ANOVA is robust against non-normal distributions (Blanca Mena et al., 2017).

While it is typically preferred, it is not strictly necessary that the dependent variable exhibit approximate normal distribution within each group of the independent variable (Blanca Mena et al., 2017). Homogeneity of variances, indicating equal variance amongst groups of the independent variable, was established.

5.5.3. Independent median test

Both assumptions necessary for the median test were fulfilled. The observations were independent, and they were drawn from identical distributions. The test variable was either ordinal or metric in nature, not nominal.

5.5.4. Pearsons Correlation

All assumptions for conducting Pearson's correlation were met, with the exception of the requirement of normal distribution. However, the robustness of Pearson's correlation, even when dealing with non-normally distributed data, has been demonstrated by Havlicek and Peterson (1976).

Both variables (Total reward preferences and EVP) were measured on a continuous scale. The two continuous variables were paired, and a linear relationship existed between the two variables.

If outliers were detected, they were not removed, as the Pearsons correlation is robust against deviations from normality (Havlicek & Peterson, 1976).

5.6. Statistical Results per Hypothesis

The following sections report the results of the hypothesis testing.

5.6.1. H1: Financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

Various statistical tests were conducted to test the hypothesis across all the demographic variables included in the current study, i.e., *Level of education*, *Age*, *Gender*, *Race*, *Job function*, *Tenure*, and *Job family*. Specifically, an ANOVA was conducted to compare groups for *Level of education* and *Age*, as these variables involved three or more groups. Independent t-tests were utilised to compare two groups each for *Gender*, Race, and *Job function*. Furthermore, an independent samples median test was employed to compare groups for *Tenure* and *Job family*.

5.6.1.1. Level of education and Age

In examining *Level of education*, the mean for Group 3.00 stood out as the highest, at 4.3683, followed closely by Group 2.00, with a mean of 4.3026. Category 1.00 had

the lowest mean, 4.3181. The standard deviation for Category 3.00 was notably lower, at 0.50584, indicating less variability within this group compared to the other groups. Overall, individuals with higher levels of education, particularly those with a postgraduate degree, tended to place a significant importance on financial rewards, compared to individuals with lower levels of education, such as Grade 12.

For *Age*, Group 3.00 also stood out, with the highest mean of 4.4883, followed by Group 1.00, at 4.3483, and Category 2.00, at 4.2384. Individuals in the 46–55 years and 56+ years categories indicated the highest importance, followed by those aged 25–35 years. Individuals aged 36–45 years placed somewhat less importance on financial rewards in comparison to the other age groups. The results are shown in Table 20.

Table 20*: Descriptives: Financial Rewards: *Level of education* and *Age*

						95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Level of Education Financial	1.00	40	4.3181	0.72211	0.11418	4.0872	4.5491	1	5
	2.00	68	4.3026	0.74502	0.09035	4.1222	4.4829	1.1	5
	3.00	26	4.3683	0.50584	0.0992	4.164	4.5726	2.9	5
	Total	**134**	**4.32**	**0.69371**	**0.05993**	**4.2014**	**4.4385**	**1**	**5**
Age Financial	1.00	72	4.3483	0.69733	0.08218	4.1844	4.5121	1.1	5
	2.00	56	4.2384	0.74693	0.09981	4.0384	4.4384	1	5
	3.00	15	4.4883	0.4449	0.11487	4.242	4.7347	3.43	5
	Total	**143**	**4.3199**	**0.69625**	**0.05822**	**4.2048**	**4.435**	**1**	**5**

The Levene tests for homogeneity of variances were conducted using different methods, and, in all cases, the *p*-values were greater than the accepted significance level of 0.05. It was therefore concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for both the *Level of education* and *Age* variables. The results are shown in Table 21.

Table 21: Homogeneity of Variances: Financial Rewards: *Level of education* and *Age*

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances					
		Levene Statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
Level of Education Financial	Based on mean	0.413	2	131	0.662

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	Based on median	0.238	2	131	0.788
	Based on median and with adjusted df	0.238	2	120.265	0.788
	Based on trimmed mean	0.258	2	131	0.773
Age Financial	Based on mean	0.525	2	140	0.592
	Based on median	0.27	2	140	0.764
	Based on median and with adjusted df	0.27	2	130.192	0.764
	Based on trimmed mean	0.339	2	140	0.713

It could be inferred from the outcomes of the ANOVA that there were no statistically significant distinctions amongst the means of *Level of education* (with *p*-values of 0.920) or *Age* variables (with a *p*-value of 0.417) amongst the three defined groups.

In conclusion, despite observed differences in the means, the statistical analysis revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in preference for financial rewards amongst individuals with different levels of education and across different age groups. The results are shown in Table 22.

Table 22: ANOVA: Financial rewards: *Level of education* and *Age*

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Level of education	Between groups	0.081	2	0.041	0.083	**0.92**
	Within groups	63.922	131	0.488		
	Total	64.003	133			
Age	Between groups	0.856	2	0.428	0.881	**0.417**
	Within groups	67.981	140	0.486		
	Total	68.837	142			

5.6.1.2. Gender, Race, and Job function

With regard to *Gender*, it was observed that men had a mean score of 4.2378, with a relatively high standard deviation of 0.79412, suggesting wider variability in their scores. In contrast, women had a higher mean score of 4.4776, suggesting they placed greater importance on financial rewards in comparison to men. However, the score had a lower standard deviation of 0.41675, indicating less variability in their scores compared to those of men.

With regard to the *Race* variable, Group 2.00 stood out with a higher mean score of 4.3747, while Group 1.00 had a slightly lower mean score of 4.2275. Group 2.00 also exhibited a lower standard deviation of 0.65975, implying more consistency in scores within this group. These results suggest that, on average, individuals from the white racial group may place a higher priority on financial rewards.

Lastly, for *Job function*, Group 1.00 had a slightly higher mean score of 4.3435, compared to Group 2.00 (4.3154). However, Group 1.00 had a lower standard deviation of 0.61903, suggesting less variability in scores within this category. Group 2.00 had a higher standard deviation of 0.71238, indicating greater variability in scores amongst individuals in this job function. These results suggest that team leaders may place slightly more importance on financial rewards, on average, in comparison to team members. The results are shown in Table 23.

Table 23: Descriptives: Financial Rewards: *Gender*, *Race*, and *Job Function*

Group Statistics					
Financial		*n*	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gender	Male	94	4.2378	0.79412	0.08191
	Female	49	4.4776	0.41675	0.05954
Race_rec	1.00	51	4.2275	0.77689	0.10879
	2.00	78	4.3747	0.65975	0.0747
Job Function	1.00	23	4.3435	0.61903	0.12908
	2.00	120	4.3154	0.71238	0.06503

For the *Gender* variable, equal variances were not assumed, as indicated by Levene's test for equality of variances with a significance level of 0.025. The t-test for equality of means yielded a *p*-value of 0.019, suggesting a statistically significant difference in responses between men and women ($p > 0.05$).

However, for the *Race* and *Job function* variables, equal variances were assumed, as the Levene's test for equality of variances showed *p*-values of 0.206 and 0.498, respectively. In both cases, the t-test for equality of means produced non-significant *p*-values of 0.25 and 0.86, indicating that there was no statistically significant difference in responses based on race and job function. The results are shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Independent samples t-test: Financial Rewards: *Gender*, *Race*, and *Job function*

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
		F	Sig.	t	*df*	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Gender	Equal variances assumed	5.097	**0.025**	-1.974	141	0.025	0.05	-0.23979	0.12145	-0.47988	0.00031
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.368	140.983	0.01	**0.019**	-0.23979	0.10126	-0.43997	-0,0396
Race	Equal variances assumed	1.614	**0.206**	-1.154	127	0.125	**0.25**	-0.14723	0.12753	-0.39958	0.10513
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.116	94.611	0.134	0.267	-0.14723	0.13197	-0.40923	0.11477
Job Function	Equal variances assumed	0.461	**0.498**	0.176	141	0.43	**0.86**	0.02806	0.15903	-0.28632	0.34244
	Equal variances not assumed			0.194	34.179	0.424	0.847	0.02806	0.14453	-0.26561	0.32173

Note: The header of this table reads "Independent Samples Test" as the overall title; the Significance column spans "One-Sided p" and "Two-Sided p"; the 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference spans "Lower" and "Upper".

As *Gender* yielded statistically significant results, the variables of Financial Rewards were examined further. In analysing the *Benefits* component of Financial Rewards preferences, with equal variances not assumed, as indicated by a significant Levene's test with a *p*-value of 0.002, the t-test for equality of means yielded a statistically significant *p*-value of 0.019, indicating that there was a significant

difference between men and women in responses related to benefits. *Compensation* produced no statistically significant differences. The results are shown in Table 25.

Table 25: Independent samples t-test: Financial Rewards: *Compensation* and *Benefits*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper
Compensation_1	Equal variances assumed	1.398	**0.239**	-1.646	141	0.051	**0.102**	-0.22720	0.13805	-0.50012	0.04571
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.796	123.034	0.037	0.075	-0.22720	0.12649	-0.47758	0.02318
Benefits_1	Equal variances assumed	9.551	**0.002**	-1.925	141	0.028	0.056	-0.25237	0.13107	-0.51148	0.00674
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.377	139.113	0.009	**0.019**	-0.25237	0.10618	-0.46231	-0.04242

5.6.1.3.   Tenure and Job family

Tenure obtained a *p*-value of 0.241, thus exceeding the threshold of 0.05, which indicated insufficient evidence to contradict the hypothesis that there are significant variations in financial reward preferences amongst individuals with differing lengths of tenure with the organisation. The results are shown in Table 26.

Table 26: Independent samples median test: Financial rewards: *Tenure*

FinancialRewards1 across Tenure_rec	
Independent-Samples Median Test Summary	
Total *n*	143
Median	4.500
Test statistic	5.482
df	4
Asymptotic sig.(2-sided test)	0.241

A similar outcome was observed in analysing *Job family*; the *p*-value was 0.161, i.e., greater than 0.05. This suggested that there was not enough evidence to conclude that there were significant differences in the medians of Financial Rewards across the *Job family* groups. The results are shown in Table 27.

Table 27: Independent samples median test: Financial Rewards: *Job family*

FinancialRewards1 across JobFamily_rec	
Independent-Samples Median Test Summary	
Total *n*	143
Median	4.500
Test statistic	5.151
df	3
Asymptotic sig.(2-sided test)	0.161

5.6.2. H1a: Non-financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

5.6.2.1. Level of education and Age

For *Level of education*, it was observed that Group 3.00 had the highest mean, at 4.4038, followed by Group 2.00, with a mean of 4.2917, and Group 1.00, with a mean of 4.075. The standard deviations for these groups indicated varying levels of dispersion, with Group 3.00 having the lowest standard deviation, 0.42747, suggesting less variability.

The results suggest that non-financial rewards hold varying degrees of importance across different levels of education, with those holding postgraduate degrees showing the highest mean importance rating and the least variability in their responses.

With regard to *Age*, within the non-financial context, Group 1.00 had the highest mean, 4.3191, followed by Group 3.00, with a mean of 4.2537, and Group 2.00, with a mean of 4.1424. The standard deviations for these groups also reflected different levels of variation, with Group 1.00 having a standard deviation of 0.72383 and Group 3.00 having a standard deviation of 0.60238.

Individuals aged 25–35 assigned the highest mean importance rating, while those in the combined age group of 46–55 and 56+ showed a slightly lower mean importance rating, but with less variability in their responses. The results are shown in Table 28.

Table 28: Descriptives: Non-Financial Rewards: *Level of education* and *Age*

		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Education Non-financial	1.00	40	4.075	0.87774	0.13878	3.7943	4.3557	1.33	5
	2.00	68	4.2917	0.76939	0.0933	4.1054	4.4779	1.17	5
	3.00	26	4.4038	0.42747	0.08383	4.2312	4.5765	3.47	5
	Total	134	4.2488	0.75709	0.0654	4.1194	4.3781	1.17	5
Age Non-financial	1.00	72	4.3191	0.72383	0.0853	4.149	4.4892	1.25	5
	2.00	56	4.1424	0.83259	0.11126	3.9194	4.3653	1.17	5
	3.00	15	4.2537	0.60238	0.15553	3.9201	4.5873	2.92	5
	Total	143	4.243	0.75708	0.06331	4.1179	4.3682	1.17	5

The Levene tests for homogeneity of variances were conducted using different methods, and, in all cases, the *p*-values were greater than the accepted significance level of 0.05 (Sawyer, 2009). It was therefore concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for both the *Level of education* and *Age* variables with regard to Non-financial Rewards. The results are shown in Table 29.

Table 29: Homogeneity of Variances: Non-financial Rewards: *Level of education* and *Age*

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances		Levene Statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
Education Non-financial	Based on mean	2.161	2	131	**0.119**
	Based on median	2.021	2	131	**0.137**
	Based on median and with adjusted *df*	2.021	2	113.034	**0.137**
	Based on trimmed mean	2.082	2	131	**0.129**
Age Non-financial	Based on mean	0.019	2	140	**0.982**
	Based on median	0	2	140	**1**
	Based on median and with adjusted *df*	0	2	126.399	**1**
	Based on trimmed mean	0.004	2	140	**0.996**

Upon reviewing the ANOVA results, it was evident that, with *p*-values greater than 0.05 (specifically, *p* = 0.182 for *Level of education* and *p* = 0.426 for *Age*), there were no statistically significant distinctions amongst the means of *Education level* groups within the three defined groups, or for the *Age* variable. This conclusion was made at a significance level of 0.05. The results are shown in Table 30.

Table 30: ANOVA: Non-financial Rewards: *Level of education* and *Age*

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Education Non-financial	Between groups	1.958	2	0.979	1.727	0.182
	Within groups	74.276	131	0.567		
	Total	76.234	133			
Age Non-financial	Between groups	0.985	2	0.493	0.858	0.426
	Within groups	80.406	140	0.574		
	Total	81.391	142			

5.6.2.2.   Gender, Race, and Job function

With regard to gender, men had a mean score of 4.1495, with a standard deviation of 0.84766, while women had a higher mean score of 4.4223, and a lower standard deviation, 0.50356. This suggests that women, on average, tend to place higher importance on non-financial rewards, in comparison to men.

Regarding *Race*, Group 2.00 stood out with a higher mean score of 4.3041, suggesting that individuals identifying as white tended to assign a higher mean importance rating to non-financial rewards, with less variability in their responses, compared to those identifying as black African, with a mean score of 4.146.

For *Job function*, Group 1.00 has the highest mean score, 4.4529, whereas Group 2.00 had a slightly lower mean score of 4.2028. Group 1.00 also exhibited a lower standard deviation of 0.38146, suggesting less variability in scores, compared to Group 2.00, which had a higher standard deviation of 0.80431. These results suggest that team leaders, on average, may place slightly more importance on non-financial rewards, compared to team members. The results are shown in Table 31.

Table 31: Descriptives: Non-financial Rewards: *Gender*, *Race*, and *Job function*

Group Statistics					
Non-financial		*n*	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gender	Male	94	4.1495	0.84766	0.08743
	Female	49	4.4223	0.50356	0.07194
Race_rec	1.00	51	4.146	0.91023	0.12746
	2.00	78	4.3041	0.67861	0.07684
Job function	1.00	23	4.4529	0.38146	0.07954
	2.00	120	4.2028	0.80431	0.07342

For the *Gender* variable, equal variances were assumed, as indicated by a Levene's test for equality of variances with a non-significant *p*-value of 0.1. However, the t-test for equality of means produced a statistically significant *p*-value of 0.04. This suggested that there are significant differences in responses between men and women with regard to non-financial reward preferences.

For the *Race* variable, equal variances were not assumed, as the Levene's test yielded a *p*-value below 0.05, at 0.045. However, the t-test for equality of means yielded a non-significant *p*-value of 0.291, indicating that there was no statistically significant difference in responses amongst different race groups concerning non-financial reward preferences.

Regarding *Job function*, equal variances were not assumed, as the Levene's test produced a *p*-value of 0.037. The t-test for equality of means yielded a statistically significant *p*-value of 0.024, indicating a meaningful difference in responses amongst different job functions with regard to non-financial reward preferences. In summary, the results indicated that, while race did not lead to significant differences in preferences, gender and job function did have a significant impact on individuals' non-financial reward preferences in this study. The results are shown in Table 32.

Table 32: Independent samples t-test: Non-financial Rewards: *Gender*, *Race*, and *Job function*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p				
Gender Non-financial	Equal variances assumed	2.743	**0.1**	-2.069	141	0.02	**0,04**	-0.27281	0.13188	-0.53353	-0.01208
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.41	138.53	0.009	0.017	-0.27281	0.11322	-0.49667	-0.04895
Race Non-financial	Equal variances assumed	4.108	**0.045**	-1.129	127	0.131	0.261	-0.15816	0.14011	-0.43542	0.1191
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.063	85.605	0.145	**0.291**	-0.15816	0.14883	-0.45404	0.13772
Job function Non-financial	Equal variances assumed	4.434	**0.037**	1.457	141	0.074	0.147	0.25012	0.17165	-0.08922	0.58946
	Equal variances not assumed			2.311	66.535	0.012	**0.024**	0.25012	0.10825	0.03403	0.46621

With regard to the variables of Non-financial Rewards and their association with *Gender*, one variable stood out as statistically significant, namely *Recognition*. The significance was underscored by a *p*-value of 0.049 < 0.05 with equal variances assumed, indicating a statistically significant difference in responses between the two genders. The results are shown in Table 33.

Table 33: Independent samples t-test: Non-financial rewards: *Recognition* and *Gender*

Gender		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means								
						Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper	
Recognition_1	Equal variances assumed	1.358	**0.246**	-1.985	141	0.025	**0.049**	-0.31546	0.15889	-0.62957	-0.00135	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.247	132.905	0.013	0.026	-0.31546	0.14036	-0.59309	-0.03782	

A similar result was obtained regard to Race and Non-financial Rewards. Of the three variables, namely *Development*, *Well-being*, and *Recognition*, *Recognition* produced a statistically significant result with a *p*-value of 0.028 and equal variances assumed, indicating differences in responses between the race groups. The results are shown in Table 34.

Table 34: Independent samples t-test: Non-financial rewards: *Recognition* and *Race*

Race		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means								
						Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper	
Recognition_1	Equal variances assumed	5.090	**0.026**	-2.226	127	0.014	**0.028**	-0.37368	0.16785	-0.70582	-0.04154	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.088	84.374	0.020	0.040	-0.37368	0.17896	-0.72953	-0.01783	

With regard to *Job function* in relation to the Non-financial Rewards variables, no variable proved to be statistically significant.

In summary, the study uncovered noteworthy statistical findings concerning non-financial reward preferences related to gender, notably the aspect of recognition. Additionally, the research identified significant differences in non-financial reward preferences amongst different job functions, without any single variable dominating the results. Notably, while there were no overall statistically significant differences in responses related to race and non-financial reward preferences, recognition emerged as a statistically significant factor.

5.6.2.3.   Tenure and job family

In analysing *Tenure*, the *p*-value was 0.086, i.e., greater than 0.05. This suggested that there was not enough evidence to conclude that there were significant differences in the medians of Non-financial Rewards across the groups defined for *Tenure*. The results are shown in Table 35.

Table 35: Independent samples median test: Non-financial Rewards: *Tenure*

NonFinancialRewards1 across Tenure_rec	
Independent-Samples Median Test Summary	
Total *n*	143
Median	4.417
Test statistic	8.149
df	4
Asymptotic sig.(2-sided test)	0.086

For differences in *Job family* with regard to Non-financial Rewards preferences, the *p*-value was 0.104, i.e., greater than 0.05. This suggested that there was not enough evidence to conclude that there were significant differences in the medians of Non-financial Rewards across the groups defined in *Job family*. The results are shown in Table 36.

Table 36: Independent samples median test: Non-financial rewards: *Job family*

NonFinancialRewards1 across JobFamily_rec	
Independent-Samples Median Test Summary	
Total *n*	143
Median	4.417
Test statistic	6.157
df	3
Asymptotic sig.(2-sided test)	0.104

5.6.3. H2: There is a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP.

The mean score of Total Reward Preferences was 4.2738. The standard deviation of 0.68877 showed moderate variability in these scores, indicating a certain degree of dispersion amongst respondents. The skewness value of -2.245 suggested a pronounced negative skew, meaning the distribution was skewed to the left, with a tail extending towards lower scores. Additionally, the kurtosis value of 6.287 indicated a leptokurtic distribution, suggesting that the data had heavier tails and more extreme values compared to a normal distribution.

In contrast, for *EVP*, the mean score was 4.0082, indicating a generally positive perception of the EVP amongst respondents. The median score of 4.0367 was close to the mean, implying a relatively symmetric distribution of *EVP* scores. The standard deviation, at 0.74657, indicated moderate variability, but not as pronounced as that of Total Reward Preferences. The skewness value of -1.239 suggested a negative skew, although less pronounced than that of Total Reward Preferences. The kurtosis value of 2.740 indicated a distribution closer to normality, compared to that of Total Reward Preferences. The results are shown in Table 37.

Table 37: Descriptives: Total Reward Preferences and *EVP*

Statistics		TotalrewardPreferences	EVP
n	Valid	143	143
	Missing	0	0
Mean		4.2738	4.0082
Median		4.4200	4.0367
Std. deviation		0.68877	0,74657
Skewness		-2.245	-1.239
Std. error of skewness		0.203	0.203
Kurtosis		6.287	2.740
Std. error of kurtosis		0.403	0.403
Minimum		1.19	1.00
Maximum		5.00	5.00

The Pearsons test for correlation indicated a strong positive relationship between Total Reward Preferences and employees' perception of the EVP, evident in a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.738, i.e., greater than 0.5 (see Cohen, 2013). This robust relationship between the two variables was confirmed by the statistical significance with a p-value of 0.000. The results are shown in Table 38.

Table 38: Pearson Correlation: Total Reward Preferences and *EVP*

Correlations		TotalrewardPreferences	EVP
TotalrewardPreferences	Pearson Correlation	--	
	n	143	
EVP	Pearson Correlation	**.738**[**]	--
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	n	143	143

5.7.   Conclusion

This chapter provided a comprehensive report of the results of the analyses conducted on the data collected through the survey. The chapter described the characteristics of the survey sample, highlighting the demographics and other relevant information about the respondents. Subsequently, the reliability and validity of the data were evaluated to ensure validity and reliability. Finally, the results of the statistical tests to examine the constructs and research hypotheses were reported. The results reported in this chapter are discussed in Chapter 6, which discussion highlights meaningful insights drawn from and the implications of the results.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1. Introduction

Chapter 5 presented a comprehensive discussion of the study's results. This chapter interprets the results and explores their implications in the context of the research objectives. The chapter also relates the outcomes to existing literature and theoretical frameworks, shedding light on their significance and the study's contribution to the body of knowledge in this field.

6.2. Descriptive Characteristics of Sample

The study's analysis of the sample revealed several key demographic insights. First, in terms of education, nearly half of the respondents (47.6%) held either a diploma or a degree, indicating that a substantial portion of the sample had a higher education. Additionally, 28% possessed a Grade 12 qualification, while 18.2% had completed a postgraduate degree, indicating a diverse educational distribution within the sample.

With regard to tenure with the organisation, the majority of respondents (28%) had been with the company for a duration ranging from five years to less than 10 years, indicating a substantial level of familiarity with the subject matter among this group. Furthermore, 23.8% have an extensive tenure of 10 or more years, while 23.1% had been employed for 2 to less than 5 years. In contrast, 14% have relatively shorter tenures of one year to less than two years, and the smallest group (11.2%) comprises individuals who had been with the organisation for less than one year.

Regarding age distribution, the sample included a substantial representation of various age groups. Approximately half of the respondents (50.3%) fell within the age bracket of 25–35 years, indicating a relatively young workforce, while 39.2% were aged 36–45 years, showing a sizable mid-career demographic. The 46–55 years age group accounted for 8.4% of respondents, and a smaller segment (2.1%) comprised individuals aged 56 years or older.

With regard to gender, the survey respondents were predominantly men (65.7%); 34.3% were women, highlighting a gender imbalance in the sample.

In terms of racial composition, the sample exhibited diverse representation. The majority of respondents (54.5%) self-identified as white, while black African respondents constituted a significant portion at 35.7%. Coloured individuals made up 3.5%, and Indian respondents accounted for 4.9% of the sample. A smaller proportion (1.4%) indicated "Other." Thus, the sample comprise mainly white and black African individuals.

With regard to job families, the sales job family was the most prevalent, comprising a substantial 67.1% of the sample, followed by marketing, at 9.1% representation, engineering (7.7%), and finance (4.9%). The other job families, namely customer service, logistics, repairs, and human resources, accounted for smaller percentages, ranging from 0.7% to 3.5%. A significant portion of the respondents (83.9%) held the role of team member, while 16.1% occupied the position of team leader.

The next section discusses the study's results regarding the sample's characteristics as these relate to the research questions.

6.3. Research Question 1

The study aimed to examine the reward preferences of different demographic groups post-pandemic, in order to address the research question: *What rewards are most preferred across demographic groups post-pandemic?* Grounded in the theoretical framework, particularly the study by Pregnolato et al. (2017), which emphasised the significance of financial rewards in enhancing employee retention across demographic groups, it was hypothesised that financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups. Therefore, the objective was to explore whether financial rewards remained paramount and consistent across various demographic variables while acknowledging the potential influence of age, gender, and other factors.

H1: Financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

The theoretical background highlights that while financial rewards are a crucial factor in meeting employees' basic needs, these are just one facet of the total rewards package (Hoole & Hotz, 2016). Other elements, such as non-financial benefits and work–life balance, also contribute significantly to employee retention and engagement (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2020 ; Victor & Hoole, 2017).

The results of the analyses indicated that financial rewards do hold significant importance across various demographic groups. This aligns with the findings of Pregnolato et al. (2017), who emphasises the role of financial rewards in enhancing employee retention across demographic groups. The results show that employees, regardless of age, level of education, gender, race, or job function, prioritise financial rewards. This preference could be attributed to the basic needs that individuals are able to fulfil by means of money (Pregnolato et al., 2017).

However, the results also revealed some nuances in the preferences of different demographic groups. For instance, older employees (46 years and above) consistently rated financial rewards as more important, as indicated by their higher mean scores. This finding is aligned with the study by Tausif (2012), who suggests that older employees tend to place greater importance on financial rewards. In contrast, however, the results showed that younger employees (25–35 years) and those in the middle group (36–45 years) place slightly less importance on financial rewards, compared to their older counterparts. However, the mean scores were still high. This implies that, while financial rewards are important to all individuals of all ages, they are slightly less important to younger age groups.

Regarding gender, the results indicated a statistically significant difference, with women, on average, rating financial rewards higher than men do. Benefits, as a financial reward, contributed significantly to the difference observed. The results of the present study are aligned with the recognition that gender differences in reward preferences are not as straightforward as previously assumed (Nienaber et al., 2011). The lower variability in women's responses suggests a more consistent preference for financial rewards amongst women.

With regard to race, one racial group, those who self-identified as white (Group 2.00) rated financial rewards slightly higher on average than black Africans (Group 1.00) did. However, the standard deviation indicates more consistency within Group 2.00, implying a relatively uniform preference for financial rewards within the latter group. These results highlight the complexity of reward preferences and their potential variations across racial demographics.

In terms of job function, the results suggest that team leaders prioritise compensation more than team members do. This aligns with the idea that individuals at different hierarchical levels may exhibit diverse preferences when it comes to rewards (Smit

et al., 2015). Team leaders may place a higher importance on financial compensation because they are already established in their careers, while team members may prioritise development opportunities and other related benefits.

The results confirm the overall importance of financial rewards across demographic groups, consistent with existing literature (Pregnolato et al., 2017). However, they also highlight subtle variations in preferences among different groups, particularly gender, underscoring the importance for organisations to consider these nuances when designing reward packages to enhance employee retention and satisfaction. Consequently, based on the results, Hypothesis 1 is rejected, as financial rewards are not equally important across demographic groups.

H1a: Non-financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

The study aimed to investigate the preferences for non-financial rewards amongst various demographic groups in a post-pandemic context. Literature emphasises the interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in employees highlighted by Emmanuel and Nwuzor (2021), and the current study thus explored whether non-financial rewards hold consistent significance across different demographic variable, namely age, gender, race, job function, tenure, and job family.

With regard to level of education and age group, there was no statistically significant distinctions amongst the means of *Level of education* or *Age* concerning Non-financial Reward preferences. This outcome closely aligns with the findings of Letchmiah and Thomas (2017), who emphasise the pivotal role of non-financial rewards in retaining employees across diverse demographic groups. Their study found that developmental opportunities, one of the non-financial rewards considered in the current study, ranked amongst the top factors influencing employee retention (Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017). While age and education level may certainly influence other aspects of employee preferences, the current study's results suggest that these demographic factors do not exert a significant impact on non-financial rewards preferences. Therefore, this study's results confirm existing literature regarding the overarching importance of non-financial rewards in retaining employees across demographic groups (Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017).

With regard to gender, race, and job function, the study results unveiled intriguing differences. The results showed that gender plays a discernible role in shaping

individuals' preferences for non-financial rewards, with women exhibiting a higher mean preference score, and the difference between men and women proved to be statistically significant. This result harmonises with the literature that posits that recognition holds significant value as a non-financial reward amongst knowledge workers, particularly amongst women (Pregnolato et al., 2017). In the current study, recognition emerged as a statistically significant factor in the context of gender, further underscoring recognitions importance in shaping reward strategies, as posited by Brun and Dugas (2008).

In contrast, the results did not indicate significant differences in non-financial reward preferences according to race, which contradicts literature that posits that there are significant such differences (e.g., Pregnolato et al., 2017). Recognition, as a non-financial reward did however produce statistically significant results according to race, similar to the results of gender.

It was found that job function does exert a notable impact on non-financial reward preferences, with team leaders placing greater importance than team members on non-financial rewards. This finding contradicts the view of Smit et al. (2015) that team members place greater importance on non-financial rewards such as development.

Lastly, with regard to tenure and job family, the results showed that neither of these demographic factors significantly influence non-financial reward preferences.

The study's results confirm and extend the literature on the importance of non-financial rewards across diverse demographic groups. While education and age do not exert a significant influence on non-financial reward preferences, gender and job function play pivotal roles, and recognition is a critical non-financial reward. Race, tenure, and job family, on the other hand, do not seem to exert substantial influence on non-financial reward preferences. Consequently, based on the statistically significant differences observed across gender and job function groups, Hypothesis 1a is rejected. These insights could empower organisations to tailor their non-financial reward strategies to better align with the preferences of different demographic groups, ultimately enhancing employee retention and satisfaction.

6.4. Research Question 2

H2: There is a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP.

The results of this study shed light on the relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP in addressing Research Question 2: *What is the extent of the relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP?* and Hypothesis 2. Alignment between employees' preferences with regard to total rewards and the total rewards offered in the EVP is critical for attracting and retaining employees, as emphasised in prior research (Theurer et al., 2016). The current study's results confirm and extend this literature by providing empirical evidence of a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP.

The mean score of 4.2738 for Total Reward Preferences suggested that, on average, respondents in this study had relatively high preferences for total rewards, consisting of both financial and non-financial rewards. This aligns with literature that emphasises the importance of attractive total rewards packages as part of the EVP (e.g., Binu Raj, 2021). However, the moderate standard deviation of 0.68877 indicated some variability in preferences amongst respondents, reflecting that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to total rewards. This underscores the need for organisations to customise their EVPs to cater to diverse employee preferences, as recommended by Tanwar and Prasad (2017).

The negative skewness value of -2.245 indicated that the distribution of Total Reward Preferences was skewed to the left, with a tail extending towards lower scores. This skewness suggests that a subset of respondents may have relatively lower total reward preferences, which organisations should be mindful of when designing their EVPs.

Respondents, on average, indicated a generally positive perception of the EVP, as evidenced by a mean score of 4.0082. The relatively symmetric distribution with a median score close to the mean (4.0367) suggests a relatively consistent perception of the EVP amongst respondents. This aligns with the concept that EVP should reflect employees' expectations of an organisation and its ability to fulfil promises, as emphasised in the literature (Binu Raj, 2021).

The moderate standard deviation of 0.74657 for EVP indicated some variability in perceptions, though not as pronounced as for Total Reward Preferences. The negative skewness value of -1.239 suggested a slight negative skew in the

distribution of EVP scores, indicating that some respondents may have less favourable perceptions of the EVP.

The results of the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis provided compelling evidence for the relationship between Total Reward Preferences and EVP perceptions. The strong positive relationship with a Pearson Correlation coefficient of 0.738, which exceeded the threshold of 0.5 (Cohen, 2013), confirms that employees with higher total reward preferences tend to have more positive perceptions of the EVP. Furthermore, the statistical significance with a p-value of 0.000 confirmed the robustness of this relationship. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

In conclusion, the findings corroborate and extend the literature by empirically demonstrating a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP. These results underscore the importance of aligning total rewards with employee preferences in the EVP, especially as organisations navigate the evolving post-pandemic landscape. Customising EVPs to cater to diverse employee demographics and preferences remains a critical strategic imperative for organisations seeking to attract and retain top talent.

6.5. Conclusion

Chapter 6 has provided a comprehensive discussion of the research results, shedding light on the rewards preferences of different demographic groups post-pandemic. The significance of financial and non-financial rewards across various demographic variables was explored, revealing nuanced differences in preferences related to certain demographic variables. The relationship between reward preferences and employees' preferences of the EVP was also made clear. These insights provide a strong foundation for shaping effective reward strategies in organisations.

Based on the results, the research model defined in Chapter 3 has been revised and confirmed as illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Confirmed research model
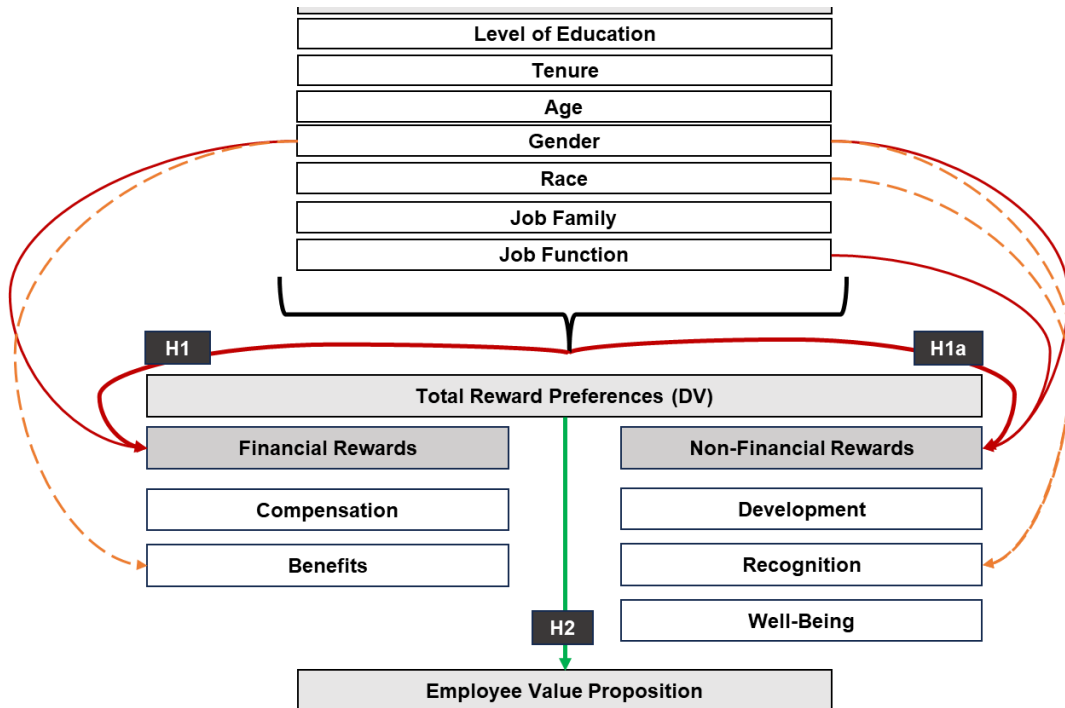
In the final chapter, Chapter 7, principal conclusions derived from these results are presented, together with the study's theoretical contributions to the field and practical implications for organisations. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study and potential areas for future research.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1.   Introduction

The study, as outlined in Chapter 1, aimed to investigate the transforming reward preferences of employees in the post-pandemic era and examine the implications for the EVP. This research problem was identified in response to the significant increase in voluntary resignations post-pandemic, commonly referred to as 'the Great Resignation' (Serenko, 2023), and the changing power dynamics between employers and employees. This change in the employment landscape necessitated a deeper understanding of employees' motivations and the role of rewards, particularly within the context of the EVP, which encompasses various employment-related factors, including the total rewards system (Arasanmi & Krishna, 2019).

7.2.   Principal Conclusions

This section presents the conclusions related to each research question, together with the key findings of the study.

7.2.1. Research Question 1

What rewards are most preferred across demographic groups post-pandemic?

7.2.2. Hypothesis 1a

Financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

The results of the study shed light on the importance of financial rewards in the post-pandemic era. For this hypothesis, various demographic variables were considered, such as age, gender, race, and job function, to gain a comprehensive understanding of employees' preferences regarding financial rewards.

The results strongly support the notion that financial rewards remain a fundamental and universally important aspect of the total rewards package across different demographic groups. This conclusion aligns with the existing literature, for example, Pregnolato et al. (2017), who emphasise the significance of financial rewards in enhancing employee retention, irrespective of demographic characteristics.

However, the results also revealed some nuanced variations in preferences amongst different demographic groups. Notably, older employees (46 years and above) in the current study consistently rated financial rewards as more important, which aligns with prior research suggesting that age plays a role in reward preferences. Younger employees (25–35 years) and those in the middle group (36–45 years) also emphasised the importance of financial rewards, albeit slightly less than their older counterparts. This implies that, while financial rewards hold universal importance, younger employees may value these rewards slightly less.

Regarding gender, the results indicate that women, on average, place a higher value on financial rewards, compared to men, and underscores the complexity of gender differences in reward preferences, as observed in prior research (Nienaber et al., 2011).

In terms of race, one racial group, those who self-identified as white, rated financial rewards slightly higher, on average, than those who self-identified as black Africans. However, the standard deviation suggests a more consistent preference for financial rewards within the white racial group, indicating a relatively uniform preference for financial rewards within that group. This highlights the need for organisations to consider potential variations in reward preferences across racial demographics.

Additionally, the study found that job function influenced employees' perceptions of financial rewards. The results showed that team leaders tend to prioritise compensation more than team members, reflecting the influence of hierarchical level on reward preferences. Team leaders, who are typically more established in their careers, may thus place higher importance on financial compensation, while team members may prioritise rewards related to career development.

In summary, while financial rewards are indeed crucial and universally important across demographic groups, the study underscores the importance of considering subtle variations in preferences amongst different groups.

7.2.3. Hypothesis 1b

Non-financial rewards are equally important across demographic groups.

In terms of education and age, the study did not find statistically significant differences amongst different group's level of education or age group with regard to

non-financial reward preferences. This suggests that these factors do not significantly impact employees' preferences with regard to non-financial rewards.

On the other hand, gender was found to play a significant role in shaping non-financial reward preferences, with women employees exhibiting a higher mean preference score for non-financial rewards, compared to their male counterparts, and the difference was statistically significant. The results showed the importance of recognition, specifically, as a non-financial reward, for women, which should be taken into consideration in the formulation of reward strategies.

Surprisingly, race did not yield significant differences in non-financial reward preferences, contrary to expectations based on previous research (Pregnolato et al., 2017). This suggests that, in the context of non-financial rewards, race may not be a significant influencing factor.

Job function emerged as a notable demographic factor affecting non-financial reward preferences. Team leaders expressed a greater emphasis on non-financial rewards, compared to team members. This finding contradicts literature that posits that team members place a higher value non-financial rewards, like development, than what team leaders do (Smit et al., 2015).

Lastly, neither tenure nor job family appear to exert a substantial influence on non-financial reward preferences.

In summary, non-financial rewards proved to be universally important across demographic groups, but there were significant differences related to gender and job function.

7.2.4. Research Question 2

What is the extent of the relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP?

7.2.4.1. Hypothesis 2

There is a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP.

The study's results supported the hypothesis that there is a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perception of the EVP. The EVP is thus a critical tool for attracting and retaining talent, and total rewards play a central role within the EVP, as posited by Binu Raj (2021) and Theurer et al. (2016).

The study found that, on average, respondents had relatively high preferences for total rewards, aligning with the literature emphasising the importance of attractive total rewards packages as part of the EVP (Binu Raj, 2021). However, there was variability in preferences amongst respondents, indicating the need for organisations to customise their EVPs to cater to diverse employee preferences, as recommended by Tanwar & Prasad (2017).

Respondents also generally had a positive perception of the EVP, which should reflect employees' expectations and an organisation's ability to fulfil promises (Binu Raj, 2021). The correlation analysis demonstrated a strong positive relationship between Total Reward Preferences and EVP perceptions, with employees who had higher total reward preferences tending to have more positive perceptions of the EVP.

7.3. Theoretical Contribution

The study makes significant contributions to the field of HRM, total rewards, and EVP research. In the context of HRM, the study addressed the highlighted gap in the literature, i.e., that literature focuses predominantly on how the COVID-19 crisis influenced HRM, but not specifically how it affected the functions of HRM. The findings underscore the continued importance of financial rewards in the post-pandemic era across various demographic groups, affirming the significance of this traditional aspect of HRM. However, the study also revealed nuanced variations in preferences amongst demographic groups, such as age, gender, race, and job function, emphasising the need for HRM to consider these differences in crafting effective strategies. Moreover, the research supports the view that non-financial rewards, particularly recognition, are significant reward preferences, especially for women employees and team leaders. These insights contribute to the theoretical understanding of HRM functions in the evolving post-pandemic landscape.

In the domain of total rewards, the study addressed the call for post-pandemic research to reconsider and adjust total reward systems to enhance attraction and retention of employees in the changing work environment. It reaffirmed the importance of total rewards in the EVP, and highlighted the need for organisations to align their total rewards packages with employees' evolving expectations and preferences. This research indicates that, while total rewards remain universally important, there are notable variations in preferences. These findings provide valuable theoretical insights into the design and customisation of total reward strategies post-pandemic.

Regarding the EVP, the study confirmed the hypothesis that there exists a strong positive relationship between total rewards preferences and employees' perceptions of the EVP. This aligns with the literature emphasising the role of total rewards in the EVP in attracting and retaining talent (Binu Raj, 2021). The study's results emphasise that organisations need to tailor their EVPs to cater to diverse employee preferences. While employees may have a positive perception of the EVP, organisations have to consider variations in preferences with regard to total rewards. These results contribute to the theoretical understanding of the EVP as a critical tool for talent management, and highlight the importance of aligning it with employees' preferences in order to enhance organisational commitment and retention.

7.4.   Implications for Business

The implications for business stemming from the study's findings are significant and multifaceted. Firstly, the study underscores the critical importance of employee retention, as high turnover can lead to adverse performance outcomes and substantial costs. To mitigate these challenges, businesses should prioritise strategies that enhance employee retention, considering the diverse preferences highlighted in the study, such as age, gender, race, and job function. Customising retention strategies to address the nuanced variations in reward preferences amongst different demographic groups can be a cost-effective approach to building a stable and experienced workforce, fostering innovation, and maintaining organisational continuity.

Secondly, in the competitive job market, characterised by the Great Resignation and evolving employee preferences, attracting talent has become paramount. Businesses must adapt to these shifting norms by conducting research to understand

and accommodate these differences. This entails crafting attractive total rewards packages with the correct balance between financial and non-financial rewards. The study's results emphasise that financial rewards remain universally important, but the growing significance of non-financial rewards, particularly recognition, should not be overlooked. Tailoring attraction strategies to the preferences highlighted, especially amongst women employees and team leaders, can enhance businesses' ability to attract and retain top talent.

Thirdly, the study reaffirms the importance of the EVP in talent management. Businesses should design and communicate a well-defined EVP that encompasses both financial and non-financial reward offerings. Ensuring an optimal balance in the post-pandemic context can enhance employee commitment, reduce turnover costs, and improve overall performance outcomes. In recognising that employees have diverse total rewards preferences, businesses should customise their EVPs to cater to these variations, as this will foster a positive perception of the EVP, which will enhance the attraction and retention of talent.

7.5. Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are primarily associated with the research design and methodological approach.

Firstly, the current researcher assumed that the selected research methodology was the most appropriate and relevant, based on previous research. Despite the attentive consideration given to choosing the methodology, it is acknowledged that alternative approaches may have provided different or more comprehensive insights.

Secondly, the study is limited by the sample size and scope. A small sample size limits the generalisability of the results and increases the potential for statistical errors. A larger and more diverse sample may yield more robust and representative results. Additionally, the study focused exclusively on one specific industry and organisation, potentially excluding unique characteristics or factors present in other industries that could have influenced the study's outcomes (see Aguinis & Lawal, 2012).

Furthermore, the study relied on a self-administered survey, assuming that respondents understood the questionnaire's content and responded truthfully. This assumption introduced a potential limitation regarding the accuracy and reliability of

the collected data. Respondents might have misunderstood the questionnaire items or provided socially desirable responses (Ross & Bibler Zaidi, 2019). These factors could have introduced bias or error into the study's results, potentially affecting the overall validity and reliability of the study.

7.6.   Suggestions for Future Research

While this study provides valuable insights into the transforming reward preferences of employees in the post-pandemic era and their implications for the EVP, several avenues for future research can be explored to further to enhance the understanding of this dynamic field. The limitations of this study are associated with the research design and methodology. Future research should thus consider alternative approaches to investigate reward preferences, which could include incorporating qualitative methods, such as interviews or focus groups, to gain a deeper understanding of the constructs.

Another promising area for future research is the expansion of the sample size and scope. As acknowledged in the discussion of the limitations, the small sample size and the focus on a specific industry and organisation may limit the generalisability of the findings. Conducting similar studies across diverse industries and organisations could provide a more comprehensive view of how reward preferences vary across different contexts.

Additionally, future research could delve into the role of cultural factors in shaping reward preferences. While this study briefly touched on racial differences, a more in-depth exploration of how cultural backgrounds influence reward preferences may prove valuable, as certain cultural nuances and expectations may play a significant role in shaping employees' perceptions of rewards and the EVP.

Furthermore, given the ongoing evolution of work dynamics and the potential for long-term changes due to the pandemic, longitudinal studies tracking changes in reward preferences over time would be beneficial. This would allow researchers to observe how preferences evolve as employees adapt to new work arrangements and as organisations refine their reward strategies.

Lastly, research that delves into the effectiveness of specific reward strategies in enhancing employee retention and attraction could provide practical insights for businesses. Understanding which combinations of financial and non-financial

rewards are most effective in different demographic contexts could guide organisations in tailoring their EVPs more effectively.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Dear respondent,

I am currently a student at the University of Pretoria's Gordon Institute of Business Science and completing my research in partial fulfilment of a Master's in Business Administration (MBA).

I am researching the reward preferences of employees in the post-pandemic era to examine the implications of the selections for the employee value proposition.

Your participation will involve completing an online questionnaire which should take no longer than 15 minutes. Your participation is voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time without penalty. Your participation is anonymous and only aggregated data will be reported. By completing the survey, you are indicating your voluntary consent to participate in this research.

Please note that by completing the questionnaire, you are providing informed consent for your participation in this study and any information derived from your anonymous responses may be used for academic purposes, potentially leading to publication. The data will be encrypted and stored should any respondents request the results.

Should you have any concerns or require further information, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor. Our details are provided below:

Research Supervisor: Dr. Mark Bussin: drbussin@mweb.co.za

Researcher: Nicola Gillespie: 28259280@mygibs.co.za

Thank you for considering this invitation. Your participation will significantly contribute to advancing research on rewards preferences and the employee value proposition.

SECTION A: Demographics

Job family		Sales
		Marketing
		Finance
		Human resources
		Customer Service
		Logistics
		Engineering
		Repair
Function		Team Leader
		Team Member
Race		Black African
		Coloured
		Indian
		White
		Other
Gender		Male
		Female
Age		Under 25 years
		25–35 years
		36–45 years
		46–55 years
		56+ years
Tenure		Less than 1 year
		1 year – less than 2 years
		2 years – less than 5 years
		5 years – less than 10 years
		10+ years
Level of education		Grade 12
		Diploma/Degree
		Postgraduate degree
		Other

SECTION B: Total Rewards Preferences

Please indicate by selecting the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements in the following sections.

(1) Strongly disagree

(2) Disagree

(3) Neutral

(4) Agree

(5) Strongly agree

Compensation	Pay provided to employees by employers for services rendered				
The components below are important to me	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Base (fixed) salary					
Short-term incentives					
Medium-term incentives					
Long-term incentives					
Well-being	Ensuring that employees are comfortable, happy, productive, and healthy, considering the external factors				
The components below are important to me	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Employee assistance programme					
Wellness programme					
Flexible work arrangements					
Stress-free work environment					
Benefits	Programmes focused on health and welfare				
The components below are important to me	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Medical aid benefit					
Provident or pension fund					
Risk benefits (Disability, death, long-term illness, funeral)					
Leaves of absence (Annual, Family, Sick, Family responsibility leave)					
Children educational fund					
Development	The rewards and opportunities provided to employees by employers to advance their skills, competencies, responsibilities, and contributions				
The components below are important to me	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Career or personal development plan					
Training and development opportunities					
Mentorship/Coaching					
Recognition	Formal or informal programmes to thank, validate, recognise and celebrate employee contributions				
The components below are important to me	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Formal recognition					
Informal recognition					

SECTION C: Perceptions of the Employee Value Proposition

Please indicate by selecting the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements in the following sections.

(1) Strongly disagree

(2) Disagree

(3) Neutral

(4) Agree

(5) Strongly agree

Compensation	Pay provided to employees by employers for services rendered				
My organisation provides	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Base (fixed) salary					
Short-term incentives					
Medium-term incentives					
Long-term incentives					
Well-being	Ensuring that employees are comfortable, happy, productive, and healthy, considering the external factors				
My organisation provides	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Employee assistance programme					
Wellness programme					
Flexible work arrangements					
Stress-free work environment					
Benefits	Programmes focused on health and welfare				
My organisation provides	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Medical aid benefit					
Provident or pension fund					
Risk benefits (Disability, death, long-term illness, funeral)					
Leaves of absence (Annual, Family, Sick, Family responsibility leave)					
Children educational fund					
Development	The rewards and opportunities provided to employees by employers to advance their skills, competencies, responsibilities, and contributions				
My organisation provides	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Career or personal development plan					
Training and development opportunities					
Mentorship/Coaching					
Recognition	Formal or informal programs to thank, validate, recognise and celebrate employee contributions				
My organisation provides	**(1) Strongly disagree**	**(2) Disagree**	**(3) Neither agree nor disagree**	**(4) Agree**	**(5) Strongly agree**
Formal recognition					
Informal recognition					

Appendix 2: Data Transformation

Demographic data transformations

Age		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25–35 years	72	50.3	50.3	50.3
	36–45 years	56	39.2	39.2	89.5
	46–55 years	12	8.4	8.4	97.9
	56+ years	3	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

Age_rec		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	72	50.3	50.3	50.3
	2.00	56	39.2	39.2	89.5
	3.00	15	10.5	10.5	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

Levelofeducation		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Diploma/Degree	68	47.6	47.6	47.6
	Grade 12	40	28.0	28.0	75.5
	Other	9	6.3	6.3	81.8
	Postgraduate degree	26	18.2	18.2	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

Edu_rec		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	40	28.0	29.9	29.9
	2.00	68	47.6	50.7	80.6
	3.00	26	18.2	19.4	100.0
	Total	**134**	**93.7**	**100.0**	
Missing	System	9	6.3		
Total		143	100.0		

Function		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Team Leader	23	16.1	16.1	16.1
	Team Member	120	83.9	83.9	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

FunctionRec		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	23	16.1	16.1	16.1
	2.00	120	83.9	83.9	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

Tenure Lengthoftimeworkedatcurrentcompany				
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 year – less than 2 years	20	14.0	14.0	14.0
	10+ years	34	23.8	23.8	37.8
	2 years – less than 5 years	33	23.1	23.1	60.8
	5 years – less than 10 years	40	28.0	28.0	88.8
	Less than 1 year	16	11.2	11.2	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

Tenure_rec				
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	16	11.2	11.2	11.2
	2.00	20	14.0	14.0	25.2
	3.00	33	23.1	23.1	48.3
	4.00	40	28.0	28.0	76.2
	5.00	34	23.8	23.8	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

JobFamily				
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Customer Service	4	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Engineering	11	7.7	7.7	10.5
	Finance	7	4.9	4.9	15.4
	Human Resources	1	0.7	0.7	16.1
	Logistics	2	1.4	1.4	17.5
	Marketing	13	9.1	9.1	26.6
	Other	5	3.5	3.5	30.1
	Repair	4	2.8	2.8	32.9
	Sales	96	67.1	67.1	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

JobFamily_rec				
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	96	67.1	67.1	67.1
	2.00	23	16.1	16.1	83.2
	3.00	11	7.7	7.7	90.9
	4.00	13	9.1	9.1	100.0
	Total	143	100.0	100.0	

FinancialRewards1

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis *n*
Compensation_1	4.1364	0.78819	143
Benefits_1	4.5035	0.75091	143

NonFinancial Rewards1

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis *n*
Wellbeing_1	4.2150	0.82362	143
Development_1	4.3846	0.84966	143
Recognition_1	4.1294	0.91103	143

Appendix 3: Ethical Clearance

Ethical Clearance Approved
1 message

Masters Research <MastersResearch@gibs.co.za>
To: "28259280@mygibs.co.za" <28259280@mygibs.co.za>
Cc: Masters Research <MastersResearch@gibs.co.za>

**Gordon Institute
of Business Science**
University of Pretoria

Ethical Clearance
Approved

Dear Nicola Gillespie,

Please be advised that your application for Ethical Clearance has been approved.

You are therefore allowed to continue collecting your data.

We wish you everything of the best for the rest of the project.

Ethical Clearance Form

Kind Regards

This email has been sent from an unmonitored email account. If you have any comments or concerns, please contact the GIBS Research Admin team.