THE INFLUENCE OF MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR ON WORK MOTIVATION WITHIN A FINANCIAL SERVICES INSTITUTION

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree

MAGISTER COMMERCII
(Industrial Psychology)

in the

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Supervisor: S.M. O'Neil

PRETORIA   **NOVEMBER 2014**

DECLARATION

I, Clarice Fransa Erasmus, declare that Management Behaviour on Work Motivation within a Financial Services Institution is my own unaided work both in content and execution. All the resources I used in this study are cited and referred to in the reference list by means of a comprehensive referencing system. Apart from the normal guidance from my study leaders, I have received no assistance, except as stated in the acknowledgements.

I declare that the content of this thesis has never been used before for any qualification at any tertiary institution.

I, Clarice Fransa Erasmus, declare that the language in this thesis was edited by Teresa Kapp.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the influence of management behaviour on work motivation within a financial services institution in South Africa. The highly competitive business environment is forcing organisations to improve their management practices in the hope of improving work motivation. It is evident that the way in which management behaves towards employees plays a crucial role in determining whether employees are motivated to deliver acceptable or, preferably, work of outstanding quality. Management practices that encourage, promote, and provide sound management behaviour contribute to positive work motivation, which ultimately enhances organisational performance (Darby & Wysocki, 2007; Lepak & Hong, 2009; Ozcelik, Langton, & Aldrich, 2008).

This study used the raw data from an ad hoc employee satisfaction survey conducted by a large financial services institution in South Africa. The data were not collected specifically for this study; therefore secondary data were used. Owing to the nature of the research questions, a quantitative approach was followed.

The aim of the study is to firstly determine employees' perception of what "good management practices are" within a financial services institution in South Africa. Secondly, to investigate the influence of management behaviour on work motivation of employees, and thirdly, to rank the controllable factors in management behaviour in order of importance based on the effect it has on work motivation.

Data analysis in the form of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and regression analysis were conducted and the results were compared to current management literature in order to generate sound recommendations to improve management practices. The results revealed seven crucial management behaviours that can be applied to drive employee work motivation. Previous research confirmed the importance of effective management and the impact on management behaviour on work activities (Keller, 2008). However, no previous research ranked these management behaviours in order of importance based on the effect it has on work motivation. This study can assist management in developing and implementing management practices that will deliver maximum results in terms of work motivation and, ultimately, performance.

CHAPTER 1:INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study will focus on management behaviour within a financial services institution, and the influence that these behaviours have on work motivation of employees. Management behaviour and work motivation will be explored, in order to improve management practices and, ultimately, increase employee work motivation. Past work motivation and management behaviour studies will be examined in the literature review. This study will use the raw data from an ad hoc employee satisfaction survey conducted by a large financial services institution in South Africa. A quantitative research approach will be followed in order to solve the research problems of the study, and to provide management with greater insight to increasing work motivation.

1.2 BACKGROUND

Within financial services institutions, 50% to 70 % of employees' perception of work motivation is linked to the characteristics and behaviour of management (Islam & Ismail, 2008). It is difficult to argue with the myriad knowledge, supported by first-hand proof, that motivated staff means improved individual and corporate performance. Cho and Ringquist (2010) stated that effective management behaviour is conceivably the greatest factor contributing to improved employee and organisational performance, while Brown and Gregan (2008) postulated positive management behaviour as the explanation for employee commitment and drive, and provided convincing empirical support. It is evident that the way in which management behaves towards employees plays a crucial role in determining whether employees are motivated to deliver acceptable or, preferably, work of outstanding quality. Management practices that encourage, promote, and provide sound management behaviour contribute to positive work motivation, which ultimately enhances organisational performance (Darby & Wysocki, 2007; Lepak & Hong, 2009; Ozcelik, Langton, & Aldrich, 2008).

The two aspects on which this study will focus are management behaviour and work motivation of employees. Management behaviour can be defined as the actions and conscious inactions imposed by management to control and modify the actions and performance of employees (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). Work motivation can be defined as powerful forces that stem from within a person, as well as from external factors, that initiate on-the-job behaviour, and which can be monitored by looking at its impact and duration (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Therefore, motivation can be viewed as an emotional process stemming from the relationship between the employee and the workplace.

Staff members going beyond their duties and performing at their best, in most instances, according to Brown and Gregan (2008) are determined by three factors: skill, the workplace environment, and motivation. If an employee lacks skill, the necessary training can be implemented. If the workplace environment is not ideal, changing the environment by implementing new initiatives is crucial. However, if motivation is the issue, the answer is not that simple. Motivating people to do their best work, even in trying circumstances, is one of managers' most daunting challenges (Brown & Gregan 2008).

The present study will focus on determining which management behaviours are critical, and how these behaviours can improve current management practices, in the hope of enhancing work motivation.

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

The highly competitive business environment is forcing organisations to improve their management practices in the hope of improving work motivation. While research has been done on management behaviour and work motivation (Darby & Wysocki, 2007; Langton & Aldrich, 2008; Lepak & Hong, 2009), many of these studies were narrow in scope. Most of them focused on the link between management and motivation, without actively addressing management practices. The literature on management behaviour focuses on general behaviours of managers and the effects thereof on work motivation (Brown & Gregan, 2008). It fails to rank the behaviours according to importance, based on the effect it has on work motivation. The present study will focus on the need that exists to determine which management behaviours are more important than others, and to

ultimately show how to promote and implement these specific behaviours according to importance, in order to improve management practices and enhance work motivation.

1.4 PURPOSE STATEMENT

In light of the problem statement, this study will firstly determine employees' perception of what good management practices are within a financial services institution in South Africa. Secondly, it will investigate the influence of management behaviour on work motivation, and, thirdly, it will rank the controllable factors in management behaviour in order of importance based on the effect it has on work motivation. The information obtained from these analyses will then be compared to current management practices described in the current management literature, in order to generate sound recommendations to improve management behaviour, which will ultimately have a positive impact on work motivation.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following objectives were formulated in order to answer the research questions posed as needs in the problem statement.

- Determine employees' perception of good management practices within a financial service institution; and
- Investigate the influence of management behaviour on work motivation within a financial services institution.
- Rank the controllable factors in management behaviour in order of importance based on the effect it has on work motivation.

1.6 ACADEMIC VALUE AND INTENDED CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

As mentioned in the background section, management behaviour and its effect on work motivation has become crucial in today's global business environment (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Highly motivated staff is of the utmost importance if an organisation wants to remain competitive in today's fierce business environment (Kerr, Phillips & Thomas, 2009;

Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Research shows that highly motivated employees are more prone to delivering a high level of performance. Therefore, it is vital that organisations implement effective management practices that encourage such behaviour. The present study will uncover the behaviours that have an influence on work motivation, and provide practitioners with sound recommendations and insight into improving management practices.

Furthermore, this study will pay specific attention to factors that are within the control of management. External factors, outside the control of management, such as conditions of particular industries, financial aspects, authority to implement changes, company politics, the economy, and other, uncontrollable factors are not dealt with in this study, as this study will focus solely on behaviours and conscious inactions that management can regulate.

So far as could be determined, databases such as SABINET, Proquest, Google Scholar, and EbscoHost contain no previous academic studies on ranking critical management behaviours in order of importance, or the effects thereof on work motivation. Management behaviours such as employee engagement, employee empowerment, employee involvement, effective communication, and fairness towards employees have been thoroughly investigated, and are known to positively impact on employee commitment and work motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Groysberg & Lee, 2008; Knapp, 2006). Although numerous researchers have studied the influence of management behaviour on work motivation (Ghoshal, 2005; Knapp, 2006; Salamon & Robinson, 2008), the present study will rank the controllable factors relating to management behaviour in order of importance, which will assist organisations in improving their current management practices by focusing on the crucial management behaviours that positively influence work motivation.

This study will deliver results from a large sample that represents a diverse workforce within the South African context. The results will enable practitioners to improve current management practices in the pursuit of addressing the needs and concerns of the diverse South African workforce.

1.7   DELIMITATIONS

This study will focus exclusively on the financial services industry. Data was gathered from a large organisation in Gauteng, South Africa, consisting of a variety of office environments. The data were gathered from both permanent and contract employees, and all employees were given the opportunity to participate in the survey. The study will therefore focus on employees from all biographical groups, organisational levels, and occupational categories.

Data obtained through a cross-sectional employee satisfaction survey will be used in this study. Due to the nature of the data and the research questions to be answered, a quantitative approach will be followed to investigate the influence of management behaviour on work motivation. Information regarding the data collection, the sample, measurement, and the different analyses used will be shared. In order to answer the research objectives outlined in Section 1.5, three types of analysis will be used. Descriptive statistics will be used to determine the employees' perceptions of good management practices. A Pearson correlation analysis will be utilised to determine the co-variation of management behaviour and work motivation. Lastly, multiple regression analysis will be used to rank the importance of the management behaviours within a financial services institution. This study will conclude with a discussion of research ethics, and the way in which it was applied to ensure that the study complied with all applicable rules and regulations.

1.8   **KEY DEFINITIONS**

The key concepts in this study are management behaviour and work motivation. For the purpose of this study, these concepts are defined as follows:

Management behaviour: Management behaviour is the behaviours displayed by managers towards subordinates, which directly influence the subordinates' willingness to perform, improve, and participate in the work context (Meyer & Maltin, 2010).

Work motivation: Work motivation is the cognitive and affective processes shaping how personal determinations and resources are assigned to actions affecting work roles (Van Knippenberg, 2000).

Table 1:

Abbreviations Used in this Document

Abbreviation	Meaning
SDT	Self-determination theory
CET	Cognitive evaluation theory
SPSS	Statistical Program for the Social Sciences
POS	Perceived organisational support
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
MPS	Motivating potential score

1.9   CONCLUSION

In the next chapter, several management behaviours are discussed — behaviours that inspire work motivation and encourage employees to go beyond the call of duty. Management behaviours such as trust, empowerment, involvement, information–sharing, and caring will be discussed. A comprehensive discussion of work motivation and its underlying theories follows. Self-determination theory and job characteristics theory are most applicable to the present study, and are discussed in detail. Thereafter, a methodology section follows, where information regarding the questionnaire, the use of the data, and analyses utilised is shared. This is followed by a detailed discussion of the results of the analyses. The final chapter offers recommendations relating to each research objective, in order to guide management in developing better management practices.

CHAPTER 2: MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by broadly defining management behaviour. Furthermore, it highlights the main duties managers have to fulfil in an organisation. A discussion on various management behaviours that positively impact on work motivation follows.   These behaviours are displayed by managers to create a positive mind-set among employees, and to increase their performance by increasing their work motivation. Behaviours such as building trust, empowerment, involvement, information–sharing, and caring are discussed in detail.

2.2   MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR

Management can be defined as the process of leading and directing all or part of an organisation through the positioning and manipulation of resources (Moats, Chermack, & Dooley, 2008). A more comprehensive definition by Zatzick and Iverson (2006) states that management is an organisational process that comprises strategic planning, managing resources, setting objectives, and organising the human and financial assets desired to achieve objectives, and then determining outcomes. Ghoshal (2005) defined management to be the guidance and control of action essential for the execution of a programme.

The simplest understanding of management within the context of the study is that management delivers four functions, namely planning, leading, organising, and controlling people within an organisation, with the aim of achieving a specific goal (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). It is clear that managers within an organisation play an extremely important role in motivating people, providing direction, and driving the organisation and its people to reach its goals.   It therefore stands to reason that the behaviour of managers, specifically towards employees, has a massive impact on the organisation.   In their definition of management behaviour, Gentry and Shanock (2008) stated that these behaviours not only define the characteristics that describe the management setting in an organisation, but also those that which distinguish it from other organisations.   The authors stated that

management behaviour influences the behaviour of people in the organisation. Meyer and Maltin (2010) elaborated on how management behaviour influences subordinates' behaviour by postulating that it directly influences subordinates' willingness to perform, improve, and participate in the work context. Kuenzi and Schminke (2009) argued that management behaviour is the climate that managers establish, which will determine whether managers are able to energise, manage, and direct staff, in order to enable them to sustain optimal behaviour, and work performance.

The next section will highlight various positive management behaviours, and discuss previous research done on same.

2.3 POSITIVE MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOURS

This chapter highlights some of the critical management behaviours that positively impact on work motivation, in order to guide management in improving their current management practices.

The main purpose of the study is to determine the management behaviours that increase work motivation. Previous studies have shown that positive management behaviours, such as building trust, empowering employees, involving employees, and building a caring relationship, to mention a few, increase work motivation (Cho & Ringquist, 2010; Mayseless & Popper, 2007; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). Conversely, negative management behaviours such as overpowering employees, favouritism, unfairness, and lack of involvement decrease work motivation (Burton & Dunn, 2005; Mayseless & Popper, 2007; Simons, 2002). The aim of the present study is to provide guidelines that may increase work motivation; therefore, only positive management behaviours are included in this study.

Positive management behaviours such as building trust, empowering employees, involving employees, sharing information, and building a caring relationship are highlighted in the next section.

2.3.1   BUILDING TRUST

Beginning in the 1950s, researchers recognised the significance of trust as a requirement for individual, supervisory, and organisational success (Knippenberg, 2004). Over time, academics realised that trust had a positive impact on the employee-manager relationship, which led to greater individual results, improved problem-solving methods, job satisfaction, and teamwork (Salamon & Robinson, 2008). Today, trust has resurfaced as organisations, particularly managers, attempt to enhance work motivation, promote employee participation, and increase knowledge-sharing amongst employees (Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009).

Although recognised by researchers and practitioners as critical for organisational success, the subject of trust is still considered a vague and complex factor (Gill, 2008). In general, experts agree that trust between manager and employee is dynamic, communication-based, multidimensional, and not sufficiently understood (Cho & Ringquist, 2010, Grant & Sumanth, 2009). Even so, one definitional trend appears to exist. In more recent studies, definitions of trust have shifted from creating goals to focusing on behavioural orientations (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001). Willemyns, Gallois, and Callan (2003), defined trust as one person's optimistic expectation of another's behaviour when that person is exposed and vulnerable. Schoorman, Meyer, and Davis (2007) described trust as one's belief that another person will display certain actions, knowing the importance of the actions to the trustee, irrespective of the ability to control the other person. Gill (2008) described trust as confident, optimistic expectations concerning another's behaviour, whereas distrust results in negative expectations of another's behaviour. In general, these definitions propose that behavioural expectations, ambiguity, and dependency underlie perceptions of trust. In the present study, trust is regarded as optimistic expectations by employees of the behaviour of managers, based on the managers' relationships with their employees, their capabilities, and their involvement with employees.

According to Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, and Werner (1998), management behaviour has a vital influence on the development of trust in relationships between employees and managers. They defined trustworthy behaviour as ideal actions displayed by managers, and the forming of meaningful relationships that are adequate to ensure an abundance of

trust in management. Such behaviour is seen in situations where management inspires, encourages, and forms meaningful relations with employees by displaying trustworthy behaviour as a form of social reward (Salamon & Robinson, 2008). Managers who encourage and display trustworthy behaviour will increase the likelihood of employees trusting them, establishing an important but inadequate framework for employees to trust in management.

Employees' perceptions of managerial trustworthiness are influenced by five different factors. The five factors are: behavioural consistency, behavioural integrity, sharing and delegating control, communication, and demonstrating concern (Matzler & Renzi, 2007).

2.3.1.1   Behavioural consistency

Behavioural consistency is a vital characteristic of trust, with trust being a person's preparedness to be open to another person's actions and the willingness to take that chance. If managers can prove that their behaviour is consistent over time and in diverse situations, employees will willingly create positive expectations of future behaviour, and their trust in managers will slowly improve. In time, employees become more comfortable in their relationship with their managers, to a point where they start initiating ideas and taking risks. In summary, positive behaviours strengthen the level of trust between employees and their manager (Salamoth & Robinson, 2008).

2.3.1.2   Behavioural integrity

Employees focus on the consistency of what managers say and do, and, based on that, draw conclusions about their integrity, morality, and ethical character (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005). Deci and Ryan (2000) postulated two behaviours that are core antecedents to ascription of integrity; that is, attributes that impact on employees' trust in their managers. The two behaviours are: speaking the truth and delivering on promises. Even though similarities exist between behavioural consistency and behavioural integrity, they are indeed different dimensions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Both dimensions reveal a steadiness that lessens employees' apparent risk in trusting management. Behavioural consistency relates to the expectedness of managers' actions, founded on their previous actions,

whereas behavioural integrity relates to the steadiness between what the manager promises and what he delivers (Proctor & Doukakis, 2003).

2.3.1.3   Sharing and delegating control

Previous studies done on trust perceptions have shown that involvement in decision-making, sharing power, and increasing accountability are crucial factors relating to trustworthy behaviour (Schrooman et al., 2007). Managers vary in the degree that they allow employees to be involved in decision-making. Some may allow very little input from employees, whereas others empower employees to take full control. The level to which managers allow their staff to be involved in decision-making influences the strength of the trust between them (Holste & Fields, 2010).

Gill (2008) reported that employees are more likely to trust managers if they are content with the level of control they have in decision-making.   Trust is also greater when employees can monitor and control their own work.   When employees are more empowered to make decisions that ultimately affect them, their personal well-being also improves.   Delegating power and control enhances a positive outcome for staff, and minimises unfair advantage to management.   The symbolic value of sharing and delegating control is even more important to employees than the trust that automatically comes with it; employees value the opportunity to voice their opinion and to contribute to organisational success (Pembroke, 2008).   Sharing and delegating control are social rewards that can be seen as respect that the manager shows the staff member.   This reward indicates a start or increase of exchange of social benefits amongst a manager and a subordinate. The subordinate's trust in the manager is expected to rise, especially when the subordinate starts experiencing positive outcomes as a result of the trust invested in the manager (Gill, 2008).

2.3.1.4   Communication

Holste and Fields (2010) identified three elements that affect perceptions of trustworthiness.   These are: accurate information, clarification of choices, and honesty. Numerous studies (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Proctor & Doukakis, 2003) have yielded accurate information on the most important factor regarding trust, when compared to other

elements. Managers are seen as trustworthy when they are honest and willing to assist (Proctor & Doukakis, 2003). Furthermore, a detailed clarification of why certain decisions are made and implemented leads to improved trust relationships. Managers who make time available to provide feedback to staff and have an open-door policy are expected to be perceived as trustworthy (Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). As a final point, a forum for open and honest communication, in which all parties are free to share views and opinions, enhances perceptions of trust (Salamon & Robinson, 2008).

2.3.1.5   Demonstrating concern

To express caring for the well-being of other people forms part of trustworthy behaviour, and can be expressed in three ways: showing respect for employees' interests, looking after employees' well-being, and not being selfish in attaining one's personal goals and interests (Tinline & Crowe, 2010). If managers can sincerely carry out these actions, employees may see them as loyal and compassionate. Managers can enhance trust by demonstrating concern for employees' wants and their well-being, by respecting their rights, and by expressing regret for unpleasantness. Managers showing concern indicate that they support their staff, and that they consider employee needs instead of focusing on their own, opportunistic intentions. Such caring and concerned behaviour signifies a connection between an employee and a manager (Proctor & Doukakis, 2003). To conclude, this element reflects behavioural restraint, i.e. managers who have the opportunity to misuse employees' good intentions, but choose not to behave opportunistically (Grant & Sumanth, 2009). Examples of opportunistic behaviour are managers manipulating employees by using employees' work and presenting it as their own to receive the credit, or playing on an employee's feelings by using personal or private information that exposes and embarrasses an employee. Managerial restraint is not always noticed, and an employee may not be aware of it; however, when managers go out of their way to prove to their employee that they are not mistreating and misusing them, employees are likely to see their managers as trustworthy (Gill, 2008).

Grant and Sumanth (2009) moved away from the behaviours that instil trust, as discussed in the previous section. They investigated the effect of interpersonal trust on perceived organisational outcomes. Their study focused on the precursors of trustworthiness, rather than trust per se. They focused on three aspects of trustworthiness: the integrity,

competence, and benevolence of managers. Their study demonstrated a strong link between the trustworthiness of managers and organisational outcomes. Cho and Ringquist (2010) did a similar study, and also stipulated the three aspects of trustworthiness, but added that, when employees see their managers as trustworthy, they will recognise their work to being higher in task significance. When employees perceive their managers as trustworthy, employees will have more confidence and faith in the actions and intentions of their managers. In this regard, Gill (2008) stated that employees who trust their managers have greater assurance that the communication that takes place between the two parties, concerning the employees work is genuine, honest, and sincere.

Gruman and Saks (2011) focused not only on trust in the manager, they also placed emphasis on trust in the subordinate, and that the intensions of both parties are more favourable when they trust in one another. The authors' studies focused on the employee-manager trust relationship, and the effect it has on work motivation, performance, and intention to resign. Brower, Schoorman, and Tan (2000) also brought to our attention the importance of trust in employee-manager dyads. When managers are trusted by employees, employees are likely to go the extra mile and be willing to build relationships with their managers (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). On the other hand, when managers trust their subordinates, the subordinates are expected to feel more empowered and that the manager is investing in their future (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). As a result, both employees and managers will be more committed to an exchange relationship (Brower et al., 2000; Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

To conclude, the relationship developed between employee and manager within a working context is vital. Pastoriza, Arino, and Ricart (2008) stated that trust between employee and manager creates a positive working environment, which leads to a sense of employee satisfaction, enhanced work motivation, and an increase in dedication and commitment to the organisation. Gill (2008) postulated that trust inspires compliant behaviour, decreases conflict, and creates positive perceptions of the manager, which, in turn, increase employee work motivation and job satisfaction, and enhance employee productivity.

2.3.2   EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

The origins of the theory on empowerment can be traced back to the Brazilian humanitarian and educator, Paulo Freire, who proposed a plan for liberating the oppressed through education (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Initially, empowerment was seen as a strategy in social and psychological development for the purpose of implementing community-based initiatives (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Empowerment has gained importance in several fields, such as the empowerment of women, community work, politics, and in managerial and social studies (Lincoln, Travers, Ackers, & Wilkinson, 2002). Although empowerment is mostly used in the field of community psychology, many management-related studies have shown the importance of empowerment.

Hong (2009) defined employee empowerment as a link between the emotional state of an employee and the empowering behaviour of the manager. According to Hong (2009), empowerment takes place when an organisation applies a high-involvement managerial system. In order to do so, Niehoff, Moorman, Blakely, and Fuller (2001) suggested giving employees the power to participate in decision-making processes, providing proper training for the employees, and allowing employees access to appropriate strategic information.

Many organisations have followed the path of implementing managerial approaches based on empowerment (Hong, 2009), with the hope of increasing motivation and productivity. Sweetman and Luthans (2010) emphasised that such outcomes are not automatic. For such results to be realised, managerial tactics have to foster feelings of empowerment amongst employees and, in the long run, encourage employee behaviour in the direction of expected outcomes. According to Shirom, Fried, and Cooper (2008), empowering managerial practices should encourage empowered behaviour. Boundrias et al. stated that empowered staff will automatically realise the importance of their work, feel skilled and experienced enough to do their work, and believe that their opinions and decisions contribute to the success of the company.

According to Ergeneli, Ari, and Metin (2007), the implementation of empowerment can stem from a relational approach or an employee perception approach. The relational approach focuses on the environmental factors, and defines empowerment as behaviours and actions expressed by managers that allow employees to take control and be involved

in decision-making (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). This approach emphasises that power is shared between employees and managers, and that managers should invest in people who normally hold less power in the organisation (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Managers who implement a relational approach encourage employees to be involved in problem-solving sessions, and to participate at all levels of organisational-decision making (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In order to facilitate this approach, managers must create a positive environment, notice and appreciate employee participation, encourage independence, enforce accountability, and, lastly, build on achievement (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). In the relational approach, the benefits of empowerment are: helping employees reach their full potential, offering optimum solutions by involving employees in decision-making processes, and increasing job satisfaction (Ergeneli et al, 2007). Another way of implementing empowerment stems from employees perceptions. This approach focuses on psychological empowerment, and whether or not employees view themselves as empowered (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Followers of this approach believe that empowerment depends on the psychological state of the employee. If employees fail to deliver a certain task after being granted the power to do so, they either feel that they are not skilled enough, or they were not fully aware that they were empowered to take the necessary actions. In such a case, empowerment is a psychological variable that forms part of an employee's self-perception (Ghoshal, 2005).

The present-day literature speaks of this approach as the cognitive or motivational approach (Ergeneli, Ari, & Metin, 2007). The motivational approach stresses clear and well-established communication, emotional upkeep to reduce strain and anxiety, and providing stimulating challenges to improve trustworthiness and involvement, instead of the transmission of power.

Hong (2009) stated that a strong relationship exists between employees' direct manager and the employees' overall perception of their psychological empowerment. Due to the strong relationship between manager and employee, trust becomes a crucial factor when implementing empowerment practices (Gruman & Saks, 2011; Laschinger, 2004). As stated by Ergeneli et al. (2007), trust improves communication, and offers effective problem-solving and freedom of choice. Consequently, trust allows employees to feel empowered. The results of the study by Ergeneli et al. (2007) pointed out that employees'

cognition-based trust in their direct managers offers psychological empowerment. As the manager becomes more comfortable with passing responsibility to the employee, overall psychological empowerment increases. Employees might come to a stage where they realise that their personal goals will only be attained with the assistance of their managers. Moreover, when employees trust their managers, they are eager to accept their help, which improves the relationship among the parties.

It is clear from the above discussion that, in order to benefit from managerial empowerment practices, managers must ensure that they pro-actively enforce a motivational environment through empowerment. Boudrias, Geodreau, Savoie, and Morin (2009) added to this by stating that management has the ability to inspire empowered behaviours if they can cultivate a positive mind-set among the employees with regard to their daily work and their involvement in the organisation.

2.3.3   EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

According to Richardson and Vandenberg (2005), managers are progressively pursuing ways to invest in their human resources, in order to gain a competitive advantage. One method for capitalising on human resources that has received tremendous attention is employee involvement. The Gallop Organisation, which studied employee involvement in 7 939 business units in 36 organisations, found that employee involvement had a positive effect on employee retention, customer satisfaction, productivity, and overall organisational success. Their study found that approximately two thirds of the organisations that scored above the median on employee involvement also scored above the median on performance, while only one third of organisations that scored below the median on employee involvement scored above the median on performance (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

Employee involvement has received a significant amount of interest from academics and scholars for many years. Employee involvement dates back to the 1950s, with some notable research conducted in Europe and the USA. From the early stages of 'industrial democracy' and 'participative management,' employee involvement has grown into an integrated approach that gives employees decision-making power (Sutherland & Jordaan,

2004; Sweetman & Luthans, 2010).   Richardson and Vandenberg (2005) stated that employee involvement occurs when employees at all levels of an organisation are given the opportunity to be involved in decision-making, are equipped with the right tools to ensure proficiency, and are rewarded accordingly.   Chebat and Kollias (2000) defined employee involvement as a desirable condition that has an organisational purpose, and encourages commitment, energy, and effort from employees.

Cox, Zagelmeyer, and Marchington (2006) suggested that a participative work climate exists when the behaviours of management support this culture, and when they encourage and boost employee involvement. Sweetman and Luthans (2010) argued that managers must equip their employees with the skills and resources they require to make informed judgments and act on these efficiently.   He argued that effective employee involvement entails management behaviour that allows a distribution of power, sharing information, incentive rewards, and equipping employees with the skills and understanding they need to make informed decisions.   He further claimed that, in order for employees to feel involved, they need to feel that they are in control of their work.   Employees should receive constructive feedback relating to their performance, and be appraised and rewarded for that performance.   According to Brown and Gregan (2008), employee perceptions of their involvement are good predictors of job satisfaction and performance.   Knippenberg (2004) stated that a climate of participative decision-making will offer employees an increase in responsibility and autonomy, so that they can organise and perform their jobs to the best of their abilities.   According to these statements, employee involvement is a recognisable behaviour that can be demonstrated by management, who possesses the power to positively influence work motivation.

Employee involvement has three interconnected components: a cognitive, an emotional, and a behavioural aspect (Wilkinson, Dundon, & Grugulis, 2007). The cognitive aspect of employee involvement has to do with the employee's perception of the company, the management team, and the workplace. The emotional aspect refers to the feelings that employees experience, whether they have positive or negative feelings towards management and the company. The behavioural aspect of employee involvement is the valuable contribution made to the organisation by engaged employees, measuring the effort they bring to their work in terms of intellect and liveliness, additional effort put in, and

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devotion to tasks and the organisation (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). Managers must ensure the satisfaction of all three components in order to achieve optimal work motivation.

Managers can also enhance optimal work motivation by identifying four interconnecting principles when creating a high-involvement environment (Harter et al., 2002). These principles are discussed in the section below, and are: providing employees with information, knowledge, power, and rewards.

2.3.3.1 Providing employees with information

Information is data that are correct and well-timed, detailed, and structured for a purpose, presented within a context that provides meaning, and can lead to better understanding and less hesitation (Meyer & Gagne, 2008). It is a manager's duty to inform subordinates on the quality and quantity of the company's finances, where the company is heading, and to provide customer-related feedback. Managers have to implement a high-involvement work system that offers employees a platform where they can access data that are specific to their business needs, without running the risk of exposing confidential matters, and ensure that the data are easy to interpret. Employees will add significantly to organisational success when managers ensure transparency within the company (Harter et al. 2002). Transparency is essential, as it enables employees to make the connection between their actions and organisational performance, thereby strengthening the cognitive facet of involvement.

2.3.3.2 Providing employees with knowledge

Knowledge, or employee aptitude, is different from information. Information is the data employees make use of when forming decisions and carrying out actions. Knowledge is facts, information, and expertise learned through experience or education. It is the practical or theoretical understanding of a matter (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). To improve employees' knowledge, managers must commit to training and development. It is critical to provide proper training in high-involvement organisations, since employees require the right amount of skills and knowledge to make sound decisions in the workplace (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009).

2.3.3.3 Provide employees with power

Power refers to employees having a say in decisions that influence their results and that impact on the quality of their work lives. Employee involvement is optimal when managers pass power to lower-level employees, who then have to take accountability for the outcome of their own decisions. Managers must create opportunities where employees have the power to develop and implement ideas for improving organisational performance (Tierney & Farmer, 2004). A manager must trust that the employee will use sound judgment when making decisions, and that the outcome will be just as beneficial as it would have been if the manager had made the decision. Employees need to feel a sense of belonging to an organisation; participative decision-making allows them to feel empowered and, in addition, feel part of something bigger.

2.3.3.4 Provide employees with rewards

The reward component means that managers must reward employees for going the extra mile, and for contributing to the overall success of the company. A main driver in a high-involvement setting is giving rewards for performance, as this motivates employees to share their knowledge and skills in the hope meeting company objectives (Harter et al., 2002).

In some recent studies, employee involvement is explained in terms of a motivation model. The motivational model highlights the effect that employee involvement has on organisational performance. Scholars suggests that management behaviour that results in employee involvement encourages positive employee attitudes, for instance, work motivation, which is likely to result in pro-social behaviour (Meyer & Gagne, 2008), work performance (Richardson & Vandenberg, 2005), customer satisfaction (Meyer & Maltin, 2010), ownership (Probst & Brubaker, 2001), and employee retention (Koys, 2001).

To summarise, managers allowing high levels of employee involvement by providing employees with the power to make meaningful alterations, offering relevant training and development to improve their skills, providing constructive feedback in terms of service delivery, and rewarding employees for excellent performance may result in a win-win situation for both the employee and the manager.

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2.3.4   EFFECTIVE INFORMATION-SHARING

A factor that links closely to a participative working environment is information-sharing. Many organisations believe that management is the custodian of information, and that they should have the power to choose whether or not the information should be passed on to employees (Brown and Gregan 2008). Managers often feel that they are more equipped and experienced than their subordinates, and therefore are more capable of making the right decisions. Chow and Chan (2008) disagreed, and said that management should be recognised for supporting information-sharing, as it encourages employees to identify with the organisation. Chebat and Kollias (2000) stated that information-sharing is respected and appreciated by subordinates, and is frequently backed by management, as it does not lessen the level of managerial power. Brown and Gregan (2008) stated that it is important for employees to be given the opportunity to express their feelings and opinions, regardless of the actual impact thereof, as it fulfils the need to have one's voice heard.

Thomas et al. (2009) identified two dimensions of information-sharing that are often raised in literature: the quality and the quantity of information. Quality of information refers to the value of the information in terms of suitability and accuracy; it can also be one of the main factors in establishing trust. In a practical sense, employees are likely to form a deeper level of trust in their managers when they believe that the information that they are receiving is accurate, useful, and on time (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

According to Thomas et al. (2009), quantity of information refers to whether employees believe that they received an adequate amount of information. Gill (2008) stated that a trust relationship develops when the flow of information is sufficient. Employees are more willing to rely on their managers and feel less vulnerable when they believe that the information received is sufficient. Carmeli, Gelbard, and Gefen (2010) argued that communication levels will be satisfactory when managers increase information and lessen uncertainty among employees.

Other than Thomas et al. (2009), who identified two different facets of information-sharing, Gill (2008) identified a construct called *relational co-ordination*. Relational co-ordination is

a construct developed to conceptually detect aspects of the relationship among two individuals or two groups. Relational co-ordination is a two-component process (Gill, 2008). First, a relationship is formed between a manager and a staff member; secondly, different levels of communication take place. Yoon and Suh (2003) stated that, if an employee and a manager work towards a common goal, and if communication takes place on a regular basis, their trust relationship, as well as productivity, increases. An important characteristic of relational co-ordination is that the manager is in control of the process, and leads the way in terms of setting the standard for communication between parties (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Employees will perceive their relationship with their manager to be valuable and meaningful when managers continuously prove to be open and trustworthy.

Relational co-ordination emphasises the managerial behaviours that provoke reactions from the employee. Should managers engage in behaviours that inspire mutual goals, knowledge, and shared respect, together with regular, well-timed communication with their employees, a strong relationship between manager and employee is likely to develop, which will result in higher work motivation and better performance (Simons & Roberson, 2003).

It can therefore be concluded that effective information-sharing by management will increase communication, build employee morale, improve productivity, and, overall, assist employees in understanding the reasons for management's decisions.

2.3.5   CARING BEHAVIOUR

Research has revealed that poor management is, in many cases, the cause of unsatisfied employees (Proctor & Doukakis, 2003). Therefore, broadening the knowledge and understanding of managerial caring would give researchers and managers the opportunity to understand and actively strengthen the caring relationship between employees and their managers. Although caring behaviour is predominantly found in nursing and educational backgrounds, some research has been conducted in the management domain. Perceived organisational support (POS) is the placeholder for such information, which sheds much light on the importance of caring behaviour within organisations (Rhoades & Eisenberger,

2002). POS can be defined as the extent to which employees perceive to be valued and taken care of in organisations. In other words, it results from what employees believe the organisation is doing willingly, by preference, to support and care for employees.

There is no universally accepted theory, model, or definition of caring. According to Salamon and Robinson (2008), caring is helping another person to grow. Caring is not a selfish act; instead, it is wanting the other party to grow and develop. The party who expresses the caring behaviour, at the same time, develops and grows by finding meaning in the process. Both parties have to show commitment and dedication, as these strengthen the perceived worth of one another. With such high expectations, responsibility follows, and meaningful relationships develop. Salamon and Robinson (2008) postulated that a person must be capable of caring for someone, and must be willing to except the same in return. The caregiver must behave consistently, and be reliable and approachable at all times.

Although no proper theory of managerial caring has been developed as yet, considerable evidence exists that links caring to positive organisational results (Deshpande, Joseph, & Shu, 2011; Grant & Sumanth, 2009 & Avey, Palanski, & Walumbwa, 2011). POS has been shown to increase commitment, enhance work motivation, and ultimately lead to improved performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) described organisational care as a formal structure of morals and principles established to look after employee well-being, to ensure employee satisfaction, and to value employee contributions. Organisational care can be linked to POS, increasing commitment, work motivation and performance.

Black and Deci (2000) identified eight behavioural dimensions of caring. The behavioural dimensions are: openness, analysis, responsiveness, confirmation, understanding, support, compassion, and dependability. Black and Deci (2000) also highlighted five patterns of caring: flow, reverse-flow, fragmented, self-contained, and barren. Flow takes place when managers filter caring to employees, and enable them to express caring behaviour towards others in the workplace. When employees do not return caring behaviours received by their managers, reverse-care takes place.

Burton and Dunn (2005) explained caring from a stakeholder theory, and focused specifically on the ethics of caring. Their theory focuses on the support, trust, interactions, and responsibility of management towards stakeholders other than the organisation. In other words, it is management's duty to take every single participant into consideration, and to support them as far as possible. Although this theory is not normally used in manager-employee caring relationships, Burton and Dunn highlighted the importance of managerial caring behaviour.

A meta-analysis of 70 empirical studies revealed that POS correlated with outcomes such as work motivation, dedication, employee well-being, and productivity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Past studies revealed a positive link between POS and fair treatment, adequate managerial support, involvement in decision–making, and job satisfaction (Mayseless & Popper, 2007).

Kroth and Keeler (2009) identified several caring themes. These themes are: recursiveness, inviting, advancing, capacitising, and connecting.

2.3.5.1 Recursiveness

Caring is a recursive process that includes give-and-take from all parties involved (Eisenberger, 2002). Kroth and Keeler (2009) describes caring as a cycle that starts with an emotional connection between the caregiver and the one cared for, which might result in welfare. Caring should be a mutual process where both manager and employee demonstrate caring behaviours and give each other the opportunity to respond over time. The manager and the employee must both be willing to care and be care for, in order for this process to continue.

2.3.5.2 Inviting

People who care tend to invite others to be part of a process, and inspire them to share information about themselves. It involves sincere listening and discernment (Aguinis, 2009), entering another's way of living (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), providing emotional support (Burton & Dunn, 2005), and being approachable and committed to

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others (Keller, 2008). It suggests that managers and employees should show openness and acceptance of one another by trying to understand and respect each other's way of thinking (Knippenberg, 2004).

2.3.5.3   Advancing

Aguinis (2009) referred to advancing as adding value to someone's life by motivating and stimulating that person. It is showing concern for the other person's success and wanting to enrich and enhance another person's growth, even to the extent of putting the needs of the other person first, and being prepared to do for another what you would do for yourself (Fuller, Meyer, & Serva, 2005).

2.3.5.4   Capacitising

Caring behaviour entails identifying potential in others, and helping them to learn and develop, with the aim of reaching their goals. Black and Deci (2000) postulated that caring is the desire to watch another person grow. It is believing in another person's abilities, and providing support where required (Knippenberg, 2004).

2.3.5.5   Emotional connection

Caring is more than supporting someone in their journey to success. It entails developing a deeper emotional connection with someone (Aguinis, 2009). Such a deep connection can develop that the caregiver empathises with the recipient of that care, and experiences the same feelings and emotions Black and Deci (2000). Such a relationship can occur in the workplace, where the manager and the employee reach a level of maturity where they depend on each other (Keller, 2008).

Kroth and Keeler (2009) defined managerial caring as a process in which a manager demonstrates engagement, involvement, and concerned behaviours toward a subordinate. Care-building, on the other hand, is continuous caring behaviour initiated by managers, which is shaped and nourished over time. The Recursive Model of Manager–Employee Caring, illustrates the discussion concerning caring themes, and describes the relationship in detail.

Organisational environment

Acts

(Responds)

Manager (Curator)

Invites employees – is approachable and available

Advances employees – expresses a desire to help an employee accomplish his/her goals

Capacitises employees – acknowledges employee potential and supports their growth

Connects with employees

Caring:
Relationship
Reciprocal
Grows/Dimensions

Employee (cared-for) behaviours

Responds to caring from managers

- Discards
- Overlooks
- Accepts
- Receives
- Revises office behaviour
 Determination, inspiration commitment etc.

Responds

(Acts)

Figure 1. Recursive Model of Manager–Employee Caring. **Source: Kroth and Keeler (2009).**

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The Recursive Model of Manager–Employee Caring, developed by Kroth and Keeler (2009), suggests that caring is a shared process. The responsibility lies with both the manager and the employee to facilitate the process. The manager invites, advances, capacitises, and connects with employees. Table 2 describes manager or 'curator' behaviours in each of these categories. Employees then either strengthen the caring cycle, or weaken it, by responding to management behaviour. Both manager and employee have the ability to care; this relationship gets stronger or weakens, based on the effort that goes into it (Mayseless & Popper, 2007). Environmental factors have an impact on each caring capacity; people are more willing to take the risk of investing in someone if the environment is welcoming and safe. People are hesitant and less willing to put in the effort if the environment is undesirable.

Table 2

Manager (Curator) Behaviours

Invites employees	**Capacitises** employees
Is approachable and available to employee needs	Acknowledges employee potential, and supports their growth
Is emotionally available	Informs employees
Pays attention	Facilitates problem-solving
Displays awareness of the employee	Gives constructive feedback
Accepts the employee	Inspires employees
Stay open to ideas, opportunities	Trusts employees
Understands	Coaches and mentors employees
Advances employees	
Expresses the desire to see an employee succeed	**Connects** with employees

| Sees to the goals and needs of an employee instead of own goals | Shares an emotional connection |
| | Develops relationships with shared goals |

Supports employees	and reciprocal trust
Dedicated to another's success	
Cares for employees	
Keeping an eye out for possible opportunities that could benefit employees	

The model suggests that managers can enforce behaviours that enhance caring relationships, which could have a positive impact on employees and the organisation. However, the role of the employee should not be underestimated, as the model is built on a reciprocal process. The model recommends that POS literature be developed further, and that managerial caring behaviours be aligned with anticipated employee outcomes such as work motivation, job satisfaction, increased performance, and employee well-being.

2.3.6   INSPIRING BEHAVIOUR

Employees are inclined to react positively towards managers who inspire them (Kroth & Keeler, 2009). According to Simons (2002) an inspiring manager is perceived by subordinates as acquainted with and sensitive to the problems at hand. Subordinate confidence is built when the above mentioned behaviours are displayed by management. Trust in the inspiring manager arises from the meaning the manager gives to needs and actions. Subordinates share with the manager common beliefs about what is right and wrong. A variety of behaviours or tactics can be used by managers to inspire employees; a few of these behaviours/tactics are discussed in the next section.

2.3.6.1   Role modelling

Social learning proposes that people's behaviour is influenced if they notice the behaviour of their role models. People determine what behaviours to display based on learning which behaviours are accepted and which behaviours are rejected in social settings (Simons, 2002). A role model is someone who possesses power, and who is perceived as credible and trustworthy. When these role models are perceived as authority figures, their influence is even more powerful when their behaviour in social settings is acceptable.

Managers naturally hold positions of influence in organisations, as their roles and responsibilities inherently include authority and power. Managers' behaviour is normally observed, accepted, and replicated by staff members who are inspired by their actions. According to the attachment theory, relational attachments are formed within the workplace (Tierney & Farmer, 2004). Relational attachments are emotional bonds that exist once an individual satisfies the need of another individual. Attachment theory, at first, focused only on the relationship between an adult and a child; however, later, it extended to adult relationships where one adult fulfils the needs of another. This bond also exists in organisations, where subordinates look to their managers to guide them and protect them when facing work-related challenges (Mayseless & Popper, 2007). Managers earn even more trust when they act in an ethical manner, and they consequently have more power to influence subordinates in a positive manner.

2.3.6.2   Supportive motivational behaviour

Self-determination, self-efficacy, and feelings of purpose, which describe intrinsic motivation, drive stewardship outcomes (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Managers inspire intrinsic motivation in subordinates by designing tasks that are meaningful, and by empowering and equipping staff to succeed. Motivational support brings out a person's self-assurance and effectiveness, as it creates a pro-active orientation (Avey et al., 2011). Such managers push their followers to be more confident and assured, and inspire them to use their skills to deliver job-related tasks (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). These managers encourage self-determination, which evokes a sense of urgency and accountability within their subordinates. Employees then experience feelings of independence, and take responsibility for the outcomes of their actions (Burton & Dunn, 2005).

2.3.6.3   Building credibility

Credibility can be seen as an assessment of trustworthiness, or whether an individual is expected to provide information that is valuable and reliable (Simons, 2002). The constructs *trust* and *credibility* are frequently considered to be multidimensional (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The communicator's legitimacy, reliability, knowledge, and objectives are constantly compromised by the perceiver's assessment. Simons (2002) claimed that managers' credibility is crucial for establishing employee commitment and

enhancing work motivation. Simons stated that managers' words lose power if there is a lack of credibility, and that this leads to inefficiency. In this instance, new projects set out by managers are processed by employees as simply new assignments, and are not automatically converted into action. The degree to which employees are prepared to be influenced by their manager's words correlates with effective management and inspiration. Words and behaviour are perhaps a manager's most powerful tools for guiding and leading employees at all levels of the organisation. When credibility is lost, managers diminish that tool, and are required to make use of other actions to demonstrate that they truly mean what they say. Simons (2002) claimed that managers earn and enhance their credibility when they simply do what they say they will do, and behave in an acceptable way.

In conclusion, managers who offer motivational support to their subordinates, act as role models, and are seen as credible are more likely to inspire their subordinates and unlock higher levels of work motivation and performance.

2.3.7 CONCLUSION

The literature on management research, discussed above, holds that behaviours such as building trust, empowering employees, involving employees, and caring for employees influence managers' ability to develop effective dyadic relationships with their subordinates, which results in enhanced commitment, motivation, and performance. This chapter discussed a number of positive management behaviours, which all have a common outcome, namely enhanced work motivation. The conclusion was drawn that, if managers display positive management behaviours, employees' work motivation will increase, which will result in improved performance. Work motivation is discussed in the next chapter, in order to determine which of the management behaviours are more inclined to boost work motivation and overall performance.

CHAPTER 3: WORK MOTIVATION AND ITS RELATEDNESS TO MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR

3.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter two explained how various management behaviours such as trust, empowerment, involvement, and caring positively influence work motivation. In this chapter, work motivation is defined, and different work motivation theories are reviewed. In this study, the applicable theories of work motivation are: self-determination theory (SDT) and job characteristic theory. These theories, as well as their relevance to the study, are highlighted and discussed in this chapter.

3.2   DEFINING WORK MOTIVATION

Collier and Esteban (2007) described motivation as the energising force that induces action, in this case action by employees, and has its roots in personal and organisational goals. Bartol and Martin (2003) defined motivation as a power that drives behaviour, gives direction to behaviour, and underlies the tendency to persist. According to Vroom's (1964) definition of motivation, it can be seen as a process that dominates voluntary performance. In other words, a study of motivation must consider all the elements that provoke, direct, and sustain behaviour.

According to Kerh (2004), work motivation is not a trait of the individual or the organisation; it stems from the interaction between individuals and their work setting. Aguinis (2009) stated that work motivation is created by internal and external forces related to a person and the environment. Latham and Pinder (2005) described motivation in a work environment as an individual's level of willingness to exercise and uphold an effort towards achieving organisational objectives. According to Knippenberg (2004), work motivation can be seen as the cognitive and affective processes that shape the way in which personal determinations and resources are assigned to actions affecting work roles. Pareek (1974) defined work motivation as a great amount of energy that stems from the individual and the environment, aimed at work-related activities and the significant outcomes thereof.

Work motivation can be regarded as a set of psychological processes that influence the worker's distribution of personal resources towards specific objectives. All of the above definitions suggest that work motivation has a direct impact on both individuals and their organisations.

3.3   WORK MOTIVATION THEORIES

Managers have shown interest in the topic of work motivation for decades (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In today's competitive, global, and dynamic business world, managers have no choice but to invest in their employees, to inspire and motivate them to deliver their best performance. There are several theories regarding work motivation, and a great amount of empirical study has been done regarding these theories. These include: goal-setting theory; action regulation theory; Kanfer's task-specific motivation theory; job characteristics theory; needs and motives according to Maslow; Herzberg, Alderfer, and Kelman's theory of internalisation; identification theory, self-determination theory (STD); and cognitive evaluation theory (CET).

3.3.1   GOAL-SETTING THEORY

The field of work motivation has been significantly impacted by Locke and Latham's research (1990) on goal-setting theory. Locke et al. (1990) formulated an overall goal-setting theory of motivation by combining previous work done by Locke with facets of self-determination theory. They postulated that a individuals' goal depiction is the driver of their actions, and that individuals' performance will be optimal when they first sets detailed, stimulating goals that are attractive to them, and, second, if they comprehend what behaviours will result in achieving the goals, and feel competent to exhibit these behaviours. This is an example of a theory that does not distinguish between different types of motivation, but rather suggests that performance is determined by the characteristics of goals, such as the difficulty of the goal. Extensive empirical support has been recorded in the literature for the goal-setting theory (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Polit & Beck, 2004).

3.3.2 ACTION REGULATION THEORY

Scholars, mainly working in Germany, have, for the past few decades, focussed on utilising action theory to investigate motivation in work- and other environments. Largely based on the cybernetic approach, the focus of this theory is on the systems that ensure goal-directed behaviour. The theory highlights the importance of decision latitude, a term that the authors equate to autonomy. The basis of the theory is that broad decision latitude, which allows individuals to set their own goals, will ensure optimum performance, drive, and motivation. Chebat and Kollias (2000) argued that, increasing decision latitude enhances intrinsic motivation. Although the theory suggests that intrinsic motivation will be increased, it does not differentiate or quantify intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Frese (2001) suggested that control over one's actions, in conjunction with ideal task complexity, but controlling for intricacy, will increase performance.

3.3.3 KANFER'S TASK-SPECIFIC MOTIVATION

From his research, Kanfer (1989) developed a work motivation theory that falls in the same realm as action theory. Kanfer's theory aims to predict work performance by considering the interface between motivation and employees' dissimilarities in terms of their abilities.

The theory considers the distal and proximal cognitive resource allocation processes and their influence on motivation. Distal factors deal with mechanisms such as the value to the employee of executing the task, and the apparent importance of directing energy in order to ensure effective performance. When a task requires continued energy due to increased difficulty, proximal factors such as self-monitoring and self-motivation are important to ensure efficient performance and skill development. As in action theory, Kanfer considered motivation as a unitary concept that is regulated by distal and proximal factors. Kanfer's theory primarily focuses on the systems that ensure task commitment, increased performance, and skills development. Due to its unitary view of motivation, Kanfer's theory does not predict different forms of performance, and does not consider the emotional or welfare outcomes that accompany different forms of motivation and performance (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

3.3.4 JOB CHARACTERISTICS THEORY

Hackman and Oldham (1976) found in their research that work motivation can be increased through optimal job design. Their theory emphasises the importance of ensuring high internal work motivation that, in turn, increases autonomous motivation.

Their findings indicated that, to improve internal work motivation, a job should be designed to ensure that it offers diversity, the completion of an entire task, and should offer the incumbent the opportunity to make a positive impact on the lives of others. The job must also offer the employee optimal autonomy (similar to decision latitude in action theory), discretion, and valuable performance feedback. Research has found that the intensity of an individual's development needs has a moderating effect on the positive influence that job characteristics have on performance (Chebat & Kollias, 2000).

3.3.5 NEEDS AND MOTIVES: MASLOW, HERZBERG, AND ALDERFER

The motivation theories developed by Maslow, Herzberg, and Alderfer are considered some of the most prominent motivational theories in organisational behaviour literature. The theories developed by Maslow and Alderfer respectively focus on five categories and three categories of needs. The needs that they identified are structured into a hierarchy that moves from basic needs, such as physiological drives, to more advanced needs, such as the need for actualisation or development. Herzberg, on the other hand, focussed on two groups of motives: intrinsic or extrinsic satisfiers and intrinsic or extrinsic motivators, with the motivators being more advanced (Burton & Dunn, 2005).

3.3.6 KELMAN'S THEORY OF INTERNALISATION AND CONCEPT IDENTIFICATION

Kelman's research in 1958 led to the development of a differentiated motivation theory that focuses on internalisation or attitude change. He proposed that an employee's attitude-related actions can either be compliant and temporary, or can be influenced to become more permanent. The theory suggests that an employee will display motivated behaviour

if he/she is able to relate to others, or if the behaviour closely aligns to the employee's values. The theory focuses on the alignment and identification with other people, and proposes that, if an employee is able to identify with other employees, he/she will be motivated to exhibit and partake in all the behaviours displayed or approved by the other employees (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005).

3.3.7 SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

Self-determination theory (SDT) differentiates between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomy can be viewed as acting by expressing desire and having the opportunity to voice oneself. Philosophers such as Dworkin (1988) described autonomy as endorsing one's actions at the highest level of reflection. Intrinsic motivation is a form of autonomous motivation. When individuals participate in a task because they experience it as exhilarating, they are doing the task completely willingly; they work to complete the task because they enjoy it. In contrast, when controlled motivation is present, the individual is acting under pressure. Early research on SDT found that providing individuals with extrinsic rewards promotes controlled motivation. SDT is based on the assumption that autonomous and controlled motivation differ in terms of their primary regulatory methods and the experiences linked to them. SDT suggests that actions can be categorised based on the degree to which they are autonomous, as opposed to controlled. Autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional, and can be viewed as the opposite of amotivation, which can be defined as an absence of intention, drive, and motivation (Huitt, 2001).

3.3.8 COGNITIVE EVALUATION THEORY

Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) argues that external factors such as tangible rewards, targets, and assessments contribute to a decrease in autonomy, and change the perceived locus of causality from internal to external, which, in turn, has a negative effect on intrinsic motivation. In contrast, certain external aspects, such as permitting choices related to task engagement, have been found to increase autonomy, change the perceived locus of causality from external to internal, and, consequently, increase intrinsic motivation. CET also suggests that autonomy and feeling competent are prerequisites for

intrinsic motivation. Literature has shown that exciting and interesting tasks contribute greatly to intrinsic motivating (Burton & Dunn, 2005; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Studies have also been done that found that providing employees with constructive feedback enhances their feeling of competence, and increases their feeling of accountability, which leads to increased intrinsic motivation. Conversely, the findings of these studies also indicated that negative performance feedback decreases perceived competence, which undermines both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, causing employees to feel demotivated (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). CET is based on the assumption that individuals must feel autonomous and competent to be motivated; thus, social-contextual factors that enhance feelings of autonomy and competence will increase intrinsic motivation. Conversely, aspects that restrain autonomy and feelings of competence will lead to a decrease in intrinsic motivation, and cause individuals to feel controlled and demotivated (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Although the foci of the above mentioned theories differ, a common feature can be identified among them — most of these theories view motivation as a unitary concept. The focus is on the quantity of the motivation, rather than the type of motivation. According to Huitt (2001) the sum of an individual's motivation can be influenced by various aspects, but, when making predictions, a single variable serves as the basis for the predictions. Therefore, when making predictions, the main concern in most motivational theories is the total amount of motivation that an individual displays in the work environment, rather that the type of motivation shown.

In the present study, the emphasis is on two work motivation theories: self-determination theory and job characteristic theory. No particular work motivation theory was focused on during the developmental stages of the questionnaire used in this study. After careful consideration, the underlying factors defining self-determination theory and job characteristic theory highly correlated with the questions included in the questionnaire. Both SDT and job characteristic theory, together with their underlining factors and relevance to the study, are discussed in the section to follow.

3.4   SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

SDT is an empirically grounded theory of individual motivation, development, and well-being. The theory aims to determine the kind of motivation, as opposed to the quantity of motivation, by focussing on amotivation, and autonomous and controlled motivation. The type of motivation that is identified is used as a predictor for performance, affiliation, and wellness results. Furthermore, the theory puts forward that the kind of motivation and amount of motivation are influenced by the extent to which the essential needs for autonomy, competence, and affiliation are met. The theory also takes cognisance of the fact that social settings can contribute to improving or diminishing the types of motivation.

Initial research findings on which SDT was based can be traced back to the 1970s; however, it was only in the mid-1980s that we find a complete report on SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Although the starting point of SDT takes us back to the 70s, research only showed tremendous development in the last decade (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Lepak & Hong, 2009). Rudimentary research expanding motivational underpinnings has grown exponentially, and the bulk of SDT research has been published in literature related to sport, education, health care, and management (Williams et al., 1996; Meyer & Maltin, 2010).

SDT proposes a different approach to motivation. Instead of treating motivation as a unitary, undifferentiated concept, where the focus is on the total amount of motivation that an individual displays toward a specific action, SDT aims to differentiate between the types of motivation. The supposition is that the type of motivation displayed is more effective in predicting several critical outcomes, such as effective performance, employee wellness, psychological health, solving problems, and conceptual learning, than the overall quantity of motivation displayed (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009).

3.4.1 SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY AND WORK MOTIVATION

Numerous scholars (Burton & Dunn, 2005; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008) have supported the principles of cognitive evaluation theory, which considers the influence of extrinsic motivators on intrinsic motivation. Yet, Gagne and Deci (2005) claimed that the cognitive evaluation theory is too narrow in scope, and that the simple contradiction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation leads to difficulty in applying the

theory in the organisational environment. Consequently, classifying extrinsic motivation into categories based on the level of autonomy resulted in the development of SDT. Gagne and Deci (2005) classified SDT as a work motivation theory, and highlighted its value and importance to business managers and human resource practitioners alike.

Differentiating between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation is fundamental in self-determination theory. Autonomy is viewed as behaving willingly, and being able to make decisions independently. As described by the philosopher Dworkin (1988), autonomy means endorsing one's actions at the highest level of reflection. Intrinsic motivation can be seen as a form of autonomous motivation. An action is volitional when an individual decides to partake in an action, behaviour, or activity because it is experienced as being stimulating and exciting. In contrast, controlled motivation is when people feel that they have to engage in an activity as a result of pressure (Lepak & Hong, 2009). Autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional, and can be viewed as the opposite of amotivation, which can be defined as an absence of intention, drive, and motivation (Langton & Aldrich, 2008).

3.4.2   EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND THE AUTONOMY CONTINUUM

It has been established that intrinsically driven behaviour is enhanced if a person's interest in the task is autonomous. Nonetheless, fundamental to SDT is the proposal that extrinsic motivation can differ based on the quantity of autonomy, as opposed to control (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Abhorrent activities require extrinsic motivation, suggesting that early performance depends on the awareness of a relationship between the required activities and an expected reward. Behaviour driven by external contingencies reveals extrinsic motivation, and is characterised by controlled motivation. Employees motivated by external factors focus solely on gaining a required reward or avoiding punishment. These individuals are only driven to action when the action will lead to the desired reward. In this instance, an employee will only work when his manager is watching. In initial studies where extrinsic motivation was compared to intrinsic motivation, external regulation was the form of extrinsic motivation used by management (Langton & Aldrich, 2008).

When behavioural adjustment and the importance linked to it have been internalised, different types of extrinsic motivation occur. Internalisation can be described as the process during which an individual internalises principles, behaviours, positions, or regulatory structures to such an extent that external regulation is altered to internal regulation, and thus external regulation is no longer required to sustain the behaviour. In this instance, the employee will work even though the manager is not watching.

Theories of internalisation mainly view internalisation as a dichotomy, meaning that regulation has either been internalised by an individual or it is external to the individual. SDT, however, presents a controlled-to-autonomous continuum, which considers the degree to which an external regulation has been internalised (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The amount of internalisation is an important factor; as internalisation increases, the more autonomous the extrinsically motivated behaviour becomes. SDT associates three processes with internalisation, namely introjection, identification, and integration (Lepak & Hong, 2009).

Regulations being accepted by a person without that person being willing to take ownership thereof is known as introjection, and forms the foundation for introjected regulation. With introjected regulation, the regulation takes control of the person's actions (Meyer & Gagne, 2008). An individual who is forced to behave in a certain way in order to feel valuable, involved, and self-confident is an example of contingent self-esteem, which forms part of introjected regulation. What makes introjected regulation interesting is that, although the regulation is within the individual, it is still categorised as a somewhat controlled type of internalised extrinsic motivation (e.g., the employee works because it makes him/her feel like a commendable individual). Identified regulation, on the other hand, allows people to feel independent and less controlled, because the behaviour is more consistent with their own objectives and characters (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). People link the cause of their behaviour to an aspect of themselves. Because the behaviour is internally valued, the behaviour becomes autonomously motivated, even if the task is not considered intrinsically interesting. Integrated regulation comes the closest to full internalisation, as it permits extrinsic motivation to become truly autonomous. Integration entails identifying with other parts of oneself, for instance, other interests, standards, and values (Vallerand, Pelletier, & Koestner, 2008). Individuals

realising that actions or behaviours closely align with who they are, that these stem from their sense of self, and are therefore self-determined, can be seen as integrated regulation. When integration takes place, a person will act in a natural or expected manner, which could result in the person understanding the importance of completing tedious activities (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

The most advanced type of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation. Integrated regulation also has commonalities with the other form of autonomous motivation, which is intrinsic motivation (Lepak & Hong, 2009). It is, however, essential to bear in mind that integrated regulation is not a form of intrinsic motivation. With integration, the activity is being performed because it is important to the individual, for personal reasons, not because the individual experiences the activity as interesting. Therefore, the motivation remains extrinsic. In short, integrated extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation are classified as two different forms of autonomous motivation (identified extrinsic motivation is considered to be relatively autonomous). The SDT model of internalisation should not be considered a hierarchical theory where an individual is required to progress through all the phases and associated behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Instead, the theory refers to these types of regulation. The theory, in essence, aims to define the forms of regulation in order to quantify the degree to which an individual has integrated the regulation of one or more behaviours. The theory proposes that, when taking into account ideal settings, an individual can choose to either completely integrate a new regulation, or to integrate a current regulation that was previously only partially internalised (Vansteenkiste et al., 2010).

Figure 3.2, below, summarises the self-determination continuum proposed by SDT. The continuum starts at amotivation, which is characterised by a lack of self-determination, and gradually moves to intrinsic motivation, which is intrinsically self-determined. In the middle of this descriptive continuum lie four forms of extrinsic motivation. These four forms of motivation start with external regulation, which is seen as the most controlled (and therefore the least self-determined) type of extrinsic motivation, and is followed by introjected, identified, and integrated regulation respectively, each being increasingly more self-determined.

3.4.3   ASSESSING INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION
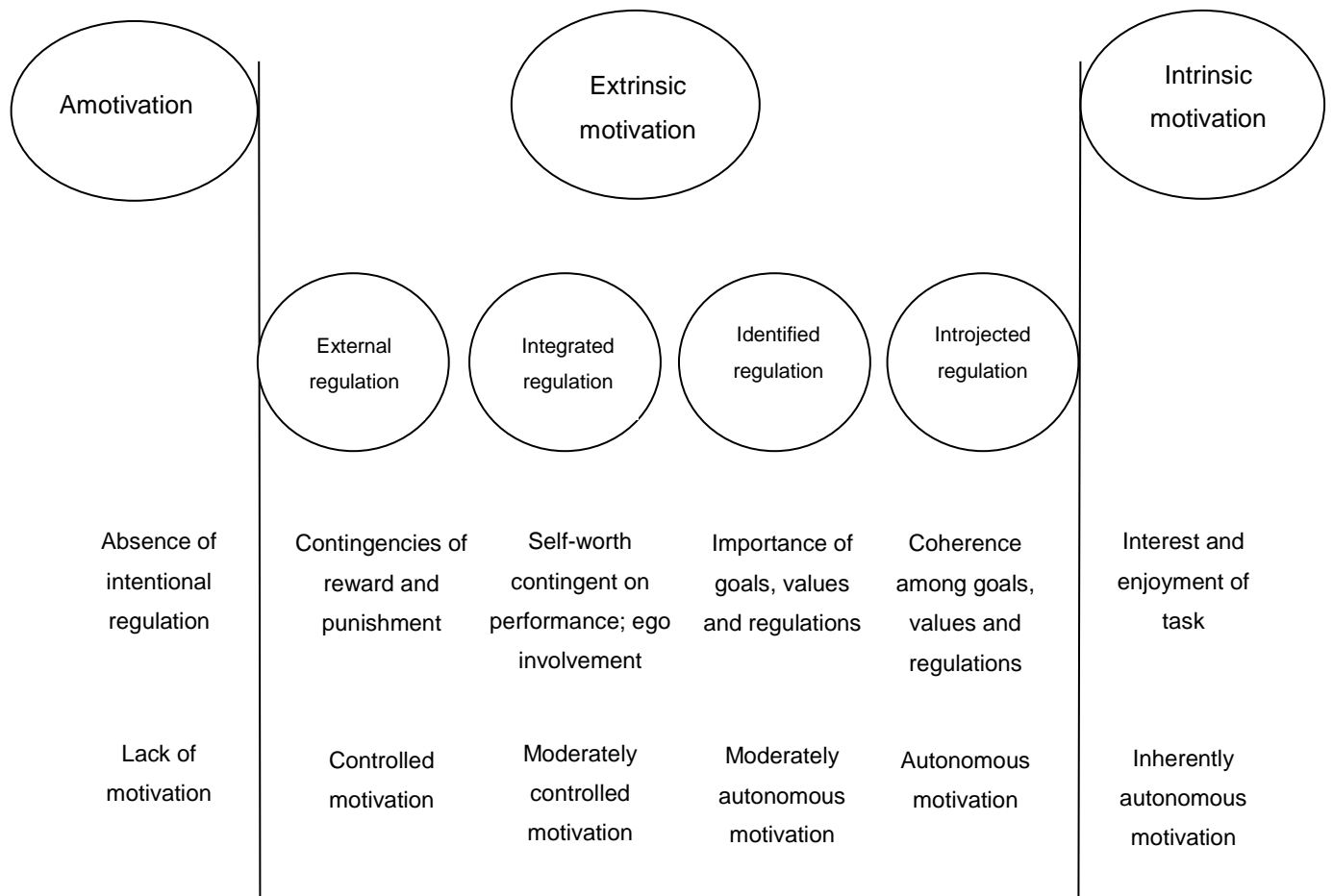
Figure 2.   Self-determination continuum. **<u>Source</u>: Deci and Ryan (2008).**

All forms of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation are characterised by different reasons for a behaviour, and the difference in these reasons forms the basis for measuring the various forms of motivation (Ryan & Connell, 1989). When intrinsic motivation is present, behaviour is driven by activities that are exciting, while behaviour in amotivation is without intent or reason (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Research in the fields of management (Meyer & Maltin, 2010), education (Williams, Deci, & Ryan, 1996), health care (Williams et al., 1996) and sports (Huang, Lun, Liu, & Gong, 2010) has investigated the assessment strategy proposed by SDT. The findings of these studies indicated that the SDT assessment strategy adheres to a quasi-simplex pattern, which means that each subscale correlates most positively with the subscales closest to it,

and less positively or more negatively with subscales further from it. This confirms SDT's claim of an underlying control-to-autonomy continuum. Consequently, the subscales can be utilised individually or in combination to predict outcomes or to compile a comparative autonomy index (Lepak & Hong, 2009).

3.4.4   BASIC PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS

In order to function effectively, the meta-theory that underpins SDT reveals that internalisation and intrinsic motivation should be natural processes that should be effectively supported. According to this theory, intrinsic motivation and internalisation can be supported through the fulfilment of basic psychological needs (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Research conducted by Meyer and Maltin (2010) revealed that intrinsic motivation is brought about by autonomy and competence, implying that, in order to sustain intrinsic motivation, employees need to experience feelings of competence and autonomy. By satisfying an individual's need for competence and autonomy, the optimal functioning of internalisation can be ensured. However, in addition to satisfying the basic need for competence and autonomy, a third basic need, namely the need for relatedness, has to be met in order for internalisation to operate efficiently. SDT, however, goes further by stating that, when a person's needs for competence and relatedness with regard to behaviour are met, internalisation and regulation occur; however, the degree to which the person's need for autonomy is met determines whether identification, integration, or introjection takes place. In other words, if the need for relatedness is met, and an individual feels that he/she fits into the social world, the individual is inclined to adopt the beliefs and regulatory processes that are present in the environment. However, these conditions being met does not necessarily ensure autonomous behaviour. For behaviour to be truly autonomous, the need for autonomy must be satisfied while the behaviour is internalised; this will intensify the regulation taken in during the process (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007).

Although psychological needs have received extensive attention in organisational behaviour research, some concerns regarding the value of such research have been raised (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). In organisational theories, needs have traditionally been viewed as individual differences. From this perspective, the intensity of a certain need is measured and utilised to either directly, or in conjunction with job characteristics, predict

work performance, motivation, and fulfilment (e.g., Hackman & Lawler, 1971). SDT, however, describes *needs* as common necessities, such as the nutrients that are necessary in order to ensure every person's development (Lepak & Hong, 2009). Something is therefore only viewed as a need if the satisfaction thereof, partially or completely, promotes psychological health, or if the dissatisfaction of the need weakens psychological health. The desire for relatedness, autonomy, and competence are therefore viewed as needs, because they are of importance to all individuals. In short, the focal point of SDT research is not on the effects resulting from the intensity of the needs of different people, but rather on the consequences of the degree to which a person can satisfy their needs in a social environment (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Support for this concept has been recorded in numerous studies based on STD (Deci & Ryan, 2000). For instance, Vansteenkiste et al. (2007) measured the fulfilment of the three basic psychological needs through daily-diary and individual-differences techniques. By looking at the degree to which an individual's needs are met, well-being can be predicted. The results revealed that trait measures of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, in addition to aggregates of the daily measures of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, all made independent contributions to well-being indices, therefore confirming these relations to be at the between-person level. Daily-fluctuations in welfare could be predicted by daily fluctuations in the fulfilment of the three basic needs, if between-person variance is removed. Consequently, the findings revealed that there is an association between need satisfaction and an individual's welfare at both the within-person and the between-person levels of analysis, while independent contributions are made by the fulfilment of basic needs.

According to Gagne and Deci (2005), there is value in applying our knowledge about the three basic psychological needs and the fulfilment of these needs in the business environment. They argued that a work climate that encourages and inspires the fulfilment of the three fundamental needs will raise employees' intrinsic motivation, and facilitate the internalisation of extrinsic motivation. The fulfilment of the basic needs has the potential to bring about significant improvement in performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, optimistic attitudes, cognitive flexibility, psychological adjustment, and employee well-being. Deci and Ryan (2008) did research in Bulgaria and the United States, in which they

found significant positive associations between the degree of need satisfaction and employee engagement, and also between the degree of need satisfaction and employee well-being. They established these results by measuring the fulfilment of individuals' needs in terms of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Baard, Deci, and Ryan (2004) also established that there is a clear link between an employee's performance and the degree to which his/her basic psychological needs are met. Moreover, several studies have proven that SDT concepts are linked to those from theories of employee commitment (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Langton & Aldrich, 2008; Seo, Bartunek, & Barrett, 2010).

3.4.5   SDT AND ITS APPLICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Some studies based on self-determination theory have tested the utility of psychological needs satisfaction in forecasting motivation and adjustment in the workplace. As mentioned previously, literature suggests three universal psychological needs — the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness — and advises that work climates that permit satisfaction of these needs encourage work engagement, as well as psychological well-being. Kehr (2004) claimed that the application of SDT directly impacts on the following three organisational aspects — managerial efficiency, commitment to goals, and motivation to learn.

3.4.5.1   Managerial efficiency

Managerial efficiency has been a popular subject among scholars in the past decade. Research has shown notable evidence relating to the positive outcome of managerial efficiency, such as employee views of managerial effectiveness, employee job attitudes, and objective managerial performance (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Scholars are interested in how efficient managers succeed in attaining their remarkable results. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) proposed that SDT may possibly provide an essential part of the explanation. They further proposed that managerial efficiency is a contextual factor that aids employees to grow more internalised work motivation, which results in greater need satisfaction and job performance. There are numerous ways in which efficient managers can assist employees to internalise work tasks. Efficient managers place emphasis on values, and describe work in value-based terms. These managers increase the chances that employees will come to recognise and embrace the values the manager adopts. Efficient

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managers are skilled at outlining goals in terms of values and needs that are desirable to both managers and employees (Wilson, Mack, & Grattan, 2008). This type of managerial behaviour enables subordinates to feel empowered, even though they are directed by a manager. Another way that efficient managers encourage internalisation is by providing vision (Collier & Esteban, 2007). According to SDT, these characteristics give the vision special appeal, because of peoples' natural desire to succeed and form new connections in their lives. It is therefore clear that SDT's organismic theory highlights the growth impulse, which can offer conceptual tools not provided by conventional utility and expectancy theories. Efficient managers, furthermore, instil internalisation by inspiring subordinates to pursue higher-order potential, in other words, viewing incentives as meaning, excellence, and self-expression, rather than as extrinsic rewards. In SDT, followers of efficient managers are thus less likely to fall prey to external or 'controlled' motivations, and less likely to have their intrinsic motivation eroded or undermined over time. Instead, followers of efficient managers tend to become ever more self-directing and self-reinforcing. They take on greater responsibilities.

Goal commitment

Goals are a crucial concept in work motivation research (Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Locke & Latham, 2004). For instance, Locke and Latham's goal-setting theory suggests that detailed and challenging goals lead to greater determination and performance, especially when people are dedicated to the goal. More recent studies supported Locke and Latham's theory that challenging goals lead to greater performance, and that performance is optimised when people are highly committed to that goal (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Langton & Aldrich, 2008; Seo, Bartunek, & Barrett, 2010).

The expectancy and attractiveness of goal attainment are theorised to be the main determinants of goal commitment (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987). Results from a recent study (Langton & Aldrich, 2008) supported this, stating that the expectancy and the attractiveness of goals strongly predict goal commitment. Nonetheless, academics have realised that significantly more research is required to explore the nature of goal commitment, as people, from time to time, become committed to goals regardless of

expectancy and/or attractiveness, and sometimes fail to commit to goals that do meet these criteria (Wesson, Hollenbeck, Wright, & DeShon, 2001).

Kehr (2004) postulated that SDT can offer fresh insight into the history of goal commitment, and, at the same time, reveal the nature of deeper, long-term commitment. SDT suggests a variety of reasons for engaging in behaviour, ranging from controlled reasons to autonomous reasons. Recent studies have shown that people exert extra long-term effort toward personal goals that are more autonomous (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Even though studies on organisational goal-setting have provided evidence that people are automatically dedicated to self-set goals (Erez & Judge, 2001), Sheldon and Houser-Marko (2001) have found inconsistency in the extent to which people internalise self-set personal goals.

Sheldon and Houser-Marko (2008) further found that people chasing self-set personal goals because they feel that others want them to are not perceived as autonomous. In other words, people do not automatically feel full ownership of their motivated behaviour when chasing self-set personal goals. This rationale proposes that commitment to self-set goals is influenced, not only by attractiveness and importance of the goal, but also by the degree to which the person feels internally motivated to chase the goal. In essence, people who freely chose a goal are more dedicated to the goal than people who felt that they chose a goal due to external pressures (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

The above reasoning recommends that, in order to increase the prediction of positive outcomes, one should measure a person's degree of internalisation of goals, along with the degree of commitment to such goals. Individuals who chase goals for autonomous reasons gain motivational resources that cannot be accounted for by conventional utility, expectancy, and plan theories.

Motivation to learn

Motivation in the literature on training and development is often referred to as motivation to learn, which is known to forecast employees' learning from training and development opportunities (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000). Motivation to learn is defined as an employee's desire to study the content of a certain programme. Theoretically, the concept

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of the motivation to learn is embedded in the expectancy theory. This suggests that employees' motivation to learn is mainly determined by the perception of the usefulness of undergoing training in order to obtain positive results at work (Tharenou, 2001). This viewpoint has been valuable in empirically validating the role of motivation in learning. More specifically, conducting a valuation of motivation does not completely highlight the nature of learners' personal goals. In other words the number of goals they wish to achieve and, more importantly, with regard to internalisation, why they want to complete these goals. Moreover, it fails to focus on managers' behaviours that could affect these goals. Although each matter is addressed by SDT, research overall shows an absence of internalisation of learners' goals and the influence that managers have on learners' needs satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2000; Huitt, 2001). Both these matters will be discussed below.

Research on motivation to learn normally focuses on the content of training as the determining factor of motivation (Black & Deci, 2000). However, it does not acknowledge the fact that employees may engage in a learning experience only for a small portion of the training content, or solely to impress their colleagues or managers. Although some of these questions have been raised in organisational research (Keller, 2008), none of the researchers studied the degree to which learners internalised different kinds goals linked to training. On the other hand, educational research proposes that higher-quality learning takes place when learners experience internalised motivation (Black & Deci, 2000). Current educational research highlights the advantage of having internalised reasons when enrolling for a programme (Jang, Reeve, Ryan, & Kim, 2009). According to SDT, trainees with internalised goals related to learning will demonstrate more determination and effort than trainees without such internalised goals.

SDT not only emphasises the importance of internalised goals, it also highlights the issue of managerial support of training and development. Organisational research suggests that managerial support of learning predicts employees' motivation to partake in learning experiences (Deci & Ryan 2000; Keller, 2008). Management support for learning, as rated by subordinates, has proven to be a crucial determinant of involvement in developmental experiences (Huitt, 2001; Tharenou, 2001). SDT proposes that managers succeed by supporting their employees' autonomy needs, consequently assisting employees to develop and chase internalised goals related to learning and personal development.

Overall, SDT suggests that employees will be more motivated to take part in and learn from training experiences with managers who support their autonomy needs.

3.4.6   OVERVIEW OF SDT AND ITS RELEVANCE TO THIS STUDY

SDT stipulates the difference between amotivation and motivation. Amotivation means that there is an absence of intent, whereas motivation means acting with intent. SDT refers not only to autonomous motivation, which includes intrinsic motivation and internalised extrinsic information, it also refers to controlled motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Autonomous motivation takes place when a person finds personal interest and value in the task/activity itself. Controlled motivation, on the other hand, consists of external regulation and introjected extrinsic motivation. In practice, the level of controlled motivation reveals the level of apprehensiveness regarding external events experienced by a person (Deci & Ryan, 2004). An individual's actions and outcomes are dependent on levels of autonomous and controlled motivation, as well as amotivation. Motivational factors stem from job design, as well as the working environment, and can be controlling, amotivating, or supportive (Lepak & Hong, 2009).

To conclude, the concept of the basic psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy highlight the support required within a social environment -— for it to be autonomous, amotivating, or controlling.

For the purpose of the present study, the emphasis is on autonomous work motivation rather than amotivation or extrinsic work motivation; the reason being the type of questions asked in the questionnaire that was used in this study. The questions in the questionnaire clearly focus on whether employees find their jobs interesting in nature (which is intrinsic motivation), whether they look forward to coming to work and enjoy the job, whether they are satisfied in their position, and whether the job is meaningful to them. These all form part of autonomous work motivation. Figure 3 illustrates the results that will most likely follow when an employee is autonomously motivated. The results are all positive, clearly indicating that, when employees are satisfied with the content of their work, and experience support of autonomous behaviour from their managers, their trust and

commitment towards the organisation increases, their performance improves, they tend to be entirely satisfied with their jobs, and, in general, seem happier.
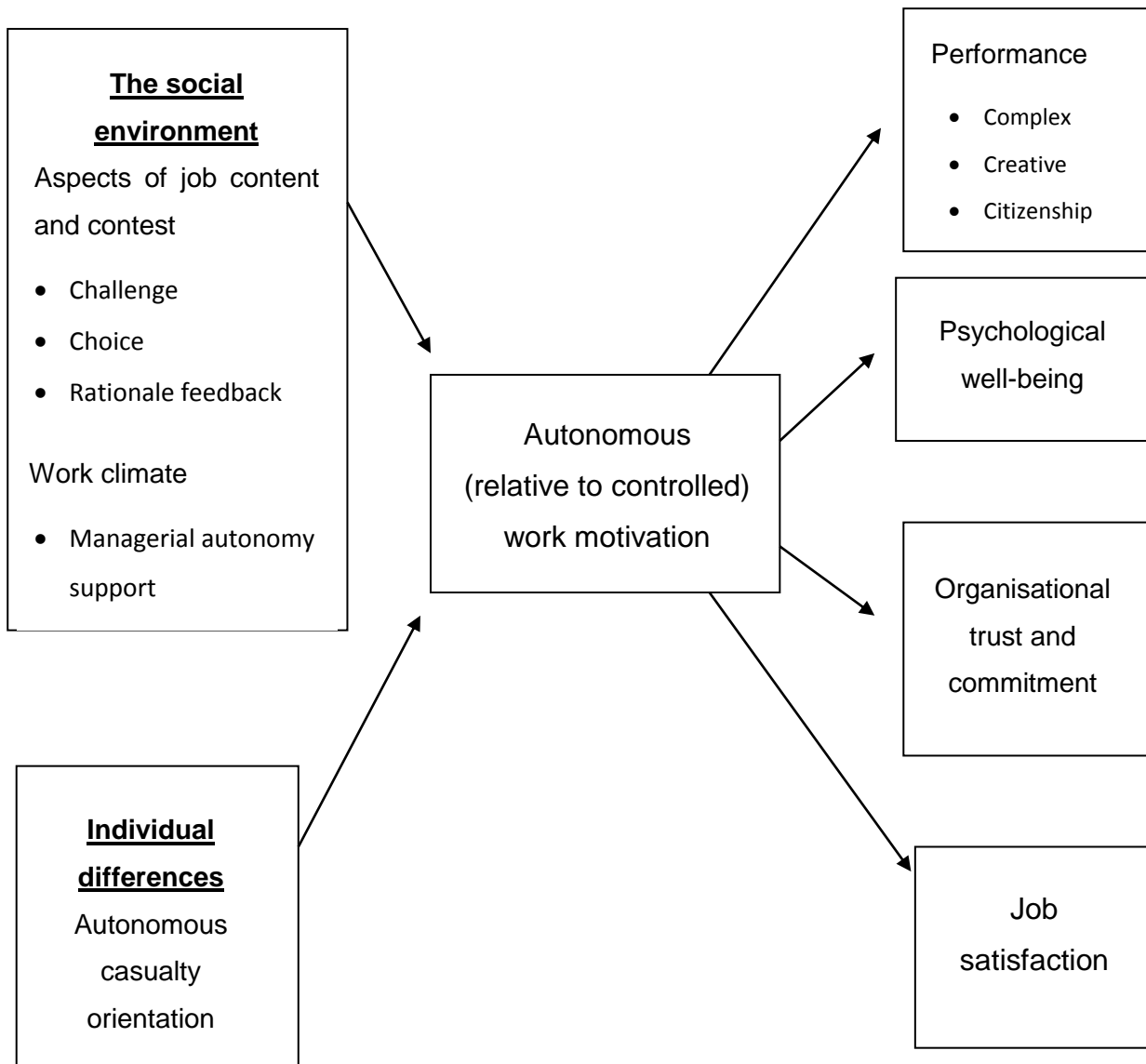
Figure 3.   Autonomous motivation. **Source: Deci and Ryan (2008).**

3.5   **JOB CHARACTERISTIC THEORY**

Job characteristics theory originated at Yale University in the USA; the theory was originally built from the perspective of the school of industrial administration, which, at that time, formed part of extensive research dealing with personality variables. From the late 1960s into the 1970s, a group of proponents of this school of thought made significant

discoveries in this area. Lawler added to this work through research using expectancy theory during his doctoral studies in psychology at Berkeley University (Lawler, 1971). Hackman had done research and written on the ways in which dissimilar types of tasks and task characteristics affect behavioural outcomes (Hackman, 1968).

Similar to several theories, job characteristics theory has undergone substantial growth since its initial formulation (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Overall, this growth has been dedicated to reaching increased precision of estimates and to expanding the limitations within which the theory can function (Picollo & Colquitt, 2006).

3.5.1   THE ORIGINAL HACKMAN-LAWLER THEORY

Hackman-Lawler's theory rests on five suggestions drawn from both Maslow's needs hierarchy theory and from expectancy theory (Cable & Edwards, 2004). These can be seen as a foundation for the more detailed suggestions to follow:

- To the degree that people trust they can achieve an outcome they value by engaging in some specific behaviour or class of behaviours, the probability that they will engage in that behaviour is improved.
- Outcomes are cherished by people to the degree that they fulfil the physiological needs of those people, or to the degree that they lead to additional outcomes that fulfil such needs, or are expected to do so.
- Accordingly, the workplace can be designed in such a manner that employees satisfy their own needs and, at the same time, work towards reaching organisational objectives.
- Lower-level needs, such physical security, are generally well taken care of in present-day work environments, and will therefore not be seen as a motivational factor, except in very rare cases.
- Higher-order needs, on the other hand, for instance, growth and development and feelings of self-worth can definitely form part of motivational variables.
- Employees who experience satisfaction of their higher-order needs will be even more motivated and satisfied when they realise that they have, due to their own determination, accomplished something that they personally consider to be valuable

or important. In particular, people who desire satisfaction of their higher-order needs should be most likely to attain them when they work well on meaningful jobs that offer feedback on the quality of their work activities.

At this stage, four characteristics were identified by Turner and Lawrence (1965). that would encourage higher-order need satisfaction if built into the job design. In essence, the main assumption was that the implementation of these four factors into the initial job design will satisfy employees' higher-order needs.

The first characteristic is autonomy, described as the degree to which employees takes ownership and responsibility for the outcomes of their tasks. Autonomy is considered essential; however, it is not a sufficient condition for taking personal accountability for tasks, or attributing performance to one's own hard work. Second, a high level of task identity is required. Task identity is defined as containing a distinct sense of a starting point and finishing point, along with high visibility of the prevailing transformation process itself and the appearance of the transformation process in the end product. The opportunity to use strengths and skills that are meaningful and at the same time valuable is important. Over and above task identity, an additional factor adding to the significance of work is sufficient variety, the third task attribute identified by the theory. It should, however, be noted that only truly challenging variety is considered, variety that requires several skills of importance to the employee (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

Lastly, the job must offer feedback on the level of achievement. The feedback can be integrated into the task itself, or it can be driven from external sources, such as managers or colleagues (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Similar to autonomy, task identity, and variety, what really makes an impact is the perception of the job characteristic, in this case the perception of feedback. The theory proposes that work motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity should be enhanced once the four characteristics are built into tasks (Cable & Edwards, 2004). The theory also highlights the importance of all four characteristics being incorporated into the job design. If an employee's higher-order need level is established, the four job characteristics should naturally encourage high performance and work motivation. However, the reality is that many jobs do not possess these core characteristics, and should be restructured to provide them. Lawler committed himself to

this part of the theory when he specifically focused on the restructuring of jobs to ensure efficiency (Lawler 1973).

3.5.2   THE LATER HACKMAN-OLDMAN THEORY

Job characteristics theory per se was introduced by Hackman and Oldham (1976), published in 1980 (see also Oldham and Cummings, 1996). This comprehensive model is displayed in Figure 3.4.   Added to the original theory is an additional core job characteristic. Task significance is the last contributor to the significance of work.

The Complete Job Characteristics Model Source (Figure 4) of Hackman and Oldham (1976) describes the effect of a job on a person's life or work, whether in an organisational or a social setting. The critical psychological states depicted in Figure 4 can be defined as:

- Experiencing meaningfulness of the work — the degree to which an employee perceives the job to be meaningful, significant, and respected;
- Experiencing responsibility for the outcome of the work — the degree to which an employee accepts accountability and ownership for the results obtained from the work; and
- Knowledge of the actual results of the work activities — the degree to which an employee understands the work activities and the outcomes thereof.

Core job characteristic	Critical psychological states	Outcomes

Skill variety
Task identity
Task significance

Experienced meaningfulness of the work

Autonomy

Experienced responsibility of the outcomes of the work

Feedback from job

Knowledge of the actual results of the work activities

High internal work motivation

High grow satisfaction

High general job satisfaction

High work effectiveness

Moderators:
1. Knowledge and skills
2. Growth and strength
3. 'Context'satisfaction

Figure 4. Job Characteristics Model. **Source: Cable and Edwards (2004)**

The model was used to develop a formula to calculate the motivating potential score (MPS) for a given job:

MPS= $\frac{\text{Skill variety+ Task identity+ Task significance}}{3}$ × Autonomy× Feedback from job

In the MPS Model, autonomy and feedback, along with one or more of the three contributors to meaningfulness, must be high; however, a zero on one of the three contributors does not have the potential for producing an overall MPS score of zero. The

initial higher-order need strength moderator was re-introduced as the strength of the need for growth. The moderator process was broadened to embrace the knowledge and skilfulness necessary to perform the work well. Also, as insufficient work creates undesirable concerns, there will be discouragement regarding the enriched job, and eventually a tendency to escape it. Lastly, for enrichment to be effective, job context must inspire a sense of overall job satisfaction and fulfilment. These moderator relationships are described in the next section.

According to Cable and Edwards (2004) a job that is high in motivating potential is the least effective when an individual in that job role is incompetent and has little desire for personal development at work, and is frustrated with a part or several parts of the work. In this instance, the job would be overwhelming for that person, and undesirable work and personal consequences could be anticipated. Such a person should perform more simple and routine task, which would benefit the organisation and the individual (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In contrast, if a person is proficient and competent to carry out difficult, stimulating tasks, and has a strong desire for personal development, and is satisfied with the context of the work, high work motivation, performance, and personal growth are anticipated.

At some stage, an extra moderator was embraced by both Lawler (1973) and Hackman (1968): the degree to which the organisational climate is of a mechanistic or an organic type, in accordance with the postulation of Burns and Stalker (1961). An organic climate was proposed for job enrichment. This moderator has vanished from the theory in the last decade. The matter of the exact nature of the moderating process produced numerous difficulties for the authors over the years. In describing the theory as person-environment fit, authors such as Kulik, Oldham, and Hackman (1987) stated that the purpose of job characteristics theory is to ensure a job-personality fit, where the person has the necessary skills and abilities to be successful in a specific environment.

An additional area that has produced complications is that of outcomes. It is known from the theory that job enrichment that 'takes' (is known to actually occur) should deliver results such as enhanced growth satisfaction, improved work motivation, and overall job satisfaction High work effectiveness is also a concern; nonetheless, it includes the quality

of output, and may include the quantity, but this is not always the case. It does not take account of low absenteeism and low turnover, while both have been considered possible outcomes of job enrichment in the past. The outcomes identified in Figure 4 signify the discoveries from research much more than the theory's inherent logic; most are merely empirical generalisations. However, new research by Gange (2008) indicated that the core job characteristics operating through provoked positive emotions assist in generating creative thinking.

3.5.3   RECENT FINDINGS

Although the job characteristics theory has seen limited activity from its authors, research in this area is on-going. New studies have been conducted that considered the effect that job enrichment has over an extended period of time (Bontis, Richards, & Serenko, 2011; Quigley, Tesluk, Lockem, & Bartol (2007). These recent studies indicated positive effects on both performance and absenteeism. Although job enrichment studies may fittingly make use of either experimental interventions or existing variations on the degree of enrichment across a variety of jobs, longitudinal analyses of the effects of interventions are more informative. elegant.

One particular study showed the influence of enrichment in a field setting on actual observed performance (Luthans, Kemmerer, Paul, & Taylor 1987). A study that brought together long-standing personality characteristics into the mix of job characteristics and job satisfaction found a significant role for longitudinally measured positive self-evaluations (Judge and Bono 2000). The main role of the critical psychological states in the model (see Figure 4) was supported, even if they did not function in precisely the same way vis-à-vis core characteristics and results, as initially anticipated (Renn & Vandenberg, 1995). Computing the motivating potential score by means of any multiplicative relationship between core characteristics does not seem to be ideal; adding the five scores works best. There are numerous negative findings from recent studies on the theory; however, the majority of findings support the theory. Johns, Xie, and Fang (1992), for instance, are mostly supportive of the theory; however, they highlighted the fact that the theory offers little proof of growth need moderator impacts, and no proof of the operation of other moderators. Tiegs, Tetrick, and Fried (1992) were also unsuccessful in their quest to

support the various moderator hypotheses. These studies nonetheless highlighted certain concerns that future research must address.

The initial idea of job enrichment was to disregard the demoralising effects of job disintegration, originating from scientific management, in low-level positions. Job enrichment was operationalised by taking elements of higher-level jobs, mainly those of managers, and adding these to repetitive expert jobs, in order to make these more interesting. Many studies investigated enrichment of managerial and professional jobs. Some results were foreseen, but some were not, such as the reduction in absenteeism and turnover (Judge and Bono 2000).

Although job characteristics theory has its limitations, studies have indicated that intrinsic job characteristics are considered to be the best predictor of job satisfaction. The Job Characteristics Model has contributed tremendously to research, and has gained a great deal of support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bontis et al., 2011; Picollo & Colquitt, 2006). Judge and Bono (2000) noted that, when comparing a number of studies, the correlation among core job characteristics and work motivation is unfailingly positive, and averages 0.48. For persons with a high growth need, this correlation is 0.68 under normal circumstances, and for those with a low growth need it is 0.38, which is still significant. These findings are essential for practice — as they indicate that job satisfaction is extremely important. Employees who are satisfied are likely to achieve goals, be more involved, and live a cheerful and healthy life (Lepak & Hong, 2009).

3.5.4 JOB CHARACTERISTICS THEORY AND ITS APPLICABILITY TO THIS STUDY

Job characteristics theory is relevant to this study because it speaks directly to the questions contained in the questionnaire. Several questions focused specifically on the design and context of the job (whether the job itself was challenging and satisfying enough), while others focused on feedback. All these questions aimed to ascertain the impact on work motivation. Job characteristics theory addresses these factors, and is therefore relevant to this study. When it comes to applying job characteristics theory in practice, managers play a crucial role. Their behaviour, actions, and decisions determine,

to a great extent, task identity, task significance, and, in general, job context. Job characteristics also include whether employees receive proper feedback regarding their jobs, and how much responsibility is given to them in completing their tasks. Job characteristics theory clearly indicates that, when employees are satisfied in all of these areas, their work motivation will increase, which will lead to job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, and, ultimately, higher performance.

3.6 **CONCLUSION**

Work motivation theories hold that employees perform at a much higher level if they experience feelings of work motivation. Work motivation not only increases employee performance, it positively impacts on employee well-being. SDT, together with the job characteristics theory, were utilised in the present study. Both place emphasis on managerial behaviour and the impact of managers on employees' work motivation. This chapter provided a comprehensive overview of both SDT and job characteristics theory, and described the applicability thereof to this study, as well as the practical implications thereof. The next chapter explains the methodology, analysis, and ethical considerations that were utilised in order to reach the study objectives.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

4.1　INTRODUCTION

Selecting the optimal research design and methodology is extremely important, as both have a significant impact on the value that is derived from the research process. This chapter describes the research methodology and design utilised in this study. Specific focus is placed on the use of secondary data in research, and the suitability of the secondary data used in this study. The composition of the research sample is discussed, and the data collection method and the survey instrument used are also examined. The data analysis procedure is described in terms of data recording and storage, preparation of the data for analysis, accuracy and completeness of the data, and analysis techniques employed. Finally, attention is paid to ethical considerations that were relevant to this study.

4.2　RESEARCH APPROACH

This study used the data of a cross-sectional employee satisfaction survey. Owing to the nature of the data, a quantitative approach was followed. The quantitative approach facilitates greater insight, understanding, and knowledge (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009) and therefore could contribute to a study on the influence of management's behaviour on work motivation

4.3　DATA COLLECTION

This study used the raw data from an ad hoc employee satisfaction survey conducted by a large financial services institution in South Africa. The data were not collected specifically for this study, making it secondary data. The use of secondary data involves re-analysing data and answering new questions, using existing data (Glass, 1976). Saunders et al., (2009) stated that, although secondary data are not often considered for use in research projects, it represents a valuable source from which research questions can be answered.

Glass (1976) claimed that some of the top methodologist have utilised secondary data in such a way that its importance has outshone that of primary data. Saunders et al. (2009) stated that the use of secondary data presents the researcher with many advantages. It saves a lot of time, money, and other resources. Secondary data often present the researcher with the opportunity to analyse large data sets of a superior quality, which would have been impossible if primary data had to be collected. Secondary data enable the researcher to investigate phenomena in an unobtrusive way, and are especially suitable when sensitive subjects have to be studied. The analysis of secondary data also holds the possibility of uncovering new and unexpected results; during secondary analysis, the data are approached and analysed from a different angle, and, often, revolutionary discoveries are made.

As with any research method, using secondary data is not without its drawbacks. When using secondary data, the researcher is required to use data that were obtained for one purpose and then used for a different purpose, namely answering the current research question(s) (Saunders et al. 2009). Primary reports and findings published on the data may influence the current research project, and may result in bias and distortion when the secondary findings are interpreted and reported (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). It often happens that data collected in the past are too old to use for the purposes of current research. The researcher also has little power over the quality of the data and the data set (Saunders et al., 2009). The definitions and variables in a secondary data set may be inappropriate or markedly different from the constructs in the current research project, even if they seem similar on the surface (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). The important point is that the researcher should take cognisance of these disadvantages, and a careful analysis should be done to determine whether the advantages of using secondary data outweigh the possible drawbacks (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) suggested that the disadvantages of secondary data can be mitigated by carefully evaluating the sources of the secondary data.

The employee satisfaction survey utilised in the present study included the measurement of various factors, such as flow of communication, managing productivity, work motivation, work climate, servicing customers, job stress, feelings about the organisation, management behaviour, department favouritism, the integrity of the organisation

management, and many more. Management behaviour and employee motivation were, however, the only two factors that were taken into consideration in the present study. Those factors not applicable to this study were discarded.

The questionnaire contained items that did not measure management behaviour and employee motivation, but that seemed to be applicable to the current study. For this reason, the dataset was subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The results of the EFA were used to decide which items of the survey to include in the current study. The reliability of the measurements (with inclusion of the new items) for measuring the constructs of employee motivation and management behaviour was also assessed. The Cronbach alphas , 0.934 for *Management behaviour* and 0.903 for *Employee motivation*, indicated high internal consistency.

4.4 SAMPLE

The survey was conducted in a single, large organisation (3 842 employees) within the financial services industry in South Africa. All employees were given the opportunity to participate in the survey, either electronically on the intranet, or by means of a paper-and-pencil questionnaire, depending on whether employees had access to a computer. A total of 3 123 employees completed the survey, representing a response rate of 81.13%. The sample consisted of more or less an even number of men and women. Respondents from all population groups participated in the survey. Both management and non-management employees participated in the survey, and the sample included respondents from various occupational categories.

For the purposes of the present study, the entire sample's responses were used during the data analysis phase. The entire sample of 3 123 employees completed both the *Management behaviour* and *Work motivation sections* in the questionnaire. The composition of the sample is depicted in Tables 3 to 6, below.

Table 3
Sample Composition — Gender

	Frequency	Percentage

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	1 407	45.05
Female	1 710	54.76
No Response	6	0.19
Total	3 123	100.00

The sample had 9.71% more women than men. Both gender groups, however, had a sufficiently representative number of respondents.

Table 4

Sample Composition — Ethnic Groups

	Frequency	Percentage
African	1 143	36.60
Coloured	448	14.35
Indian	540	17.29
White	989	31.67
No response	3	0.10
Total	3 123	100.00

The majority of the sample consisted of African employees (36.60%), followed by White, Indian, and Coloured employees respectively. Again, each population group was sufficiently represented.

Table 5

Sample Composition — Organisational Level

	Frequency	Percentage
Managerial position	895	28.7
Non-managerial position	2 218	71.0
No response	10	0.30
Total	3 123	100.00

Both management and non-management employees formed part of the sample.

Table 6

Sample Composition — Occupational Category

	Frequency	Percentage

	Frequency	Percentage
General administrator	1 211	38.78
Professional (i.e. legal or actuarial)	525	16.81
Investment specialist	40	1.28
Marketing and/or communications	169	5.41
Sales	371	11.88
Call centre	182	5.83
Facilities management and security	96	3.07
Property management	105	3.36
Information technology	341	10.92
Strategic leadership	61	1.95
No response	22	0.70
Total	3 123	100.00

Employees from ten different occupational categories were included in the sample. Employees in general administration formed the majority of the sample (38.78%). Only a small number of employees were investment specialists (1.28%). Employees in the functions of facilities management and security (3.07%), property management (3.36%), and strategic leadership (1.95%) formed part of the sample.

Although the results of the initial project were not intended to be generalised to a larger population, the high response rate achieved, in conjunction with the size of the sample, significantly lowered the likely error present in the data; therefore, generalisation to the population is possible (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.5   MEASUREMENT

The employee survey rendered a numeric description of employees' perceptions of factors influencing work motivation, morale, organisational commitment, and, ultimately, satisfaction with their work environment. The organisation conducts the survey on an annual basis, and therefore the systems, procedures, and resources are already in place. For the present study, data from the period September and October 2011 were used.

The survey opened on 1 October 2011 on the company's intranet, and ended on 30 November 2011. The organisation's Information Technology Department was responsible

for the administration of the questionnaire. Paper-and-pencil questionnaires were available from the Human Resources Department if respondents preferred to complete it on that basis. The paper-and-pencil questionnaire was identical to the questionnaire available on the intranet.

The survey was announced in the company's newsletter and on the intranet for the duration of the survey period. The survey questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the purpose of the survey and its intended use. The survey questionnaire took approximately 50 minutes to complete, but there was no time restriction.

Allowing an unlimited amount of time to answer the questionnaire increased the quality of the responses. The data collected were in a standardised format, and the responses given are suitable for quantitative and qualitative analysis (Babbie, 2008).

The questionnaire used during this survey was developed by the organisation, in collaboration with a registered consulting industrial psychologist. The purpose of the survey is to provide a comprehensive annual employee satisfaction indicator. The questionnaire was used as part of the organisation's Annual Satisfaction Survey, from 1996 to 2011, with the exceptions of 2004 and 2005, with only minor adjustments made each year according to the organisation's needs. Each year, the external consultant conducts validity and reliability analyses of the questionnaire. The survey consists of both open- and closed-ended questions; however, only items from the quantitative section were used for the purpose of the present study. The quantitative section of the survey questionnaire consisted of 100 questions, each rated on a seven-point rating scale, ranging from *Disagree strongly* to *Agree strongly*. According to statistical validation results, the questionnaire measured 20 factors related to various aspects of employee satisfaction.

Item reliability analysis were conducted by computing Cronbach's reliability coefficients (α) for all the factors. The reliability coefficients are shown in Table 3.1. Reliability coefficients of 0.6 and above are generally regarded as acceptable (Field, 2009). The reliability results reflected below confirm a high level of measurement integrity of the survey questionnaire. Reliability coefficients of above 0.7 were detected for most of the

factors relating to employees' perceptions, which were considered high, and could have been influenced by emotions.

Table 7

Reliability Coefficients of the Items Measuring Management Behaviour and Work Motivation

Factors	Cronbach's α coefficient
1. My relationship with my immediate manager	0.82
2. Flow of communication	0.88
3. The integrity of organisation management	0.84
4. Feedback with regards to my work performance	0.89
5. Managing productivity	0.88
6. My feelings about the organisation	0.77
7. Efficiency of work processes	0.84
8. Servicing our customers	0.87
9. Work climate	0.80
10. Fair employment practices	0.83
11. Personal development and career management	0.70
12. Remuneration	0.79
13. Job stress	0.83
14. Work motivation	0.90
15. Managing change in the workplace	0.94
16. Efficiency of decision-making processes	0.59
17. Departmental favouritism	0.84
18. Empowering our staff	0.72
19. Recognising and rewarding our staff	0.62
20. Our strategic direction	0.83

The current study used only the items pertaining to employee motivation and management behaviour. The items could not just extracted from the list of factors in Table 7 therefore the items included in the management behaviour and work motivation constructs were identified by means of an EFA. An EFA was completed in order to determine whether additional items that fell under other factors in the survey could be used in order to expand

and strengthen the initial management behaviour and work motivation factors contained in the survey questionnaire.

The results of the EFA are provided in Table 8.

Table 8

Factor Loadings

Rotated component matrix[a]			
	Component		
	1	2	3
Q33 I receive regular guidance from my manager about what my work responsibilities are.	.829		
Q36 I often get compliments for the work I do.	.812		
Q25 My manager is prepared to listen to the opinions of staff members.	.779		
Q17 Management is objective and fair in disciplining employees in my department.	.768		
Q1 My manager is effective in exercising control over work activities.	.762		
Q20 Communication from my manager is given timeously and accurately.	.726	.319	
Q14 My manager involves our team in decision-making.	.688		.345
Q7 I trust leadership in my business unit to appropriately balance employee interests with those of the company.	.625		.321
Q82 I receive adequate career guidance and counseling when needed.	.615		
Q3 My manager inspires me to achieve my work objectives.	.608		
Q59 My department receives regular feedback about service delivery to our customers.	.544		.454
Q2 My manager is effective in planning work activities.	.473		
Q5 My manager actively coaches staff, in order to improve their knowledge and skills.		.818	
Q27 I am allowed to make decisions, which enables me to perform my job effectively.		.796	
Q4 My manager deals effectively with conflict.		.760	
Q12 Leadership really cares about the wellbeing of employees in my business unit.		.756	
Q35 I receive regular input from my manager about how my work performance will be assessed.	.311	.743	
Q34 The feedback I get from my manager guides me towards personal growth and development.		.729	
Q99 I am sufficiently challenged and stimulated in the work that I do.			.846
Q98 I feel that I am employed in the position for which I am best suited.			.829
Q97 My work makes full use of my knowledge and abilities.			.793

Rotated component matrix[a]			
	Component		
	1	2	3
Q96 I get a sense of accomplishment from my work.	.314		.693
Q100 I look forward to coming to work most days.	.377		.677

According to the EFA results, above, the items loaded on three factors. The items that loaded on the first two factors described management behaviours, while the items that loaded on the third factor dealt with work motivation. Although the EFA indicated that the items related to management behaviour should be two factors, self-determination theory and job characteristics theory consider these behaviours as one factor, defined as management behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2008). According to SDT, management behaviour includes providing regular feedback, looking after the well-being of staff, allowing participation in decision-making, acknowledging and rewarding good performance, listening to staff, building a mutual trust relationship, providing challenging assignments, and coaching and guiding staff in terms of work performance and career growth (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009).

According to job characteristics theory, good management behaviours are: providing constructive feedback on work activities and self-development, planning work activities that are challenging and meaningful, and encouraging involvement in decision-making and allowing employees to take responsibility for work-related outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004). It is clear that items from both management-related factors in the EFA table above fells under management behaviour constructs as defined in SDT and job characteristics theory. For that reason, all management behaviour items were grouped under one factor; for the purpose of this study it was named *Management behaviour*. Item reliability analyses were conducted for the Management Behaviour and Work Motivation Scales. The results indicated that both scales had high reliabilities — Cronbach's α > 0.9. The reliability analysis results are discussed in Section 4.3.

Work motivation measures items such as sense of accomplishment, job fulfilment, and job satisfaction. *Management behaviour* focuses specifically on positive behaviours demonstrated by managers towards employees in order to improve employee work motivation. Management behaviour is measured by items such as communication,

decision-making, involvement, the manager-subordinate trust relationship, managerial caring behaviours, coaching and development, and providing constructive feedback.

4.6   DATA ANALYSIS

4.6.1   DATA RECORDING, STORAGE, AND PREPARATION

The data recording and storage phase had already been completed; therefore, secondary data were used in the present study. The data had already been captured in Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SSPS). The quality of the results of any research project is greatly dependent on the quality of the data, and it is therefore imperative to check for errors in data. The following strategies, proposed by Saunders et al. (2009), were applied to check for errors in the secondary data used in this study:

- **Looking for illegitimate codes:** The data are scrutinised for codes that are not in the codebook ('out-of-range values') and are therefore obviously wrong;

- **Checking for illogical relationships:** Data are checked by ensuring that no illogical relationship occur between, for example, certain biographical details; and

- **Ensuring that rules in filter questions are followed:** Some of the questions in the survey that were used in the present study were filter questions, and were therefore checked to see that the relevant structure and rules were followed when the data were coded.

4.6.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

To determine the employees' perceptions of management practices within a financial services institution, descriptive statistics was used. Descriptive statistics illustrated the basic characteristics of the data that were collected. Descriptive summaries form the basis of quantitative analysis methods; they are useful statistics that bring together large amounts of data, so that the data can be presented and comprehended with minimal effort (Trochim, 2006). In order to answer the research question of the present study, the following descriptive statistics were especially relevant:

- Frequency analysis to depict the sample composition. Frequency analysis can be interpreted as the is the number of times a quantity arises in a set of data; and

- The mean scores and standard deviations, to indicate the central tendency and dispersion of the items and factor scores.

4.6.3   CORRELATION ANALYSIS

In order to see if there was a relationship between *Management behaviour* and *Work motivation*, and, moreover, to determine the nature of the relationship, a correlation analysis was conducted. The sample data falls under interval, and was normally distributed; therefore, a Pearson's correlation analysis was chosen. Pearson's correlation analysis measures the strength of the linear relationship between variables, in this case, between *Management behaviour* and *Work motivation*. The analysis was considered important, as it would show the strength of the linear relationship between the variables. The literature indicates that there is a positive relationship between management behaviour and work motivation (Burton & Dunn, 2005; Richardson & Vandenberg, 2005; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008); therefore a one-tailed Pearson's correlation analysis was done. The aim of the correlation analysis was to confirm that there is a positive relationship between management behaviour and work motivation, as indicated in the literature, and to determine the significance thereof.

4.6.4   REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to identify the management behaviours that have the greatest impact on work motivation, in order of importance. This was done to inform management regarding the management behaviours that are crucial in motivating staff. Multiple regression analysis determines the effects and the magnitude of the effects of more than one independent variable (*Management behaviours*) on one dependent variable (*Work motivation*) (Trochim, 2006). A stepwise regression method was chosen, whereby predictors were entered into the model based on a purely mathematical criterion. Stepwise regression searches for the management behaviour that best predicts work motivation by selecting the management behaviour that has the highest

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simple correlation with work motivation. In this way, the objective outlined in Chapter 1 was met.

4.7   RESEARCH ETHICS

According to O'Neil (2010), ethics can be described as the rules and principles that guide the moral choices and actions of researchers. Ethics pertain to all the stages of the research process, and should be considered in every decision that is made throughout the research process.

The first ethical issue that should be considered is the competence of the researcher. The researcher must be adequately trained, have sufficient knowledge about the methodology, and should be competent in all aspects of the research process (Field, 2009). The present study required the researcher to have adequate knowledge and experience with survey research designs, the relevant theory and practices involved in a quantitative research approach and the statistical techniques that accompany it, as well as sufficient experience in the reporting of survey research results.

Important ethical issues arise during the data collection phase of any research project. Voluntary participation is essential, and participants should not be forced or coerced into participating in the research project. Participants should be completely informed about the objective of the survey, the possible risks associated with participation in the survey, and the purpose for which the survey results will be used. Confidentiality of respondents should be ensured, and participants should be made aware that they can withdraw from the research at any time. A cover letter that contains all the relevant information should accompany the questionnaire, and a letter of consent should also be completed by the respondents, to ensure that ethical standards are maintained (Babbie, 2008).

Because secondary data were be used, the present researcher had limited control over these issues, as the data had already been collected. The organisation provided the researcher with a detailed description on how the data were collected. All precautions were taken to ensure that no harm came to the participants due to their involvement in the survey. Participation in the survey was completely voluntary, and respondents were not or

pressurised into participating in the survey. No incentives were offered to employees for participating in the survey. As can be seen in Appendix A (p. 46), although the survey questionnaire was not accompanied by a consent form, the questionnaire contained a section that explained the objectives and purpose of the survey. Apart from the biographical section, no identifying information was gathered during the survey, which ensured the anonymity of the respondents. The data had been captured in SPSS, and contained no identifying information.

With the use of secondary data, gaining permission from the entity that gathered the data is a particular ethical concern. In the present study, written permission was obtained from the head of the employee value proposition programme of the organisation, who allowed the use of the data, with the proviso that the organisation had to remain anonymous.

During the data analysis process, the researcher, under the guidance of her research supervisor, ensured that relevant techniques were used. Analysis procedures that were appropriate for the research objectives, and that would render accurate, complete, and comprehensive results were utilised. When reporting research findings, a researcher has an ethical obligation towards the research subjects and the research community at large (Saunders, 2009), and, therefore, the results of the present study are reported fully and accurately, and shortcomings, limitations, and errors are clearly stated.

4.8   CONCLUSION

This chapter provided information regarding the questionnaire, its design, and the constructs that were used in this study. The data analysis procedure was outlined, and the methods were defined and justified. For the purpose of this study, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and regression analysis were used to meet the objectives outlined in Chapter 1. Research ethics were outlined; these were considered in order to make sure that all processes and methods were applied in the most appropriate manner.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results obtained from the data analysis done by means of SPSS, per the research design and methodology discussed in Chapter 4. This chapter contains all the results obtained from the statistical tests that were performed on the data in order to answer the research objectives of this study. The aim was to:

- Determine employees' perceptions of good management practices within a financial service institution;
- Investigate the influence of management behaviour on work motivation within a financial services institution; and
- Rank the controllable factors in management behaviour in order of importance.

Research results in this chapter are presented in three sections:

- **Descriptive statistics** — to determine employees' perceptions of management practices within a financial services institution. This section reports on the average ratings per management behaviour and work motivation factor measured in this study;
- **Correlation analysis** — to assess the relationship between management behaviour and work motivation within a financial services institution; and
- **Multiple regression analysis** — to identify which management behaviour has the greatest impact on work motivation. This section ranks the controllable factors in management behaviour and work motivation in order of importance.

5.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Before the influence of management behaviour on work motivation could be determined, descriptive statistics had to be conducted. The descriptive statistics depicted the average rating obtained on the seven-point rating scale per *Work motivation* and *Management behaviour* factor.

5.2.1 WORK MOTIVATION

Tables 9 to 12 illustrate the average ratings obtained for *Work motivation* per gender, ethnic group, organisational level, and occupational categories on a seven-point rating scale.

Table 9

Sample Composition for Work Motivation — Gender

	Frequency	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
Male	1405	5.26	1.43
Female	1704	5.16	1.44
Total	**3109**	**5.20**	**1.44**
No response	14	-	-

Male employees had an average rating score of 5.26, and female employees had an average rating score of 5.16 for *Work motivation* on a seven-point rating scale.

Table 10

Sample Composition for Work Motivation — Ethnic Group

	Frequency	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
African	1136	5.01	1.59
Coloured	448	5.24	1.32
Indian	539	5.23	1.42
White	989	5.39	1.28
Total	**3112**	**5.20**	**1.44**
No response	11	-	-

The highest rating on *Work motivation* was 5.39, and was given by White employees, whereas the lowest rating was 5.01, given by African employees.

Table 11

Sample Composition for Work Motivation — Organisational Level

	Frequency	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
Manager	895	5.64	1.20
Non-manager	2211	5.03	1.48

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation
Total	**3106**	**5.20**	**1.44**
No response	17	-	-

Managers had a rating score of 5.64, as opposed to non-managers, who had a rating score of 5.03.

Table 12

Sample Composition for Work Motivation — Occupational Category

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation
General administration	1206	4.93	1.55
Professional (i.e. legal or actuarial)	525	5.31	1.34
Investment specialist	40	5.66	1.09
Marketing and/or Communications	169	5.31	1.34
Sales	371	5.55	1.23
Call centre	181	5.00	1.55
Facilities management and security	96	5.37	1.40
Property management	104	5.58	1.36
Information technology	341	5.30	1.27
Strategic leadership	61	6.08	.89
Total	**3094**	**5.20**	**1.44**
No response	29	-	-

Employees from ten different occupational categories were included in the sample. Employees in general administration positions formed the majority of the sample, and had an average rating of 4.93. The small number of employees in strategic leadership positions produced an average score of 6.08.

5.2.2 MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR

Tables 13 to 16 illustrate the average ratings obtained for management behaviour per gender, ethnic group, organisational level, and occupational categories.

Table 13

Sample Composition for Management Behaviour — Gender

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation
Male	1407	5.41	1.09
Female	1710	5.30	1.09
Total	**3117**	**5.35**	**1.09**
No response	6	-	-

Male employees had an average rating of 5.41, and female employees had an average rating of 5.30 for management behaviour on a seven-point rating scale.

Table 14

Sample Composition for Management Behaviour — Ethnic Group

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation
African	1143	5.25	1.16
Coloured	448	5.40	.99
Indian	540	5.27	1.14
White	989	5.50	1.00
Total	**3120**	**5.35**	**1.09**
No response	3	-	-

Coloured employees had a rating of 5.40, whereas African employees scored 5.25. White employees scored a rating of 5.50, and Indian employees scored a rating of 5.27.

Table 15

Sample Composition for Management Behaviour — Organisational Level

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation
Managers	895	5.63	.95
Non-managers	2218	5.24	1.12
Total	**3113**	**5.36**	**1.09**
No response	10	-	-

Employees who managed a group of people scored an average rating of 5.63. Non-managers scored an average rating of 5.24.

Table 16

Sample Composition for Management Behaviour — Occupational Category

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation

	Frequency	Mean	Std. deviation
General administration	1211	5.26	1.12
Professional (i.e. legal or actuarial)	525	5.38	1.04
Investment specialist	40	5.24	1.02
Marketing and/or Communications	169	5.42	.94
Sales	371	5.59	.95
Call centre	182	5.49	1.09
Facilities management and security	96	5.37	1.36
Property management	105	5.35	1.21
Information technology	341	5.22	1.10
Strategic leadership	61	6.89	.78
Total	**3101**	**5.36**	**1.09**
No response	22	-	-

Employees in general administration positions formed the majority of the sample, and had an average rating of 5.26. The small number of employees in strategic leadership positions had an average rating of 6.89. Call centre employees scored 5.49, whereas employees in property management scored an average of 5.35.

5.3 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

In order to determine the influence of management behaviour on work motivation within the financial services institution, a correlation analysis was conducted. In order to determine which management behaviours are more important than others, the relationship between management behaviour and work motivation first had to be established.

For the Pearson's correlation analysis to be accurate, assumptions have to be met (Babbie, 2008). The data used in the present study was interval, meaning that an accurate measure of the linear relationship between work motivation and management behaviour was possible. The sampling distribution could be considered as normal, due to the nature of the large sample used in this study. As a result, all correlation analysis assumptions described by Field (2009) were tested, and none had been violated.

Table 17, below, illustrates the correlations obtained from the correlation analysis.

Table 17

Correlation Analysis

		WORK MOTIVATION	MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR
WORK MOTIVATION	Pearson correlation	1	.669[**]
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	N	3115	3115
MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR	Pearson correlation	.669[**]	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	N	3115	3123
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)			

There was a significant and strong relationship between the *Work motivation* factor and the *Management behaviour* factor, r = .67, p (one-tailed) < 0.01. *Management behaviour* accounted for 44.76% of the variation in *Work motivation* (R^2 = .447).

5.4 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

In order to determine which management behaviours (as measured by the individual items on the questionnaire) have a greater impact than others on work motivation (as measured by the composite score of *Management behaviour* on the questionnaire), multiple regression analysis was performed. This section ranks the controllable factors in management behaviour and work motivation in order of importance. The regression analysis assumptions are provided below.

5.4.1 ASSUMPTIONS OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

In order to determine whether the findings of this study could be generalised to the wider population, several underlining assumptions had to have been met. In order to check the assumptions, the researcher used Field's (2009) guidelines to perform the analysis in SPSS. The assumptions and the conclusions drawn are discussed in the section below.

All predictor variables were quantitative or categorical, and the outcome variable was quantitative, continuous, and unbounded. The predictors did not have variances of 0, and therefore had some variation in value. The correlation matrix confirmed that there were no

signs of strong correlations between two or more predictor variables, and, therefore, no perfect multi-collinearity existed. There were no external variables that correlated with any of the variables included in the regression analysis. The Durbin-Watson test confirmed that, for any two observations, the residual terms were independent. Each value of the outcome variable came from a separate entity, and, therefore, all the values of the outcome variable were independent. The assumption of linearity was met, as the relationship we were modelling was linear.

Although none of the multiple regression assumptions were violated, influential cases were detected. While looking at standardised residuals, the following were identified: 4.8% of cases had an absolute value of above 2. A total of 2.56% of the cases had an absolute value above 2.5, and 0.96% of the cases had an absolute value of above 3, which could be highlighted as an outlier. To ensure that the regression model was stable across the sample, and that it had not been biased by influential cases, 56 cases were deleted.

5.4.2 REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS

The regression analysis results are depicted in Table 18, below.

Table 18

Regression Analysis

	B	Std. error	β	T	Sig.
(Constant)	.639	.127		5.023	.000***
Q59 My department receives regular feedback about service delivery to our customers.	.213	.013	.278	15.759	.000***
Q34 The feedback I get from my manager guides me towards personal growth and development.	.159	.023	.171	6.881	.000***
Q7 I trust leadership in my business unit to appropriately balance employee interests with those of the company.	.115	.017	.130	6.692	.000***
Q14 My manager involves our team in decision-making.	.107	.014	.145	7.423	.000***
Q82 I receive adequate career guidance and counselling when needed.	.053	.016	.061	3.295	.001**
Q4 My manager deals effectively with conflict.	.066	.026	.049	2.502	.012*
Q3 My manager inspires me to achieve my work objectives.	.037	.014	.043	2.577	.010*
Q33 I receive regular guidance from my manager about what my work responsibilities are.	.034	.024	.042	1.376	.169
Q25 My manager is prepared to listen to the opinions of staff members.	.032	.020	.040	1.604	.109
Q2 My manager is effective in planning work activities.	.027	.015	.031	1.815	.070

	B	Std. error	β	T	Sig.
Q5 My manager actively coaches staff, in order to improve their knowledge and skills.	.024	.028	.020	.878	.380
Q1 My manager is effective in exercising control over work activities.	.015	.017	.017	.897	.370
Q20 Communication from my manager is given timeously and accurately.	.012	.019	.014	.642	.521
Q35 I receive regular input from my manager about how my work performance will be assessed.	.011	.024	.011	.445	.656
Q27 I am allowed to make decisions, which enables me to perform my job effectively.	.008	.028	.007	.292	.770
Q12 Leadership really cares about the well-being of employees in my business unit.	.001	.021	.001	.054	.957
Q36 I often get compliments for the work I do.	-.031	.023	-.039	-1.376	.169

Note: R^2 = .555 ($p < 0.001$). * $p < 0.05$, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

The regression analysis rendered a multiple regression coefficient (R) of .745. The results indicated that 55.5% of the variance in *Work motivation* could be explained by *Management behaviour*. The difference between the R^2 and adjusted R^2 value was very small (.003, about 0.3%), which indicated that the cross-validity of the model was very good. The F-ratio indicated that the regression model overall predicted *Work motivation* significantly well (F = 188.236, $p < 0.001$).

Based on the regression analysis results, the following management behaviours are the best predictors of work motivation:

1. Providing regular feedback about service delivery;
2. Providing guidance in personal growth and development;
3. Encouraging a trust relationship between employee and manager;
4. Providing career guidance and counselling;
5. Involving employees in decision–making;
6. Resolving conflict in the most efficient manner; and
7. Inspiring employees to reach their goals and objectives.

My department receives regular feedback about service delivery to our customers (*b* = 0.21, $p < 0.001$). This score indicated that *Work motivation* will increase by 0.21 units for each unit increase in the *Management behaviour* score. The t-statistic (*t* (736) = 15.76, *p* < 0.001) and the standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .28) also confirmed that this variable is the most important predictor in the regression model.

The feedback I get from my manager guides me towards personal growth and development (b = 0.16, p < 0.001). If a person's score on the Management Behaviour Scale increased by one unit, *Work motivation* increased by0.16 units. The variables t-statistic (t (736) = 6.88, p < 0.001) and the standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .17) confirmed its importance in the regression model.

I trust leadership in my business unit to appropriately balance employees' interests with those of the company (b = 0.11, p < 0.001). This score indicated that *Work motivation* will increase by 0.11 units for each unit increase in the *Management behaviour* score. The variables t-statistic (t (736) = 6.69, p < 0.001) and standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .13) confirmed its importance in the regression model.

I receive adequate career guidance and counselling when needed (b = 0.05, p < 0.001). If the score on the Management Behaviour Scale increased by one unit, *Work motivation* increased by 0.05 units. The variables t-statistic (t (736) = 3.29, p < 0.001) and the standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .06) confirmed its importance in the regression model.

My manager involves our team in decision-making (b = 0.11, p < 0.001). If the score on the Management Behaviour Scale increased by one unit, *Work motivation* increased by 0.11 units. The variables t-statistic (t (736) = 7.42, p < 0.001) and the standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .14) confirmed its importance in the regression model.

My manager deals effectively with conflict (b = 0.07, p < 0.05). This score indicated that *Work motivation* increased by 0.07 units for each unit increase in the *Management behaviour* score. The variable t-statistic (t (736) = 2.50, p < 0.05) and the standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .05) confirmed its importance in the regression model.

My manager inspires me to achieve my work objectives (b = 0.04, p < 0.01). This score indicated that *Work motivation* increased by 0.04 units for each unit increase in the *Management behaviour* score. The variables t-statistic (t (736) = 2.58, p < 0.01) and the

standardised Beta value (*standardized β* = .04) confirmed its importance in the regression model.

The other ten items in the regression analysis were rendered non-significant, and as a result, did not show a causal relationship with work motivation. They are not reported on, as they carry no value towards the purpose of the set objective.

5.5   **CONCLUSION**

The results reported in this chapter were used to investigate employees' perceptions of management practices, to explore the influence of management behaviour on work motivation, and, lastly, to rank the controllable factors in management behaviour in order of importance.

In summary, the results demonstrated that employees, overall, had an average or above average rating on the seven-point rating scale, which indicated a positive perception of management practices within the financial services institution. The results also indicated that a significant relationship exists between work motivation and management behaviour, and, lastly, it was noted that managers providing feedback regarding service delivery had the greatest impact on work motivation.

CHAPTER 6:DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this, the final chapter, the results of this study will be evaluated and interpreted with respect to the three research objectives. Thereafter, the limitations will be discussed, together with recommendations for future research.

6.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Three objectives were identified:

* To determine employees' perceptions of management practices within a financial service institution;
* To investigate the influence of management behaviour on work motivation within the financial services institution; and
* To rank the controllable factors in management behaviour in order of importance.

Each objective will be discussed in the section below.

6.2.1 EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

The first research objective was to determine employees' perceptions of management practices within the financial services institution. It was found that employees, overall, irrespective of gender, ethnic group, organisational level, or occupational category had an average or above average rating on the five-point rating scale, which indicated that they have a positive perception of the management practices within the financial services institution.

Management practices in this study refer to a set of behaviours practised by mangers in order to meet employees' and organisational needs. The set of behaviours identified in this study are: treating employees fairly, providing regular feedback to employees,

involving employees in decision-making, coaching and mentoring employees, and inspiring employees by setting an example, to name a few.

It is management's responsibility to create a supportive, approachable, and fair environment that offers employees involvement, empowerment, and open and honest communication. When management practices are sound, performance tends to increase in areas such productivity, motivation, and employee retention (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Management's integrity, behaviours, actions, and ethical values help to build positive perceptions of management's intentions amongst employees.

Many scholars have developed management practices for the purpose of creating highly motivated, involved, and dynamic employees (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Langton & Aldrich, 2008; Seo, Bartunek, & Barrett, 2010). Such management practices include employee empowerment, staff development, inspiring a team-based work organisation, job security, constructive feedback, and reward and recognition programmes. A number of practices have been developed for each one of the management behaviours mentioned above. Practices such as team-based remuneration, incentive schemes, employee involvement, and employee empowerment are implemented in the workplace daily. Other practices such as training and development initiatives and feedback platforms have also been developed and implemented to fill crucial gaps in the organisations.

As discussed above, numerous management practices have been developed and studied. These management practices were developed to positively impact on staff morale and work motivation by actively improving employee job satisfaction. In conclusion, employees in the present study, in general, had a positive perception of the management practices, and indicated being open to management implementing strategies that result in staff well-being.

6.2.2 THE INFLUENCE OF MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR ON WORK MOTIVATION

The second research objective investigated the influence of management behaviour on work motivation within the financial services institution.

The correlation analysis showed that a significant relationship exists between the work motivation factor and management behaviour. This means that behaviours acted out by managers directly impact on employees' motivation and the way they perform in their roles. In other words, employees' work motivation levels can vary, depending on their manager's behaviour towards them. All correlation coefficients were positive, which confirmed a strong relationship between management behaviour and work motivation.

Current literature supports this finding. According to Brown and Gregan (2008), positive management behaviour is the key to unlocking motivation, and encouraging employees to deliver exceptional work. A study done by (Schoorman et al., 2007) indicated that management behaviour that supports, respects, and inspires employees motivates and encourages them to go beyond the call of duty. Simons (2002) confirmed that management behaviour directly impacts on work motivation. Simons found that employees who work in an environment where managers attempt to satisfy their individual needs by expressing positive management behaviours are likely to be the happiest, most motivated workers. Kroth and Keeler (2009). Knippenberg (2004) postulated that behaviours such as building trust, empowering employees, involving employees, and caring for employees influence managers' ability to develop effective dyadic relationships with their subordinates, which result in enhanced commitment, motivation, and performance. The conclusion is drawn that, if managers display positive management behaviours, employees' work motivation will increase, which will result in improved performance.

6.2.3   MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOURS RANKED IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE

The third research objective was to rank the management behaviours that have the greatest impact on work motivation in order of importance. The results showed that the raking of the behaviours is as follows:

1. Providing feedback regarding service delivery;
2. Guidance from managers towards employee personal growth and development;
3. Trustworthiness of management;

4. Involving employees in decision–making;
5. Management's ability to effectively deal with conflict;
6. Career guidance and counselling; and
7. Managers inspiring employees to reach their objectives.

No previous studies have been conducted that focused on ranking management behaviour in order of importance for motivation. However, many studies have been done on the individual management behaviours mentioned above, and all of the studies showed a positive relationship between the various management behaviours and work motivation (Darby & Wysocki, 2007; Lepak & Hong, 2009; Ozcelik, Langton, & Aldrich, 2008).

Performance feedback is known to add significant value to individual performance, and can also add value to team performance. Constructive performance feedback has proven to positively influence work motivation, to enhance levels of commitment, and to contribute to employee well-being (Aguinis, Joo, & Gottfredson, 2012). One of managers' main duties is to support and guide staff on a continuous basis. One way of doing this is to introduce a proper performance management process that will align individual performance to organisational objectives. Performance feedback is described as utilising an employee's previous behaviour, and providing information about the behaviour by measuring it against specific criteria for performance or behaviour (Simons, 2002). The main purpose of performance feedback is to improve performance, and, at the same time, earn credibility, build trust, and motivate an employee to perform better than before (Aguinis, 2009). Providing feedback is not only beneficial to the company, it allows employees to grow and stretch themselves in terms of performance (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2012). Without performance feedback, employees may draw the wrong conclusions, and assess themselves incorrectly. The lack of performance feedback can result in decreased levels of motivation and low self-esteem. Managers perceive that providing feedback is beneficial to them, as their interpersonal and communication skills improve tremendously (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Receiving performance feedback contributes significantly to achieving positive results, and is a strong predictor of work motivation and job satisfaction (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008).

Employee growth and development can play a crucial role in terms of work motivation and maintaining success in the organisation (Kira, Eijnatten, & Balkin, 2010). According to Navarro and Arrieta (2010) growth is a powerful motivator, with high employee determination potential. Many scholars studying the field of motivation have stated that an unquestionable relationship exists between employee growth and development and work motivation (Aguinis et al., 2012; Lepak & Hong, 2009; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Sweetman, Luthans, & Avey 2011). Holste and Fields (2010) indicated that managers who are involved with employees on a day-to-day basis are in a position to help their employees grow and develop, which will automatically strengthen their relationship. Gill (2008) stated that managers who coach, train, and develop their employees enhance employee skills and performance, and ultimately increase work motivation. Gange (2008) suggested that training can be used as a method to increase job satisfaction and motivation. Brown and Cregan (2008) claimed that trained employees will better fulfil the needs of their customers. Gill (2008) found that employees who are devoted to learning displayed a higher level of job satisfaction, with a positive influence on their performance. Following Gangne's thinking, employees who perceive their training and development as valuable will be more content than employees who receive no training or training of no importance.

According to Holste and Fields (2010), managers and the way they behave towards staff significantly influence the trust levels among the parties. Pastoriza, Arino, and Ricart (2008) stated that trust between employee and manager creates a positive working environment, which leads to a sense of employee satisfaction, enhanced work motivation, and an increase of dedication and commitment to the organisation. Gill (2008) agreed by stating that trust inspires compliant behaviour, decreases conflict, and links positive perceptions to the manager, which, in turn, increase employee work motivation and job satisfaction, and enhance employee production. When employees perceive their managers as trustworthy, they will have more confidence and faith in the actions and intentions of their managers, and will believe that their relationships with their managers are genuine, meaningful, and sincere.

The Gallop Organisation found that employee involvement is positively linked to improved customer satisfaction, enhanced work motivation, and employee retention (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). Managers hold the power within an organisation, and should be

responsible for creating a participative work climate, where they as authority figures determine how they want to manage their people (Farndale, Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hope-Hailey, 2011). Gruman and Saks (2011) highlighted the importance of a participative climate, and that employees' perceptions of such a climate significantly impact on organisational outcomes. An important element of a participative work climate is the level of employee involvement in decision-making (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Employees have more freedom to carry out their tasks according to their preference in an environment where they are allowed to make meaningful decisions.

Operationally, employee involvement in decision-making encourages a change in the way decisions are normally made in organisations. This means that management should be willing to share some of their control and responsibility with their staff, and continuously make time to support and guide employees throughout this process (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Participative decision-making processes are time-consuming, as each employee's ideas and opinions are taken into consideration. Furthermore, people's ideas and opinions might not always be the same, which creates a window for conflict. Sweetman and Luthans (2010) argue that it is not the actual impact or outcome that matters; it is the fact that each person has the opportunity to express his/her views and opinions (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Employees are likely to take accountability and better understand the reasoning behind management's decisions and goals if they were actively involved in the decision-making process (Grant & Sumanth, 2009).

In conclusion, managers allowing high levels of employee involvement by providing employees with the power to make meaningful alterations, offering relevant training and development to improve their skills, providing constructive feedback in terms of service delivery, and rewarding employees for excellent performance may result in a win-win situation for both the employee and the manager (Brown & Gregan, 2008).

Management's ability to resolve conflict impacts the way employees perceive management and the outcome of their actions. Conflict is defined as involving two or more individuals who are in perceived disagreement (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Collier and Esteban (2007) claimed that conflict-handling styles of management impact on employee satisfaction with a manager. A study done by Navarro and Arrieta (2010) revealed that

subordinates were more pleased with their manager when they experienced an integrating, co-operating, and considerate conflict management style. They perceived that managers who demonstrated overpowering and evading conflict management styles are likely incompetent and, in addition, experienced decreased contentment with management.

Managerial career guidance and counselling have rapidly become more common in organisations. Furthermore, career guidance and counselling have been associated with satisfaction with a manager, career commitment, improved job performance, and overall job satisfaction (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Career guidance and counselling are viewed as a management initiative to enhance performance, increase work motivation, and highlight career opportunities. Managerial career counselling encompasses goal-setting and action planning, feedback, knowledge, and empowerment (Darby & Wysocki, 2007; Lepak & Hong, 2009; Ozcelik, Langton, & Aldrich, 2008), and these practices can enhance employee satisfaction and work motivation. A meaningful interpersonal relationship between the manager and the employee is crucial, since the success of managerial guidance and coaching seems to depend on honesty, involvement, and willingness of both parties (Avey et al., 2011). Cho and Ringquist (2010) stated that open communication, appreciating people over a task, tolerance for ambiguity, and team tactics are vital competencies for career counselling.

In some organisations, managers use inspirational motivation to generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce. Sweetman and Luthans (2010) proposed that inspirational managerial behaviour takes place when managers behave in ways that motivate, and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge in their employees' work. Managers have the ability to inspire employees by displaying behaviours such as motivational support, being a role model, and building trust and credibility. Motivational support can be seen as offering dynamic, internal, and pro-active orientation, rather than ineffective external support orientation towards work motivation (Avey et al., 2011). Motivational support forms an intrinsic task motivation that mirrors employees' self-assurance in their success. Managers who encourage and foster motivational support in staff do so by helping employees to gain confidence when carrying out a work-related activity (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Such managers also inspire

willpower, which creates a sense of responsibility, as employees take accountability for their actions. Managers naturally hold positions of influence in the businesses, as their roles and responsibilities fundamentally include authority and power. As a result, managers have positional power that they can use to their advantage, as their behaviour is automatically observed, accepted, and imitated. Managers inspire intrinsic motivation in subordinates by creating jobs that deliver meaningful and significant results (Gruman & Saks, 2011). In conclusion, inspirational managers have the ability to inspire and motivate staff in such a way that they take full responsibility and accountability for their actions.

The above research proved that the seven management behaviours identified are linked directly to enhanced work motivation. According to present research objective, the behaviours were ranked in order of importance. Providing performance feedback to staff is considered to be the most important behaviour of all.

In summary, the present study showed that:

1. Overall, employees have a positive perception of the management practices of the institution. No significant differences were found when comparing the average ratings of the gender groups. Both male and female employees rated management behaviour a *3* or a *4* on the five-point rating scale. There was no significant difference when comparing the average ratings of population groups, occupational categories, and organisational level.

2. A correlation analysis confirmed that a significant relationship exists between work motivation and management behaviour. Literature supports this finding. The way management behaves towards their employees has a direct impact on employees' work motivation and, ultimately, their performance (Brown & Gregan, 2008; Simons, 2002).

3. A multiple regression analysis highlighted seven critical management behaviours that will positively impact on employees' work motivation. The management behaviours were ranked in order of importance. The management behaviour that is considered the most important is providing feedback to employees regarding service delivery. Managers providing proper feedback to employees, according to the findings in this study, will enhance work motivation more than any other

behaviour by management. The order of importance of the remaining six management behaviours were revealed in this study.

The two key motivational theories discussed in this study, self-determination theory and job characteristics theory, were linked to several components revealed in the results section. Both theories refer to managerial support as a crucial component of employee motivation, while job characteristics theory specifically highlights constructive feedback to employees as vital for increased levels of work motivation. SDT holds that management's behaviour has a direct impact on employee well-being, and that management contributes tremendously by continuously guiding, counselling, coaching, and mentoring staff in terms of career- and personal growth. Both theories indicate the importance of trust between manager and employee, and that an autonomous work environment is more likely to occur when this trust relationship is established. In summary, both SDT and job characteristics theory are aligned with the findings of the present study, and both theories contribute to improving management practices by highlighting the management behaviours that are crucial to employee motivation.

6.3   LIMITATIONS TO THE RESEARCH STUDY

There are some limitations that should be considered; however, none of these limitations had a significant impact on the results of this study.

No particular design or motivational theory was used when compiling the questionnaire utilised in this study. The questionnaire was compiled based on the need that was identified in the specific financial services industry. By analysing and grouping the questions in the two underlining factors, the researcher identified several motivational theories. Two motivational theories, SDT and job characteristics theory stood out the most, and were used in the study.

The use of secondary data limited the scope of possible research objectives. The researcher could only make use of data that had already been collected and analysed. A factor analysis was done initially which formed part of the secondary data used by the

researcher. This enabled the researcher to broaden the scope of the study, as questions from various factors was grouped together to form the two underlining factors, management behaviour and work motivation, in this study.

Although none of the assumptions were violated during the analysis phase of this study, multiple regression analyses highlighted some influential cases, which initially influenced the results. To ensure that the regression model was stable across the sample, and that it was not biased by influential cases, cases were deleted. None of the assumptions were violated; therefore, the results can be generalised. However, the study focussed exclusively on the financial services institution under study.

The results of this study were obtained from a single financial services institution, and it should be noted that different results may be obtained from different industries, as each industry has different needs. Moreover, no subgroups, such as age, gender, or ethnic group were taken into consideration whilst completing this study. These factors could have a significant impact on the results.

6.4   RECOMMENDATIONS

Future studies should investigate the measured variables in countries other than South Africa, and on a variety of business sectors. This will enable managers from different sectors to improve on management practices by implementing the most important management behaviours according to staff, which, in turn, will offer an opportunity to maximise work motivation and, ultimately, increase performance.

It is recommended that managers within a financial service institution promote management practices that focus on the seven important management behaviours revealed in this study. It has been proven that management behaviour has a positive impact on work motivation; the key, however, is to place an emphasis on the management behaviour/s that will unleash the maximum amount of motivation within employees. Studies have revealed that work motivation is a main predictor of employee performance, and that an increase in motivation will automatically lead to an increase in performance (Brown & Gregan, 2008; Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Therefore, striving towards

implementing management practices in order to deliver maximum employee motivation according to the factors that employees themselves identified as essential will lead to a motivated and more productive workforce.

In order to achieve maximum results, managers must continuously display a number of behaviours. Firstly, managers must provide regular feedback to employees regarding their performance. A strengths-based approach is recommended. A strength-based approach to feedback requires of managers to identify their employees' strengths in terms of achieving objectives and understanding the business, and then provide positive feedback on what employees are doing correctly to succeed, based on their strengths, and, lastly, prepare them to continue or improve their results or behaviours through aggressive utilisation of their strengths. The purpose of a strengths-based approach is to identify strengths that employees already have, and to develop these, in order to produce success (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Table 19 provides a summary of nine recommendations that managers could use in providing constructive performance feedback.

Table 19

Strengths-based Performance Feedback

Recommendations	Short description
Implement a strengths-based approach when providing performance feedback	• Recognise employees' strengths. • Provide positive feedback on what employees are doing correct to succeed, based on their strengths. • Prepare them to continue or improve their results or behaviours by aggressive utilisation of their strengths.
Link negative feedback to a lack of skills, rather than a lack of talent	• Focus weaknesses-based feedback on knowledge and skills, rather than talents, as knowledge is easier to obtain than natural talent.
Use a strengths-based approach to handle employees' talent weaknesses	• Encourage staff to develop sought-after talents. • Build a support system that will guide and protect employees throughout this journey. • Demonstrate to employees how their strongest talents can make up for their talent weaknesses. • Encourage teamwork in order to feed off each other's strong

Recommendations	Short description
	• talents and learn from talent weaknesses. • Redesign jobs for employees who are lacking in certain talents.
Become familiar with the employee, and comfortable with the employee's job requirements	• Familiarise yourself with the employee in terms of skills, knowledge, and strengths. • Familiarise yourself with the employee's requirements and working environment.
Select an appropriate venue when providing feedback	• Provide feedback in a private place.
Offer feedback to the employee in a professional manner	• Provide three pieces of positive feedback for every one piece of negative feedback. • Get the employee's opinion on what is working and what is not working. • Encourage employees to be actively involved in the feedback session.
Provide accurate and comprehensive feedback	• Avoid vague statements such as "well-done." • Always use evidence and facts when referring to a situation or behaviour.
Align individual performance to the organisational objectives, and explain the importance of an employee's contribution	• Link the individual's performance to organisational objectives, and explain the importance of their contribution and the impact thereof on individual, group, and organisational success.
Follow up	• Offer support and guidelines, as well as a development plan, for improving skills and behaviours, and continuously follow up to note and monitor any changes.

The strengths-based approach includes identifying strengths, providing performance feedback to employees on how these strengths add value, and, lastly, inspiring employees to develop themselves by making use of their strengths in an even more aggressive and pro-active way.

The second-most important behaviour identified by employees within the financial service institution is guidance from management towards employees' personal growth and development. As mentioned previously, growth is considered to be one of the most effective motivators, offering maximisation of employees' effort (Knapp, 2006). Scholars have proven that there is an unquestionable relationship between growth and motivation, and that managers play a crucial role in satisfying this need (Navarro & Arrieta, 2010).

The need for growth and development is fulfilled by developing strengths and mechanisms that enable employees to change as business needs and requirements change. This way, employees perceive work as a meaningful experience in their lives, and seem to be more motivated in general. In order to fully benefit from employee development initiatives, both manager and employee must be fully committed, and mutually design achievable objectives that will ensure that the required standards are met (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Collaborative work crafting is a an alternative method used to design work in such a manner that employees feels challenged, and experience a sense of personal interest when carrying out their tasks (Gruman & Saks, 2011). The outcome of this method is sustainable work and consistent results, as employees develop personal resources and utilise these to the best of their ability. Moreover, employees who thrive on personal development and are keen to craft their own work are likely to play a part in additional work crafting, and always look out for growth opportunities. A trend starts to emerge where employees' consistent and sustainable work opens doors to broadening their skills and knowledge in the future (Grant & Sumanth, 2009).

Together with providing feedback and ensuring personal growth and development, involving staff in decision-making was also raise as a behaviour that is crucial to employee motivation. Involvement in decision-making improves employees' perceptions of management practices being fair; employee's wants to partake in decision–making, especially those decisions that directly impact on their jobs (Holste &Fields, 2010). Managers are often questioned and blamed for outcomes if employees are not given the opportunity to participate in decision-making (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Managers should conduct regular meetings with staff, where they give staff the opportunity to share their opinions and views, and allow staff to share in their power to make decisions. These

meetings can take the place of any forum, as long as management ensures that employees have the opportunity to make their voices heard, and to participate in decision-making. In order for managers to be comfortable with staff making decisions and taking accountability for their actions, a trust relationship needs to be established. Pastoriza, Arino, and Ricart (2008) stated that trust between employee and manager creates a positive working environment, which leads to a sense of employee satisfaction, enhanced work motivation, and an increase in dedication and commitment to the organisation. Gill (2008) stated that trust encourages acceptable behaviour, decreases conflict, and adds to positive perceptions of the manager, which, in turn, increase employee work motivation and job satisfaction, and enhance employee productivity. When managers and employees perceive each other as trustworthy, they will have more confidence in each other's actions and decisions, and will believe that their relationship is honest, meaningful, and truthful. When employees are involved in decision-making, not only is their need to be heard satisfied, they also understand the reasoning behind the decisions, resulting in enriched motivation and satisfaction (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

The fourth-most important behaviour that employees identified was management's ability to effectively deal with conflict. Managers do not need to become conflict specialists; however, it is essential that they appreciate how and why people react to conflict situations the way they do. This background and understanding will assist managers to analyse conflicting matters, and to identify effective types of reactions that can turn conflict from a problem into an opportunity. It is recommended that management follows a cognitive conflict approach that concentrates more on tasks and problem-solving, whereby employees debate thoughts and ideas, and the focus is not on people.

When the emphasis is on problem-solving, arguments may become somewhat spirited, but the emotional tone will remain impartial, or even positive (Grant & Sumanth, 2009). This kind of conflict often leads to the creativity, liveliness, and problem-solving. It can also result in greater productivity, since participants not only come up with practical solutions to the problem at hand, but can also improve working relationships, which will help them resolve problematic matters going forward (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Managers go about implementing a cognitive conflict approach by engaging with staff and outlining a solution to the problem posed by the differences. They should manage feelings and emotions in

order to minimise negative outcomes. Moreover, they must use tactics that emphasise understanding the difficulties caused by differences. This can take a lot of energy and determination, as the problems often involve more than just factual arguments, and include emotions and personal viewpoints (Salamon & Robinson, 2008). It can take a lot of effort to truly understand another person's viewpoint, especially when one does not agree with it. Yet, once the manager has a deeper understanding of the nature and reasons underlying the differences, it becomes easier to reframe the problem, so that it changes from a matter of 'you against me' to 'us against the problem.' Such constructive outcomes will increase employee motivation, and strengthen the trust relationship between employee and manger (Grant & Sumanth, 2009).

Lastly, providing career guidance and counselling, as well as inspiring employees to reach their objectives, is considered important in increasing employee work motivation. Career guidance and counselling initiatives develop an employee's proficiency in self-knowledge, educational and occupational exploration, and career planning (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Management should make sure that a well-established developmental initiative exists that assists staff in making informed career choices. Managers should do their best to personalise learning platforms, expand employee viewpoints, encourage employees to reason through problems, step into employee shoes, be a resource for employee development, and offer feedback to employees, and also receive feedback from employees. At the same time, managers should strive to inspire their staff by setting an example in terms of behaviour and productivity. Managers can inspire employees by simply offering motivational support, setting an example by behaving in a consistent and fair manner, and by building credibility and trust. By doing so, managers encourage self-determination, and instil a sense of responsibility within employees.

6.5   CONCLUSION

Meyer and Maltin (2010) suggested that effective management is the key to co-ordinating and reconciling employee goals and needs with organisational requirements. Researchers on participative management have emphasised the importance of effective management behaviour in achieving employee satisfaction, motivation, and organisational success (Aguinis, 2009). The present study captured the foundation of effective management

behaviour within a South African service institution. The results revealed seven crucial management behaviours that can be applied to drive employee work motivation. Previous research confirmed the importance of effective management and the impact on management behaviour on work activities (Keller, 2008). However, no previous research ranked these management behaviours in order of importance. The present study revealed that providing performance feedback to employees can be considered the most important motivator within a South African service institution. In addition to the most important motivator, behaviours such as providing opportunities for growth and development, involving staff in decision-making, resolving conflict in a constructive manner, and guiding and counselling staff in terms of career growth are also crucial motivators. This study can assist management in developing and implementing management practices that will deliver maximum results in terms of work motivation and, ultimately, performance.

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