

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNION SERVICE DELIVERY,
MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONGST UNIONISED
WORKERS IN A MEDIA ORGANISATION IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

by

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ABSTRACT

Each year many organisations spend millions of rands on performance management systems or interventions on their employees. Many of these interventions contribute significantly to the bottom-line of such organisations, however, various environmental considerations should be considered as these may impact on employee performance, attitudes, motivation and output. Companies and organisations should be aware of such external environmental forces which might impact on employee morale.

The purpose of the current research is to determine employee satisfaction towards union service delivery and the effect it might have on their motivation. For the purposes of the research, the term customer applies to all union members being serviced by the union and enjoying benefits of negotiations at a centralised or de-centralised level. More generally, trade unions and collective bargaining are seen to enhance the dignity of workers and their control of their working lives, hence the important role trade unions play within the workplace. Service deliveries from a trade union to its members are an important element of employee behaviour and motivation. The research will aim to measure union member's (customer) satisfaction of the service they receive from their union and the impact it possibly has on motivation. The hypothesis of the research is that if workers are satisfied by the service they receive from their trade union their motivational levels will also be high. Alternatively, if workers are dissatisfied by the service they receive from their trade union, their motivation will be low.

A Biographical questionnaire, the Organizational Motivation Questionnaire (OMQ) and the Service Quality Questionnaire was administered to respondents to elicit responses on how the aspects of union service delivery impacts on their motivation in the workplace. The

sample of 75 employees were eliciting responses on how they perceive their union's service delivery and the impact it might have on their morale.

Statistical analyses involved both descriptive and inferential statistics (The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Regression Analysis, and Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)).

The results emanating from the current study indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision, general and work motivation and satisfaction in the technical department of a media organisation in the Western Cape. Furthermore, results show the nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) significantly explained the variance in work motivation and service-delivery. The study also shows a statistically significant difference in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure). Multiple regression analysis revealed these variables significant explained the variance in job satisfaction and motivation.

The results reveal some interesting insights into the relationship between union service delivery, motivation and job satisfaction amongst unionised workers in a media organisation in the Western Cape. Recommendations are made with respect to the management of this focal area of research.

KEY WORDS

Work Motivation

Employee Motivation

Service Delivery

Customer Satisfaction

Trade Union

Media organisation

Organisational Motivation Questionnaire

Service Quality Questionnaire

Hygiene Factors

Training & Development



DECLARATION

The researcher hereby declares that the thesis, “The relationship between union service delivery, motivation and job satisfaction amongst unionised workers in a Media organisation in the Western Cape”, is his own work and that all sources that have been referred to and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged with complete references.



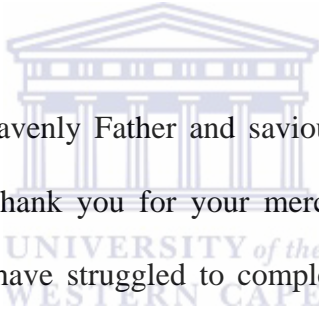
WARREN PAUL CHARLES

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“In all your getting, get understanding”

Proverbs

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

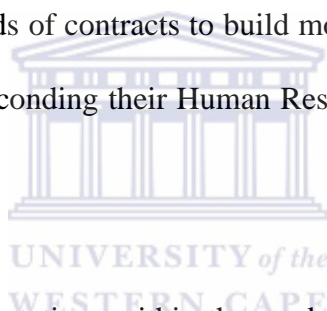
1.1 INTRODUCTION

In President Thabo Mbeki's state of the nation address in parliament on 04th February 2000 he made it very clear the ANC government would not tolerate workers opposition to its plans to offer South Africa as a low-wage investment platform for transitional corporations thus attracting much needed investment opportunities to our country. As President Mbeki spoke 1,450 striking auto workers were being fired at the Volkswagen (VW) factory in Uitenhage, near Port Elizabeth. Mbeki singled out the strike in his speech, denouncing it as illegal and unjustified and creating the wrong impression to our investment community. He further argued, the ANC's "standing in the eyes of the investor community cannot be held hostage by elements pursuing selfish and anti-social purposes" (Mail & Guardian, 2000. pg. 3).

The wave of industrial actions planned by COSATU and other public services union's provided a clear indication in union members expectations from their unions to deliver on a 12% annual wage increase, so much more that they were prepared to strike and stay away from work to get their demands. COSATU and its affiliates have a huge responsibility to ensure that their members expectations are met. The amount of industrial action in all sectors of the industry suggest within the South African labour market that unionism is here to stay for quite a while and that employers should find a mechanism to engage unions on all spheres to ensure healthy employer/employee working relationships within the workplace. The strike that

President Mbeki made mention to was affecting a large motor-corporation's export division, but ironically enough, the strike by the union members was not against the company as such, but more against the union, who the members had perceived as signing off hard fought rights and union leaders, members felt were selling them out to management (Ntuli, 2001).

For organisations to compete effectively, it is of paramount importance to know what the variables are that impact on their employee's motivation and performance, be it internal or external factors. The strike of the abovementioned union members had major ramifications for the company and country, resulting in losses and foreign investment of millions of rands of contracts to build motor vehicles, even resulting in the company's head-office seconding their Human Resources director from Germany to investigate the matter.



Employees have various expectations within the workplace, and for organisations to address and meet these expectations a thorough understanding of motivation is needed (Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2004). Bennet (1992, p. 132) defines motivation as “all the drives, forces and conscious or unconscious influences that causes an employee to want to be behave in a certain manner”.

Literature on motivation makes a clear distinction between content theories of motivation and need theories of motivation. Content theories examine what it is that motivates individuals to perform and seek to explain the different rewards that they seek in their work (Vecchio, 1988). Need theories attempt to pinpoint internal factors that energize behaviour (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004).

In many South African companies, employees decide to join unions, satisfying their need for affiliation. Employees believe that unions can for their part negotiate more favourable conditions on their behalf, thus resulting in joining organised labour movements. However, the unions' non delivery of worker's expectations could in turn lead to a dissatisfied and de-motivated workforce. Employees join unions, for economic needs, job-security and regulation, political reasons, social needs, self-fulfilment, to protect a skills/trade and for representation (Amos, Amos & Ristow, 2004.) Morea (1996, p. 1) states that "in the next decade South Africa will shift from a resources-economy to a service-based economy due to the rise in tourism and the need to compete in the world market."

This shift also applies to unions, who have to change from their adversarial approach to collective bargaining which they successfully used in the apartheid days, but their approach should now change to a co-operative approach if they want to successfully service their constituency, their membership (Finnemore, 1996).

Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2006, p. 61) posit the view that motivation "is the force that energises behaviour, gives direction to behaviour and underlies the tendency to persist, even in the face of one or more obstacles." Motivation can thus be seen as specific to an individual. Grobler et al. (2006) further argue that managers should attempt to meet the employee's important needs, or basic requirements for working productively.

Pinder (1998, p. 11) defines motivation "as a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration." Motivation it will seem is

certainly not the only factor that causes people to perform and to produce, since the performance level of an individual is influenced by a multitude of factors (Pinder, 1998).

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) define motivation as those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed. Managers have an important role to play in understanding these processes if they are to guide employees in accomplishing the organisation's goals and objectives.

Parker (2003) argues that world class organisations know and understand that committed, motivated and productive people have an impact on the bottom-line of an organisation. Strategically, human resources are seen as a partner in shaping a competitive workforce. Bussins and Spavins (2004) postulate that certain advocates of pay-for-performance systems argue that good systems motivate employees toward achievements that support corporate goals and strategies. The way people are treated inevitably determines if the company will prosper or even survive (Lawler, 2003). Oosthuizen (2001) supports the latter by arguing that improved productivity is dependant on whether an organisation has positively motivated employees.

Parker (2003) explains that an incentives scheme or reward and recognition programmes do not work well in isolation from other management practices. He states that incentives, irrespective of their nature, can help motivate staff towards higher levels of staff performance. He further explains that "they are further supported by other elements such as good working conditions, performance management, performance appraisals and training opportunities".

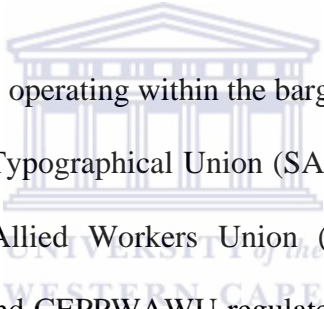
An organisation's performance management system should be user friendly and motivate employees to do better (Molefi, 2005). The expectancy model that was developed by Vroom and later expanded by Porter and Lawler and others, explains "motivation is a product of three factors; how much one wants a reward (valence), one's estimate of the probability that effort will result in successful performance (expectancy), and one's estimate that performance will result in receiving the reward (instrumentality) (Newstrom & Davis, 2002, p. 118). According to Robbins (2003) as cited in Fontannaz (2003, p. 10) for an organisation to maximise motivation, "people need to perceive that the effort they exert leads to a favourable performance evaluation and that the performance evaluation will lead to rewards they value." Thus based on the expectancy motivation model, if the objectives are unclear, and the measurements vague, it will result in employees working below their potential. The challenge human resources departments have, is to ensure that the organisation has an effective performance management culture (Molefi, 2005). She states that no system or tool can work effectively, regardless of how good it is, if the culture of the organisation is not conducive to performance.

1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The South African industrial / labour relations environment has been characterised by profound changes to its labour laws since 1994. Given these new changes companies, trade unions and government are faced with new challenges in building relationships with one another. These challenges have an impact on the shop-floor where employees engage management in the area of collective bargaining. The applications of all promulgated labour legislation, be it affirmative action policies or basic condition of services have a direct effect on employees' motivation, morale, attitudes

and behaviours. These factors could prompt a negative impact on the organisational climate and environment.

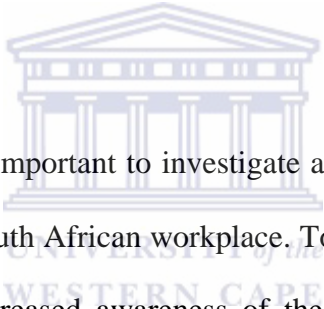
The industry the research is being conducted in includes the newspaper and magazine publishing and printing interests of Naspers. It also includes the internet activities of the organisation. This organisation is the largest publisher of magazines, one of the largest publishers of newspapers and the largest printer and distributor of magazines and related products in Africa. This company is a major player in the printing industry with more than five thousand employees and is not immune to such threats or challenges of trade unions within the workplace.



Currently there are two unions operating within the bargaining unit of the organisation which are the South African Typographical Union (SATU) and the Chemical Energy Paper Printing Wood and Allied Workers Union (CEPPWAWU). A collective agreement with both SATU and CEPPWAWU regulates the relationship between the parties. The general research aim is to measure if worker satisfaction towards union service delivery has an impact or effect on motivational levels in the workplace.

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

An important reason why studying the relationship between union service delivery and the impact it has on worker motivation, is that management and employers can ill afford external variables to negatively impact worker motivation which could have ramifications for workplace productivity. Another reason for studying union service delivery and worker motivation is that it will help employers to realise that unions within the workplace can play a pivotal and constructive role in liaising with its members, however, the converse could also be said that non delivery of essentials as seen from the members point of view can have a negative impact on employees within the workplace.



From that point of view it is important to investigate and research the topic of union service delivery within the South African workplace. To the industry, benefits of such a study could lead to an increased awareness of the impact of unions within the workplace, increased productivity and a better understanding of the impact of unionism within the workplace. In addition, companies could benefit by realising that unions can become a strategic partner within the workplace. The justification for the present study is in its potential social usefulness. However, the discovery of how union service delivery can impact workers positively or negatively can help human resources departments plan effectively ahead for training strategies and interventions.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The objectives of this study are to determine:

- (i) If there is a relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision, general and work motivation and service-delivery.
- (ii) Which factors contribute to work motivation and service-delivery.
- (iii) The impact of biographical variables on work motivation.

1.5 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses will be investigated:

H1: There is no statistically significant relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision, general and work motivation and satisfaction in the technical department of this media company.

H2: The nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) will not significantly explain the variance in work motivation and service-delivery.

H3: There are no statistically significant differences in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).

H4: There are no statistically significant differences in perception of service delivery and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The research was done 3 months prior to the annual wage negotiation process. The research was done on a particular area of the organisation, their technical environment, which include all facets of their printing presses and distribution channels. Due to various agreements within the industry, unions such as SATU and CEPPWAWU can only mobilise itself within the bargaining unit of this industry and these include only the technical staff and the lower remunerated employees in this case. The sample was specifically used because SATU and CEPPWAWU are well represented amongst the workers in this sector and industry

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the relationship between employee motivation, rewards and recognition and service-delivery; the aims and objectives of the study; the hypotheses of the study; as well as the limitations and benefits of the study. It provides a brief insight into the research study.

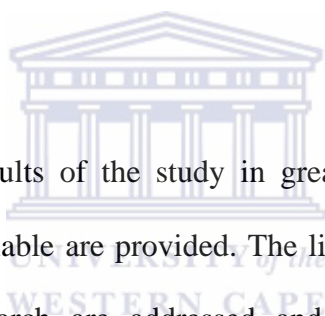
Chapter 2 provides an overview of the theoretical foundation that provides the premise of the study. This chapter provides an insight into these concepts by

focussing on previous research in this area and presents reviewed literature relevant to this study.

Chapter 3 elucidates the research design and methodology utilised in the research and the statistical methods used to interrogate the research problem with specific reference to sampling, data collection methods and the statistical techniques employed.

Chapter 4 unveils the research findings from the analysis of data collected during the study. The chapter gives a detailed analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration.

Chapter 5 describes the results of the study in greater detail. Comparisons with existing research, where available are provided. The limitations of the study and the implications for future research are addressed and the chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review endeavours to provide a theoretical background and framework on related studies based on motivation, service delivery and customer satisfaction. The literature review further provides constructive arguments and theories surrounding motivation and relevant research conducted on service delivery and customer satisfaction. The application of concepts relevant to the field on motivation and the various theories developed by authors in the past decades is also presented.

The literature review also addresses and explains best practices on how to deal with unions effectively and discusses appropriate models of motivation relating to service delivery and worker motivation. The study of human behaviour is a search for answers that may help managers to understand current behaviour and motivation to the extent to predict or control future behaviour (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

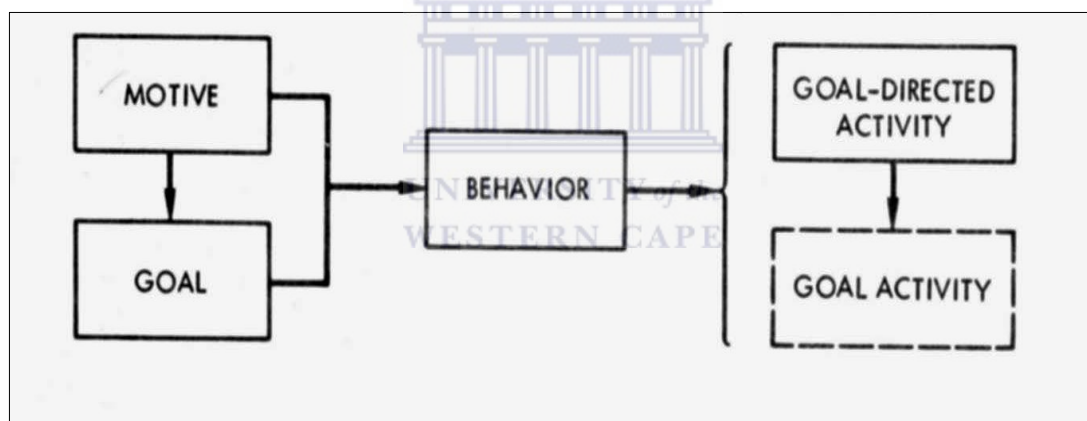
People differ not only in their ability to do, but also in their will to do, or in their motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). The motivation of people depends on the strength of their motives. Motives are the “why’s” of behaviour which arise and maintain activity and determine the general direction of the behaviour of an individual.

According to Johns (1992), theories of work motivation should explain:

- a) the conditions in which motivators are applied to employees;
- b) those cases in which employees appear to be self-motivated, the conditions under which either form of motivation might be more effective or more likely to occur.

Thus motivation has been commonly referred to as the process by which individuals are influenced to engage in particular behaviours. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) argue motives, goals and actions are the driving force behind the action of motivated or demotivated workers. The following diagram illustrates this:

Figure 2.1 : THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG MOTIVES, GOALS & ACTIVITIES



Source : Herchey & Blanchard (1999, p. 26)

In terms of the Hersey and Blanchard's (1999) model, the strongest motives produce behaviour that is either goal-directed or goal activity. Since not all goals are attainable, individuals do not always reach goal activity, regardless of the strength of the motive. Thus, goal activities are indicated by a dashed line. Thus in any individuals there might be different stimulants, which motivates, and those stimulants direct behaviour. In assessing needs, managers have to know their people, understand

what motivates them, they cannot just make assumptions (Kanungo, & Mendoca, 1994). When clarifying the issue of motivation of employees, Myers poses the following questions and the following answers were generated (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993):

- a) What motivates employees to work effectively?: *“A challenging job which allows a feeling of achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement, environment of the work itself, and earned recognition.”*
- b) What dissatisfies workers? *“Mostly factors which are peripheral to the job, work rules, lighting, coffee-breaks, titles, seniority rights, wages, fringe benefits and the like.”*
- c) When do workers become dissatisfied? *“When opportunities for meaningful achievement are eliminated and they become sensitised to their environment and begin to find fault.”*

2.2 DEFINING MOTIVATION

Various authors have given different definitions of motivation. Motivation is important as it explain why workers behave as they do. Work motivation can be defined “as the psychological forces within a person that determine the direction of a person’s behaviour in an organisation (George & Jones, 2002, p. 181). Robbins (1998, p. 168) defines motivation as “the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual needs.” In the organisational behaviour literature, work motivation is

considered a basic psychological process which explains why employees behave the way they do in the workplace (Grunenberg & Osborne, 1981).

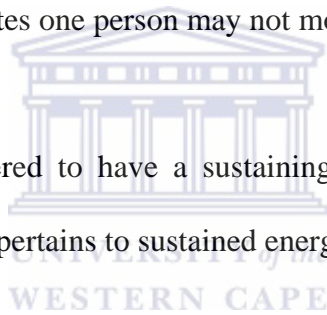
Campbell and Pritchard (1976, p. 6) define motivation in Steers and Porter (1979, p. 12) as “as a set of independent/dependant variables relationships that explain the direction, attitude, and persistence of an individual’s behaviour, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment.”

Shulze and Steyn (2003) postulate that motivation represents the complex forces and needs which provides the energy for an individual to perform a particular task. Thus, according to Dubrin (2005), motivation in a work setting is the process by which behaviour is mobilised and sustained in the interest of achieving organisational goals. Workers, whilst at work, are motivated when they actually expend effort toward goals attainment.

Pinder (1998, p. 11) defines work motivation in Muchinsky (2006) as “a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond individual’s being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration.”

Muchinsky (2006) considers the major definitions of motivation to have three components in common that encompass the nature of motivation, namely:

- (i) Motivation is regarded to have an energising effect on human behaviour. Muchinsky (2006) states that direction addresses the choices of activities employees make in expending effort.
- (ii) Motivation is being regarded as having a directing function. When a person carries out a task just for the purpose of being remunerated, the person is moved rather than being motivated (Saal & Knight, 1988). La Motta (1995) supports this statement and argues that motivation is simply the reason individuals have for doing the things they do when and how they do them. In society as well as within the workplace different things motivate individuals and that which motivates one person may not motivate another.
- (iii) Motivation is considered to have a sustaining function. Muchinsky (2006) states that persistence pertains to sustained energy over time.



In the context of work life it is important for any organisation if they want to manage their human capital (employees) effectively and efficiently to have a full and thorough grasp and understanding of what motivation is and what it entails. For a clear and better understanding, motivation is further differentiated in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

2.3 EXTRINSIC VS INTRINSIC MOTIVATION :

Any individual has two sources of motivation, either intrinsic (inside the individual) or extrinsic (outside the individual) (Rosenbaum, 1982). Various authors over the years have argued that motivation emanates from within the individual whilst others

contend that motivation is derived from outside the individual. Dubrin (2005, p. 102) postulates that the very simplest definition of motivation is the most powerful in that “people are willing to expend effort toward achieving a goal because it satisfies one of their important needs, self interest.”

2.3.1 INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

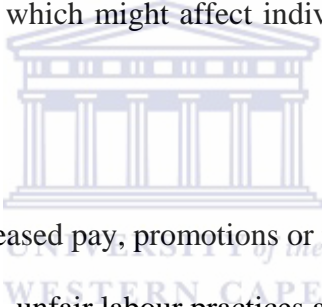
Just as people differ from each other in many different ways ranging from their age, attitudes, personalities, abilities, race and background so too is the kinds of work they find intrinsically motivating (George & Jones, 2002). Intrinsic motivation is usually self applied, and originates from the relationship between an employee and a task. Gellerman (1994) argues that intrinsic motivation comes from within. According to Pinder (1998, p. 166), “intrinsic motivation is based in the innate, orgasmic needs for competence and self determination.”

Rosenbaum (1982) postulates that the feeling of achievement and the attainment of a specific task or any other challenges are examples of intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic refers to those permanent needs usually within individuals usually built into their personality. George and Jones (2002, p. 184) state that “intrinsically motivated work behaviour is a behaviour that is performed for its own sake, the source of motivation is actually performing the behaviour.” Employees thus within a work situation will be intrinsically motivated by their work which gives them a sense of accomplishment and achievement. Performing a task and perceiving it as being worthwhile are a characteristic of an intrinsically motivated individual (George & Jones, 2002).

According to Dubrin (2005), motivating people or employees through interesting work is based on the principle of intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation focuses on the individual's beliefs about the extent to which an activity or task can satisfy their needs. Intrinsically motivated individuals have energy and passion for completing a certain task (Dubrin, 2002).

2.3.2 EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Extrinsic motivation as opposed to intrinsic emanates from outside, usually the environment (Gellerman, 1994). Extrinsic motivation includes opportunities and threats, or any other variable, which might affect individuals in reaching their goals. These might include:

- 
- a) Opportunities such as increased pay, promotions or more interesting work or
 - b) Threats such as jobs losses, unfair labour practices at work.

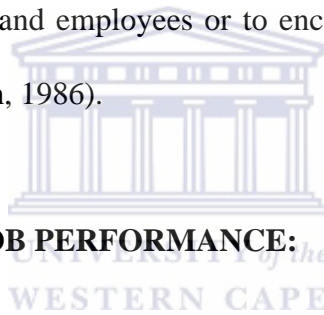
According to George and Jones (2002. p. 185), “extrinsically motivated work behaviour is behaviour that is performed to acquire material or social rewards or to avoid punishment.” Dubrin (2005) further argues that employees with extrinsic work values desire some of the consequences of working which may include, earning money, having status, social contracts, time-off from work and for family and leisure.

Individuals engage in work-related activities to attain some measure of rewards. Rewards, such as promotion, commission, and company status are extrinsic as they are being provided by the organisation. Stroh (2001) argues that individuals are already motivated and that such inherent motivation can and should be stimulated by

means of external motivational factors and forces that will enhance performance. Not so according to Dubrin (2002, p. 117), which states “extrinsic rewards can sometimes lower a person’s job-performances and be de-motivating, particular when a creative task is involved.” The appeal of these argues (Dubrin, 2002) can cause people to:

- I. Focus narrowly on a task,
- II. Rush through a job to get a reward,
- III. Regard the cash as drudgery that must be suffered to receive a reward.

Although a variety of objectives and purposes may be served, rewards are typically used to motivate individuals and employees or to encourage some desired action or behaviour (Arnold & Feldman, 1986).



2.4 MOTIVATION AND JOB PERFORMANCE:

Bennet (1992. p. 130) further defines motivation as “all the drivers, forces and conscious or unconscious influences that cause an employee to want to behave in a certain manner.” Motivational theories thus attempt to explain and predict observable behaviours. Thus according to Nelson and Quick (2003) motivation is the process of arousing and sustaining goal directed behaviour.

According to Moll (1990) as cited in Nel, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2004) employees usually function on three levels which are:

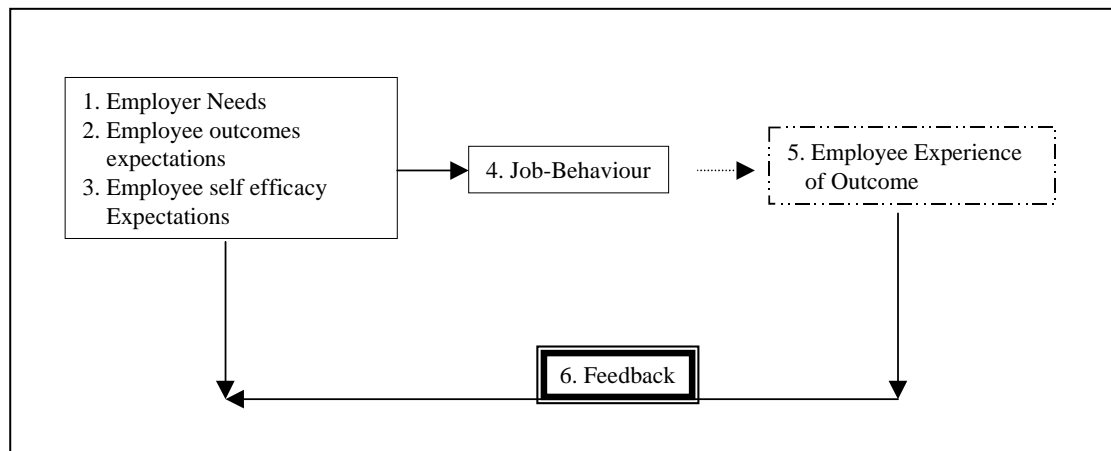
- I. Minimum level: doing less than what is required
- II. Expected level: doing what is required

III. Maximum level: doing more than what is required

Employees differ in terms of what is expected of them in the workplace. The employee who does less than what is expected is tardier and tends to be disciplined more often. Employees doing what is required do nothing more and nothing less. The third group of employees perform at a maximum level. They are prepared to go the extra mile, do more than what is required and put in extra effort to achieve goals.

Moll (1990) in Nel et al (2001) makes a clear distinction between motivation and movement. He argues that when employees are remunerated to complete a task and they are in actual fact being moved rather than being motivated in performing it. He further states that only when individuals performs a task because they enjoy it, they are motivated. Robbins (1998) sees motivation as a needs-satisfying process that further reveals that when an individual's needs are satisfied or being motivated by some or other factor (motivators), the individual will exert high levels of effort towards achieving organisational goals.

FIGURE 2.2: THE BASIC MOTIVATIONAL CYCLE



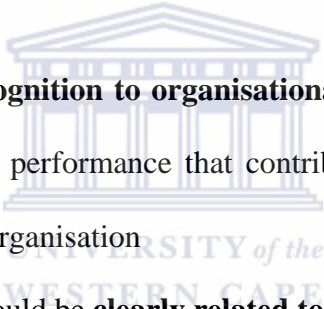
Source : Kanungo & Mendoca, (1994. p.16)

George and Jones (2002) postulate that job performance may contribute to workers being more satisfied with their jobs only if they are fairly rewarded for good performance. George and Jones (2002) further state that because motivation has to do with what workers do and how hard and diligently they go about it, perception may be that workers motivation can be confused with their job performance and that both are distinct aspects of behaviour in an organisation. According to Muchinsky (2006), performance is an evaluation of the results of a person's behaviour. However, managers should be cautious and careful in attributing the causes of low performance to a lack of motivation or visa versa. Managers within a workplace might overlook the real causes of performance problems, that is training or lack of resources and attribute low performance to low motivation.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) argue that motivation has a potential influence on performance and that motivation is an extremely important function of management.

A natural re-inforcer for employees at any level is to offer financial rewards and incentives for excellent or good performances. Dubrin (2005) argues that linking pay to performances generally motivates workers to work harder.

Motivating employees through reward and recognition programmes is another strategy in improving performance. Various companies have different recognition strategies in place as positive reinforcers. Reward and recognition programmes are a standard business practises in organisations and non-profit firms. Nelson (1994) states that individuals tend to be more strongly motivated by the potential to earn rewards than by the fear of punishment. He proposes the following guidelines:

- 
- I. **Link the rewards and recognition to organisational goals.** Formal and informal rewards should be given to performance that contributes to the attainment of the goals and objectives of the organisation
 - II. Rewards and recognition should be **clearly related to desired performance.**
 - III. **Parameters and mechanics should be clearly defined.** When the reward and recognition is given it should be clearly understood by all.

2.5 THE CONTENT OR NEED THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Content theories of motivation attempt to illustrate those specific effects that actually motivate individuals at work. Content theories examine what it is that motivates individuals to perform and seek to explain the different rewards that they seek in their work (Vecchio, 1988).

According to Mullins (1989), the major need or content theories are:

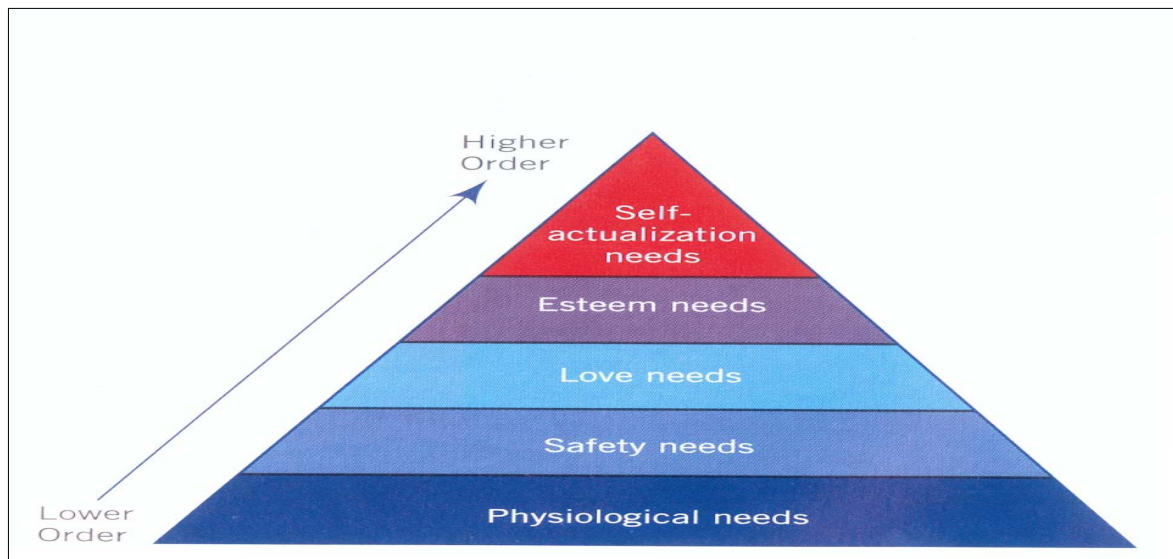
- a) Mazlow's hierarchy of needs model
- b) Herzberg's two-factor theory
- c) Alderfer's modified need hierarchy and
- d) McClelland's achievement motivation theory.

2.5.1 THE NEEDS HIERACHY THEORY OF MASLOW

Muchinsky (2006) states that one of the major theories of motivation was developed by Abraham Maslow, called the need hierarchy theory. According to Maslow the source of motivation is certain needs individuals constantly desire to better their circumstances. Muchinsky (2006) postulates after a need is satisfied, it no longer dominates behaviour, and another arises to take its place.

According to Landy and Conte (2007), Maslow suggested that every person has five basic sets of needs. Maslow argued that needs sets were hierarchically arranged and that a certain need set needs to be fulfilled before the next higher level need is activated. Dubrin (2005) further states that Maslow's hierarchy of needs arranges human needs into a pyramid shape with basic psychological needs at the bottom and self-actualisation needs at the top. Lower order needs must be satisfied to ensure an individual's survival or existence, whilst higher order needs are concerned with an individual's personal development or reaching one's potential.

FIGURE 2.3 : MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS



Source: Landy & Conte (2007. p. 342).

Muchinsky (2006) states that Maslow proposed five types of needs which are:

- (i) ***Psychological Needs*** which are the lowest order of human needs. These consist of basic survival needs like the need for water, food and shelter. (Dubrin, 2005). Should these be filled, the second level of needs emerges.
- (ii) ***Safety Needs*** represents those stability needs which might include financial security and also freedom from physical threats and dangers (Steyn, 2002). Within the context of the workplace, employees working in dangerous working environments would be motivated by the chance of working in safer working conditions.
- (iii) ***Social Needs*** would include belonging to a group, affiliating with people, giving and receiving love (Dubrin, 2005; Steyn, 2002). Managers can

contribute to the satisfaction of social needs by promoting teamwork and encouraging social interactions amongst team members.

- (iv) *Self-esteem needs* include self-confidence, recognition, appreciation, and the respect of one's peers (Muchinsky, 2006; Steyn, 2002). Managers can satisfy the esteem needs of employees by regularly giving feedback and praising their staff for work well done.
- (v) *Self-actualization needs* are at the top of the hierarchy of needs. Self-actualisation needs refer to the realisations of employees full potential and developing their capacity (Muchinsky, 2006; Steyn, 2002)

George and Jones (2002) state that there are various ways in which organisations can help employees who are at different levels of the hierarchy to satisfy their needs, whilst at the same time help achieving the organisation meet its goal and competitive advantage. Organisations can help employees meet their esteem needs by providing special reward and recognition programmes, whilst a program at work that provides child care can help with social and love needs (Dubrin, 2005).

Roberts (2005) cites the following reasons why Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is popular amongst managers:

- Its simplicity,
- Its implications are clear,

- Its created in which employees lower level needs can be met, whilst creating a platform for them to reach their full potential,
- The theory provides a pathway to self-actualisation.

Pinder (1998) cited in Muchinsky (2006) questions if there is such a thing as a hierarchy of needs. He states that although there might be evidence that various needs exist, there is less empirical support that needs vary in their relative importance.

2.5.2 HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Dubrin (2005) posits that the study of the hierarchy of motivation led to the two-factor theory of work motivation. Whereas the theory of Maslow applied the hierarchy of needs approach, Herzberg applied his theory to the workplace and job-design. In the 1950's Frederick Herzberg on the basis of his research developed the two-factor model of motivation (Newstom & Davis, 2002). In the research Herzberg primarily asked his respondents to think of a time when they especially felt good about their jobs and a time when they felt especially bad about their job and also to describe the conditions that led to those particular feelings.

The research found that employees named different types of conditions that produced good and bad feelings. The results of Herzberg's research and investigation concluded that all these variables that made people feel good or bad about their job can be grouped into one or two categories, thus the theory later becoming known as the two-factor theory of motivation (Grobler, et al. 2006; Spector, 2000). The two sets of

factors that influenced motivation and job-satisfaction he called hygiene factors and the other motivators.

According to Nel et al. (2004), hygiene factors are closely related to the working environment, which may include:

- *Organisational policy and administration* which would include all your guidelines and work related policies.
- *Equipment* would include tools to perform duties that is machinery and computer equipment.
- *Supervision*, includes all the skills and competencies to lead individuals
- *Interpersonal relationships with colleagues, supervisors and subordinates*, refers to the relationships employees have with colleagues and peers.
- *Salary* would includes remuneration, increases and performance bonuses.
- *Status* include symbols of titles, position and rank.
- *Working conditions* has to do with the environment employees work in and the availability of resources to complete expected task.
- *Work security* would include all those factors that create a feeling of job security for example, clauses in contracts that make provision for medical aid or job-losses.

Hygiene factors are also called maintenance factors; they do not lead to motivation but if they are not adequately met can cause dissatisfaction. George and Jones (2002) state that if hygienic factors are adequately met the employee is neither dissatisfied

nor satisfied. Nel et al. (2004, p. 314) postulate “the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but no dissatisfaction”.

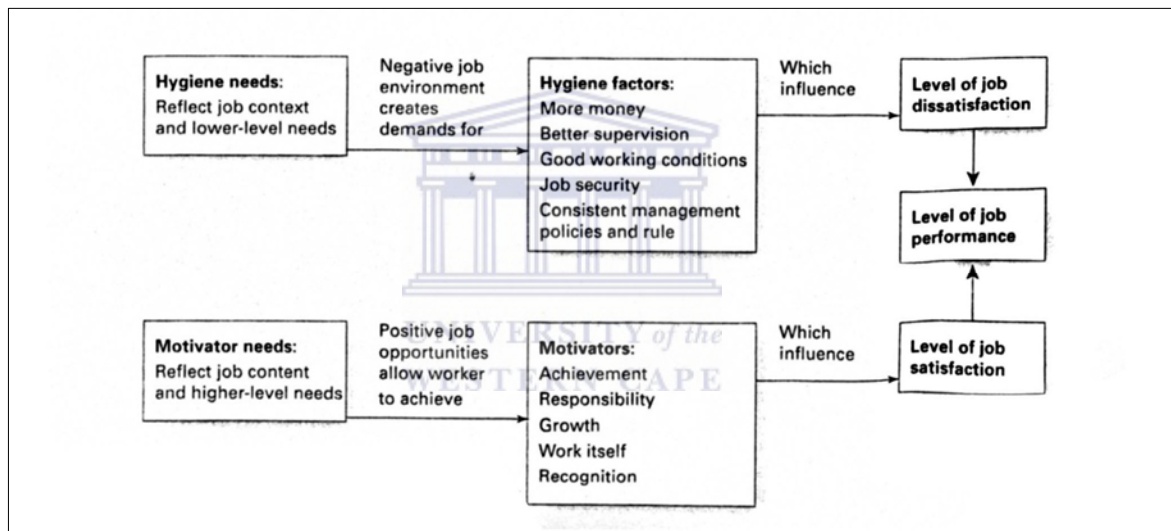
Only motivators can motivate people. Motivators are those elements which are closely related to the content and nature of the job (Nel et al. 2004). Motivators identified by Herzberg (Herzber, Mauser & Snyman, 1959; Herzberg, 1969; both cited in Amos, Ristow & Ristow, 2004) are:

- *Work itself* refers to the type of work either being creative or repetitive.
- *Opportunity to achieve in the job* refers to opportunities in the environment to complete a job to the best of one’s ability.
- *Recognition of achievement* can include formal recognition programmes and reward system or the acknowledgement for work well done.
- *Challenging work and growth* refers to opportunities given to individuals to grow in their existing jobs.
- *Responsibility of the job* is giving a person accountability and responsibility associated with the job itself.
- *Advancement* refers to career prospects and promotion opportunities.

Schultz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge, and Werner (2003) postulate that Herzberg’s research has shown that certain feelings led to employees feeling a sense of job satisfaction and other factors led to a feeling of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg’s research also found that employees who feel good about their jobs ascribed it to internal factors, whilst employees who did not feel good about their jobs ascribed it to external factors (Schultz et al., 2003).

Dubrin (2005) explains that the two-factor theory goes about how to design jobs as to make them motivational. Throughout his research Herzberg found that certain characteristics tend to be closely related to job satisfaction. Intrinsic motivational factors which includes achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility and growth possibilities tended to be related to job satisfaction whereas, the extrinsic factors he described as hygiene factors which are usually pay, status, job security working conditions and leadership are related to job dissatisfaction.

FIG 2.4 : FACTORS AFFECTING JOB SATISFACTION:



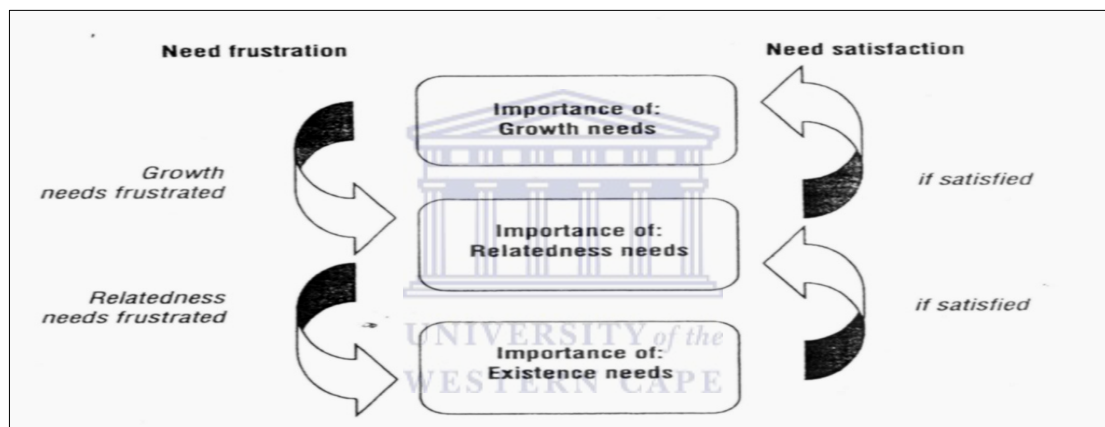
Source: Grobler et al. (1998. p. 219)

Herzberg suggested that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. Herzberg's research found that the removal of dissatisfying elements from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. Nelson and Quick (2003, p. 162) support this notion in stating that "a job in high motivation factors and low in hygiene factors leads to high employee motivation to perform, coupled with complaints about aspects of the work environment." Discontented and disgruntled employees may still be able to do an exceptional job if they take pride in the product or service.

2.5.3 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, Growth Theory (ERG Theory) is similar to Maslow's theory, in that needs are structured in a hierarchal manner and is based on the fulfilment of it (Amos et al., 2004). Other than Maslow, Alderfer argues that human needs can be arranged on three levels that is existence (E), relatedness (R) and growth (G) (Landy & Conte, 2007).

FIGURE 2.5: ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY



Source: Schultz et al. (2003, p. 57).

- (i) Existence needs are the basic needs for human survival, such as the need for food, water and clothing. Examples of these needs can be met or satisfied in organisations is when employees receive sufficient remuneration to provide for the basic necessities in life and by having safe working conditions (George & Jones, 2002).
- (ii) Relatedness needs are similar to Maslow's social needs. Relatedness seeks to address the need to have good interpersonal relations and sharing your thoughts and feelings. Examples of these needs can be met or satisfied in

organisations is when employers can give necessary support, respect and recognition (George & Jones; 2002; Schultz, 1982).

- (iii) Growth needs address the need for self development whilst being creative and productive in the workplace. Examples of these needs can be met or satisfied in organisations is when employers have a program and system in place where employees are continually developed and where employees are engaged in meaningful work (George & Jones, 2002).

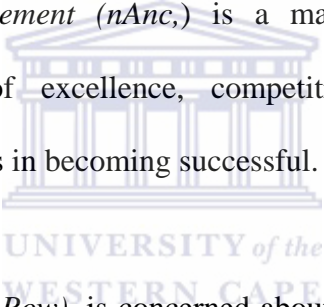
2.5.3.1 APPLICATION OF ALDERFER'S THEORY:

Amos et al. (2004) argues Maslow's needs hierarchy is based on the satisfaction progression assumption. Accordingly a lower level need must first be satisfied and met before progressing to next need level in the hierarchy. Alderfer contributed or added the frustration-regression hypothesis.

Newstrom and Davis (2002) states that the ERG model does not assume a rigorous progression from level to level, but it accepts that all needs might be active at any given time. Newstrom and Davis (2002) postulate that the model suggests that a person frustrated at either of the two high levels, may either consider to return to concentrate on a lower level and then later progress to a higher level. The ERG theory helps managers and supervisors to understand employee frustration. "It alerts managers to identifying the cause of the frustration, which may be due to one or another blockage to the person satisfying his or her needs at the next level" (Amos et al. 2004, p. 155).

2.5.4 MCCLELLAND'S 3 NEEDS THEORY

Amos et al. (2004, p. 159) states that “McClelland also perceived motivation in terms of needs, but unlike Maslow and Alderfer he did not see the needs in the form of a hierarchy in which individuals move up and down”. Nel et al. (2004), Schultz et al. (2004) and Nelson and Quick (2003) postulate that McClelland's research in motivation suggested that individuals are not born with a specific needs, but that they learn particular needs from their culture and society through their upbringing, and that these needs as McClelland argued are:

- 
- (i) The *need for achievement (nAnc)* is a manifested need that concerns individual's issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals and overcoming difficulties in becoming successful.
 - (ii) The *need for power (nPow)*, is concerned about making an impact on others, influencing others, and to be influential.
 - (iii) The *need for affiliation (nAff)*, the need for affiliation is concerned with establishing and maintaining intimate relationships with others.

Nel et al. (2004) state employees with a high need for achievement are usually your top performers in an organisation, and demonstrate the following behaviours:

- They set challenging yet attainable goals,
- They take calculated risks,
- They are problem solvers,

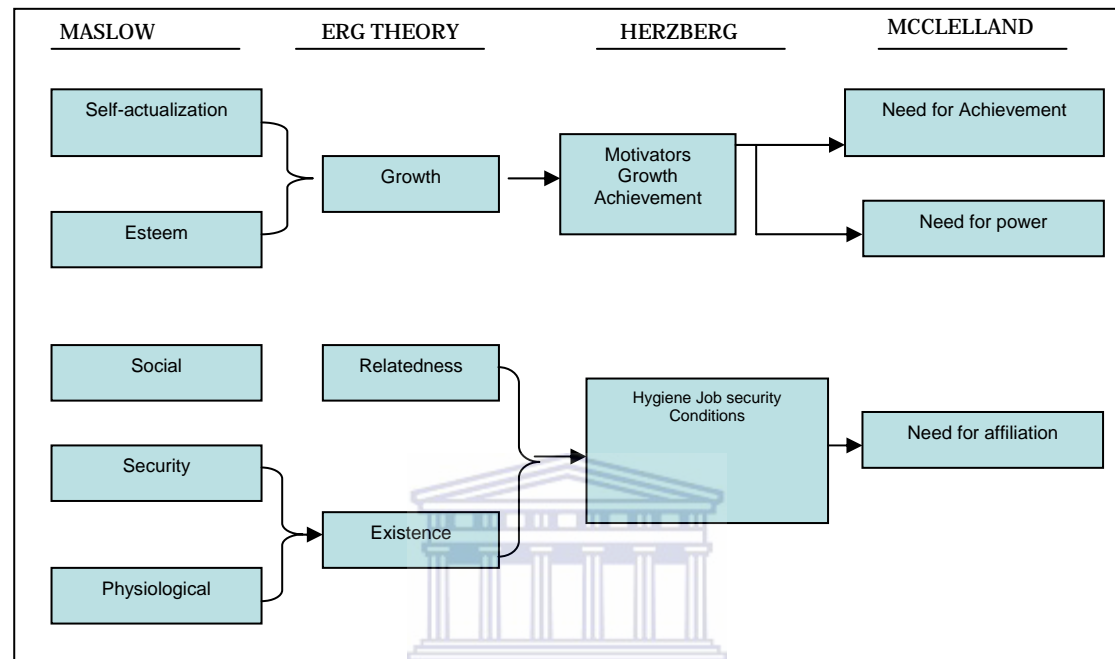
- They perceive money as an indication of their success.

Nelson and Quick (2003) suggest that each need as stated by McClelland has different implications for people's behaviour. For example, a senior manager, might have a strong need for power, a moderate need for achievement and a weak need for affiliation. Schultz et al. (2003) postulate that it is important for managers to identify employees who have a strong need for achievement as these employees are usually the top performers within the workplace. Nelson and Quick (2003) support these arguments in that it also suggests that employees with a high need for achievement seeks excellence in performance and enjoy competitive work activities.

Amos et al. (2004) suggest that with any needs theory, albeit Maslow or Alderfer, managers need to identify the needs that motivate employees and set about in meeting those needs. Achievement orientated employees actively seek out the skills and training that they require to facilitate the achievement of their goals.

2.6 COMPARISON BETWEEN CONTENT THEORIES:

FIGURE 2.6: A COMPARISON BETWEEN CONTENT THEORIES



Source: Amos et al. (2004, p. 160)

2.7 THE PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Luthans (2002) contends whilst content theories identify what motivates people at work, process theories on the other hand are more concerned with the cognitive experience that goes into motivation and more importantly the way they relate to one another.

Schultz et al. (2003, p. 61) argue that process theories of motivation asked the question “how is a person motivated?.” Oosthuizen (2001) states that these theories

provide insight into what directs behaviour towards a goal and the decision-making processes which leads to certain behaviour, whilst also arguing that behaviour is not only a result of needs.

Amos et al. (2004) postulate that process theories set about to describe the process by which behaviour is initiated, guided, sustained and stopped. Significant contributors which support these theories include Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's expectancy theory and Skinner's reinforcement theory.

2.7.1 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

According to Luthans (2001), the expectancy theory of motivation as proposed by Victor Vroom has its roots in the cognitive concepts of pioneering psychologist Kurt Lewin and Edward Tolman. Vroom projected the expectancy theory as an alternative to the content theory models as he felt it was inadequate in explaining the complex processes of work motivation.

Dubrin (2005) argues that according to the expectancy theory, motivation results from deliberate choices to engage in activities in order to achieve worthwhile outcomes. The premises and belief is that employees will be well motivated if they believe that a strong effort will lead to good performance.

George and Jones (2002, p. 193) state that the expectancy theory "focuses on how workers decide which specific behaviours to perform and how much effort to exert." Thus, workers will inevitably make choices within the workplace amongst various alternatives with levels of effort that accompany it.

Lawler (1994) and McKenna (2000, as cited in Amos et al. 2004. p.163) maintain that the “basic argument of the expectancy theory is that the strength of an individual’s motivation to exert effort is dependent upon the person’s perceived probability that the behaviour will result in a desired outcome, and on the value of the outcome to the person.” Vroom’s expectancy theory, as it relates to motivation in the workplace is referred to as valence theory.

Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2003, p. 141) explain that Vroom defines motivation “as a process governing choices amongst alternative forms of voluntary activity.” In Vroom’s view, most behaviours are under the voluntary control of the person and are consequently motivated.

Schultz et al. (2003) argue that the expectancy theory tries to attempt to answer the question in relation to how much effort an individual will expend to reach a particular goal or outcome. The writers mention that the effort an individual is likely to exert is dependant of three factors, namely, Valence, Expectancy and Instrumentality.

Newstrom and Davis (2002) support the above mentioned view of Schultz et al. (2003), arguing that $Motivation = Valence \times Expectancy \times Instrumentality$, whereas valence refers to the strength of a person’s preference for a particular outcome, Expectancy being one’s estimate that a particular effort will result in a successful performance, and Instrumentality being the individual’s perception that his/her effort will result in receiving a reward.

2.7.1.1 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE EXPECTANCY THEORY

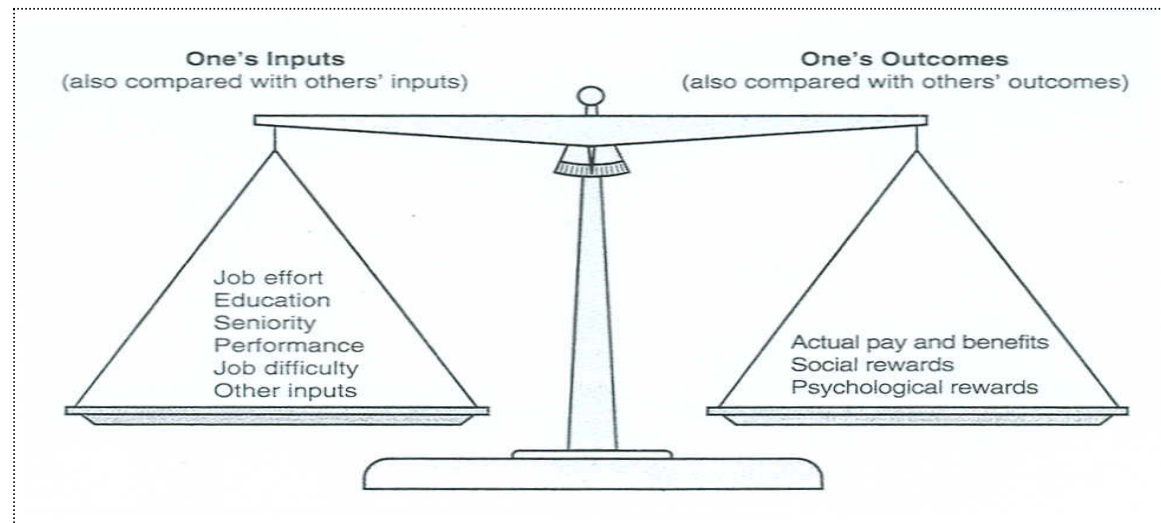
If employees expect that they will be successful in achieving the desired level of performance they will put in a bigger effort in order to perform. Amos et al. (2004) postulate that the Expectancy theory assists managers in understanding the cognitive thought processes of employees at work and the way these influence individual behaviour. The challenge for managers is to influence what employees perceive what will happen in the future and by doing this they are able to influence employee performance. Gibson et al. (2003) support this view in that they state that managers can use the Expectancy theory to develop their own motivational programmes. Managers can use reward and recognition programmes to their benefit if employees perceived that these programmes reward exceptional effort.

2.7.2 ADAM'S EQUITY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

The primary essence of the Equity theory is that employees compare their efforts and rewards with others in similar positions.

The Equity theory posits a view that most employees are concerned about more than just their needs being met but they also want their reward system to be fair. Newstrom and Davis (2002, p. 123) argue that “J. Stacey’s equity theory states that employees tend to judge fairness by comparing the outcome they receive with their relevant inputs and also by comparing this ratio with the ratios of other people.”

FIGURE 2.6: KEY FACTORS IN THE EQUITY ASSESSMENT



Source: Newstrom & Davis (2002, p. 123)

The Equity theory posits a view that employees will compare their inputs and outcomes with other individuals within the workplace. Newstrom and Davis (2002) state that inputs would include all those rich and diverse elements that employees believe they bring or contribute in the workplace, that is their experience, education, skills, knowledge, time and effort, whilst outcomes are the rewards and recognition they perceive in getting from their jobs, given the input provided, which would include, pay, benefits, job security, social rewards and the like. Gibson et al. (2003) argue that equity exists when employees perceive that the relationships between their inputs to their outputs are equal and similar to other employees within the workplace. Thus equity would exist when this ratio or relationship is not equal or proportional to one another.

Inequity or workers perceived lack of fairness exists when outcome/inputs are not proportional. George and Jones (2002) state that feelings of inequity can create tension and unpleasantness within the workplace and that there are two types of inequity.

- (i) Overpayment inequity, when individuals perceive their outcome/inputs are greater to that of their colleagues
- (ii) Underpayment inequity, when individuals perceive their outcome/inputs are less than their colleagues.

George and Jones (2002) proffer the view that when inequity is perceived employees will have a desire to restore equity which might include:

- (i) Change their inputs or outcomes,
- (ii) Change their colleagues outcomes,
- (iii) Change their perceptions of inputs and outcomes
- (iv) Change their focus of comparison, or
- (v) Leave their organisation.

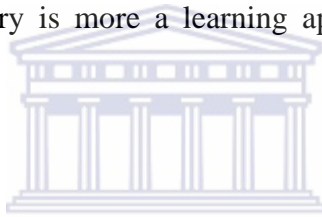
2.7.2.1 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE EQUITY THEORY

It is the perception of equity and inequity that drives motivation. Managers have to frequently monitor and assess workers perception of relevant outcomes and inputs and about their perceptions of their own standing of these outcomes and inputs (George & Jones, 2002). Amos et al. (2004) support this view in that the authors postulate that managers need to understand the process of individual perceptions and acknowledge

that workers would form their own perceptions of what they perceive what is equitable or inequitable rewards within the workplace.

2.7.3 SKINNER'S REINFORCEMENT THEORY OF MOTIVATION

The Reinforcement theory originated from the work of psychologist B.F Skinner after conditioning work he had done whilst working with animals. Dubrin (2005) contends that the Reinforcement theory posits a view that behaviour is determined by its consequences. Although supporting the argument that through the reinforcement theory that behaviour can be determined, Amos et al. (2004) postulate a view that Skinner's reinforcement theory is more a learning approach than strictly speaking motivation theory.



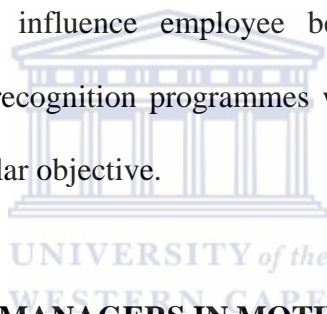
Robbins (2001 as cited in Amos et al. 2004) contends that this theory provides insights into the way and manner people learn but also provides valuable insights into what influences behaviour. The theory is a powerful tool within the workplace as it assists managers to understand human behaviour.

2.7.3.1 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE REINFORCEMENT THEORY

Schutlz et al. (2003) state that managers can try and shape the behaviours of subordinates either by using the following approaches:

- (i) Positive reinforcement serves as a mechanism to increase positive behaviour and will increase the likelihood that the behaviour will be repeated in the near future.
- (ii) Negative reinforcement is a mechanism of rewarding workers by taking away uncomfortable consequences.
- (iii) Extinction, refers to the withdrawal of something which the employee might consider positive, and,
- (iv) Punishment, refers to the presentation of a negative action (reprimand) to deter undesirable behaviour.

Managers can successfully influence employee behaviour by using the four approaches and reward and recognition programmes within the workplace to assist them in achieving this particular objective.



2.8 IMPLICATION ON MANAGERS IN MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES

Motivating factors are based on an individual's need for personal growth. When they exist motivating factors actively create job satisfaction. The question might be asked what is the evidence of de-motivated employees in the business:

- a) Low productivity
- b) Poor production and service delivery
- c) Strikes/industrial actions
- d) Breakdowns in employees communication and relationships
- e) Complaints about pay and working conditions

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1993), Herzberg argues that management should focus on rearranging work so that motivator factors can take effect. Herzberg suggested three ways in which this could be done, through work processes which might include:

- a) Job Enlargement
- b) Job Rotation
- c) Job Enrichment

2.9 DEFINING JOB SATISFACTION

Extensive research has been done on the topic of job satisfaction. Various authors and researchers have put down their understanding of the topic based on research supporting one another and in other instances contradicting one another. George and Jones (2002) define job satisfaction as the sum or collection of feelings that people (employees) hold about their current job. The authors further state that job satisfaction is one of the most well researched dimensions of work attitudes within the workplace and it has its importance in that it has the potential to impact and affect a wide range of behaviours within the workplace.

According to Locke (1976 cited in McKenna, 2006, p. 296), job satisfaction can be defined as “a pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences.” Weiss and Cropanzano (1996 as cited in McKenna, 2006) support the findings and definition of job satisfaction presented by Locke and posit a view that this particular theme has surfaced in most recent research findings on the topic.

Hulin (1991 cited in Judge & Church, 2000) supports the definition of job satisfaction as proposed by Locke, however the author places considerable emphasis on cognitive processes that determine job satisfaction, implicitly recognising the relationship between perception, evaluation and overall affects in judgements of job satisfaction. This notion has been challenged by various authors, and Organ and Near (1985, cited in Judge & Church, 2000) posit a view that job satisfaction reflects more cognitive than affective components. The authors state that in evaluating a job which determines an individual's satisfaction, cognition will be a determining factor in evaluating satisfaction of a particular job, whilst not placing major emphasis of the work role affect.

According to Landy and Conte (2007); Rue and Byars (1992); job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job. Individuals who have high job satisfaction will display positive attitudes towards their jobs, whilst individuals with low satisfaction will display negative attitudes towards their jobs (Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt; 2003). Dubrin (2005) postulates that job satisfaction is the amount of pleasure or contentment associated with a job. The author further explains that employees tend to experience high job satisfaction when they have positive attitudes towards job factors which include, the work itself, recognition and opportunities for advancement.

2.9.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION:

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) contend that although managers might think that satisfaction and motivation are similar given their synonymous terms, they in fact are

different. The authors argue that motivation is influenced by forward looking perceptions concerning the relationship between performance and tangible rewards, whilst satisfaction has to do with the feelings of individuals after receiving the reward. Thus they view satisfaction as a consequence of past events and whilst motivation is a result or consequence of their expectations about the future.

2.9.2 FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2003), Luthans (2002), McKenna (2006) and Robbins, et al. Roodt (2003), and propose a view that the following factors influence job satisfaction:

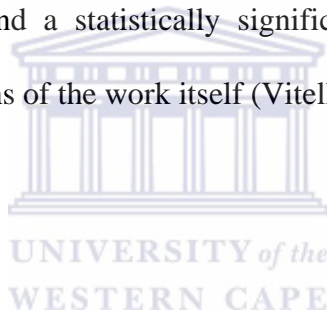
2.9.2.1 Promotion



Promotion refers to the availability of opportunities within the workplace for advancement. Robbins et al. (2003) state that “the chances of promotion and advancement in the organisation, not necessarily associated with hierarchical progress in the organisation, but including opportunities for lateral movement and growth positively contributes to job satisfaction within the workplace.” McKenna (2006) postulates that the level of satisfaction will depend on the acceptability of the system in use, be it a system based on merit or seniority. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) support this view in that the authors argue that employees perceive the relationship between job satisfaction and promotional opportunities on the basis in being treated equitably.

2.9.2.2 The job itself

The work itself entails the extent to which job tasks and duties are considered interesting whilst providing opportunities for learning, development and accepting responsibilities. Glisson and Durrick (1988 cited in McKenna, 2006) contend that the extent to which a job allows employees to use a number of skills and abilities in executing their duties contribute to job satisfaction. Luthans (2002) states that managers through the process of job enrichment, which could consist of designing jobs that would have a variety of work content and personal growth has a positive impact on employees job satisfaction. Research done within an information technology environment found a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of the work itself (Vitell & Davis, 1990).



2.9.2.3 Working Conditions

Working conditions refers to the extent to which the general work context facilitates job satisfaction. McKenna (2006, p. 297) argues that “where working conditions are good, comfortable and safe, the setting appears to be appropriate for reasonable job satisfaction.” The surrounding and environments workers work in, that is noise levels, temperature and crowdedness, and the way and manner the organisation treats the job holder, has a positive affect on job satisfaction (George & Jones, 2002). The authors cite the example of the working conditions where the Ford Motor Company and Delta Airlines argued that computers are an important aspect of the work situation which should be made available to employees at home, resulting in increased levels of job satisfaction amongst employees.

2.9.2.4 Remuneration/Pay

Pay consists of remuneration received for work done and the degree it is been viewed as equitable compared to other individuals in similar positions. Witt and Nye (1992 cited in McKenna, 2006) postulate that equitable reward and policies and practices concerning fair pay are a determinant of job satisfaction. Money and rewards help individuals to attain basic needs but are also instrumental in providing higher need satisfaction (Luthans, 2002). Employees usually view their remuneration or pay as a reflection of how management view their contribution to the organisation. George and Dubrin (2005) further argue that most people will be satisfied with a job that pays well and is very secure relative to one that pays poorly and expose workers to the ever present threat of lay offs through retrenchments. Research by Roberts (2005) confirms that there is a significant relationship between remuneration and job satisfaction amongst employees in a insurance company in the Western Cape.

2.9.2.5 Supervision/Leadership

Supervision refers to the abilities of supervisors and leaders to provide emotional and technical guidance and support with work related tasks. Gibson et al. (1994) comment that the supervisor's ability to demonstrate interest and concern about employees, positively correlates to job satisfaction within the workplace. Luthans (2002) cites research that reports that American employees generally feel that supervisors do not do a good job in providing advice and assistance nor communicating to workers on a personal or official level. The authors comment that a participative climate created by supervisors has a substantial effect on job satisfaction within the workplace. A study conducted by Packard and Kauppi (1999) found that supervisors who displayed a

democratic management style, that their subordinates had higher levels of job satisfaction compared to supervisors who displayed an autocratic management style.

2.9.2.6 Work group/ co-workers

The work group refers to the extent to which co-workers are supportive and friendly in contributing towards an individual's job satisfaction. Luthans (2002) supports this view by stating that co-workers have an effect on job satisfaction in that a co-operative co-worker serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to individual employees. George and Jones (2002) state that co-workers can have a potent influence on job satisfaction levels of newcomers to a job in an organisation. The authors cite an example that new employees who are surrounded by longer serving co-workers who are dissatisfied by their work, are more likely to be dissatisfied themselves with their jobs than are newcomers who are surrounded by co-workers who enjoy and are satisfied by their work.

2.9.3 RESULTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Warr (1990) and Wright Cropazano (2000 cited in Landy & Conte, 2007) argue that several researchers have found a positive association between satisfaction and general life satisfaction and feelings of well being. Since job satisfaction reflects the extent to which individuals like their jobs, various research stated that job satisfaction has its beneficial consequences to the workplace (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004; Luthans, 2002; McKenna, 2006).

2.9.3.1 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Kreitner and Kinicki (1994, p. 213) define organisational citizenship behaviour “as employee behaviour that goes beyond the call of duty.” Examples of such behaviour would include, care for organisational property, constructive statements about the department, protecting the organisation from theft, vandalism and other misfortunes. The authors cite a meta-analysis covering 7100 people and 22 separate studies revealed a significant and moderately positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. George and Jones (2002) posit a view that organisational citizenship behaviour is not required from employees but is nonetheless necessary for organisational survival and effectiveness.



2.9.3.2 Absenteeism

Robbins et al. (2003) postulate that there is an inverse correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism. This view is supported by Scott and Taylor (1985), Steel and Rentsch (1995) in McKenna (2006), stating that there is an inverse correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism, arguing when job satisfaction is low, absenteeism is high and the converse when job satisfaction is high, absenteeism will be low. Clegg (1985 cited in McKenna 2006) argues that high levels of job satisfaction do not guarantee low levels of absenteeism. The author posits a view that the relationship between job satisfaction absenteeism can be moderated by the importance of the job to employees. Whilst job satisfaction might be high, other variables like favourable sick leave policies, taking time off to attend to a domestic problem in the realisation that you will not lose pay will contribute to the moderate correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism.

2.9.3.3 Turnover

Newstrom and Davis (2002); Lee and Mowday (1989) cited in McKenna (2006) contend that if employees are not satisfied turnover will increase, and employees may become apathetic and decrease their productivity. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) argue that job satisfaction is inversely correlated to turnover, but the correlation is much stronger than their results between the correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism. Factors such as labour market conditions, length of tenure and alternative job opportunities are important considerations before employees decide to leave an organisation. George and Jones (2002) argue that other than absenteeism which is a temporary withdrawal from the organisation, turnover is a permanent form and usually consists of a carefully thought out process and the decision is not taken lightly. Luthans (2004) cites research that found that for women between 18 and 25, satisfaction is an excellent predictor whether they might change jobs. The author further states that as job tenure increases the possibility that individuals will leave their job, is less likely.

2.9.3.4 Employee Performance and Productivity

According to Luthans (2004) the satisfaction versus performance controversy has raged for years, however, research evidence suggest that there is no strong linkage between job satisfaction and productivity. The author cites a meta-analysis on research literature on productivity which found a 0.17 correlation between job satisfaction and productivity, finding that satisfied workers will not usually be productive workers. George and Jones (2002) support this view stating that job

satisfaction is not strongly related to performance, and at best a very weak positive relationship exist.

Contrary to the above, Judge, Thoreson, Bono and Paton (2001 cited in McKenna, 2006) do not support the above mentioned view. Ostroff (1992 cited in McKenna, 2006) postulates that when job satisfaction and productivity data are collected at an organisational level rather than an individual level, organisations with more satisfied employees tended to be more effective than organisations with less satisfied employees. According to West (1998 cited in McKenna, 2006), research conducted in the United Kingdom endorses the view that job satisfaction influences productivity.

2.9.3.5 Worker well being



According to Luthans (2004) highly satisfied employees tend to have better mental health, learn new job related tasks, have fewer job related accidents and file fewer grievances. George and Jones (2002) concur with this view, arguing that being dissatisfied in one's work for a major part of one's working life adversely effects well being and happiness.

2.9.4 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS IMPACTING ON JOB SATISFACTION

According to Farr and Ringseis, (2002); Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb and Corrigan, (2000); Witt and Nye, (1992) all cited in Landy and Conte (2007), research into job satisfaction has also investigated the impact of demographic variables on job

satisfaction. Biographical characteristics or determinants impacting on job satisfaction are discussed below.

2.9.4.1 Job satisfaction, Occupational Level & Educational level

Clarke (1996 cited in McKenna, 2006) states that education, in particular higher education qualified workers experience lower levels of satisfaction due to failure in meeting their job demands. The authors cite various reasons for these low levels of job satisfaction which include, work pressures, remuneration concerns and less than satisfactory career prospects.

According to Berns (1989) teachers with a master's degree in education were significantly satisfied than teachers with a bachelor's degree in education. However, a study conducted by Bowen, Radhakrishna and Keyser (1994) and research by Griffin (1984) found no relationship existed between educational levels and job satisfaction. Ting (1997) states that research done with federal government employees, confirms that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and educational levels of workers.

2.9.4.2 Job satisfaction and Age

According to Doering, Rhodes and Schuster (1983) and Warr (1992), research conducted to evaluate the impact of age as a biographical dimension impacting on job satisfaction, suggests that older employees tend to report higher job satisfaction than younger employees. This view is supported by Clarke (1992 cited in McKenna, 2006, p. 295) stating "there is a tendency for job satisfaction to increase with age."

McKenna (2006) postulates that older workers unlike younger workers being longer in the organisation have spent more time in their careers and in the organisation and manoeuvred themselves into more satisfying jobs. Morrow and McElroy (1987) contend that job satisfaction usually differs for individuals in terms of their various career stages in an organisation. The authors posit that job satisfaction is significantly positive in the maintenance stage, than in the early trial stage of a career.

2.9.4.3 Job satisfaction and Gender

Literature on the impact of gender on job satisfaction is not conclusive and reports different findings on this matter. Some studies suggest that females have higher job satisfaction than their male counterparts, whilst other research contends that males have higher job satisfaction than females, yet other findings state that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and gender (Greenberg & Baron, 1993; McNeely, 1984; Schultze & Steyn, 2003).

According to Clark (1996 cited in McKenna, 2006), women reported more job satisfaction than men. The author cites the 1991 British Household Panel Survey which reported that females are more satisfied than males in organisations. McNeely (1984) found a significant difference between employed women and job satisfaction as oppose to men, in that women were found to be more intrinsically satisfied than men.

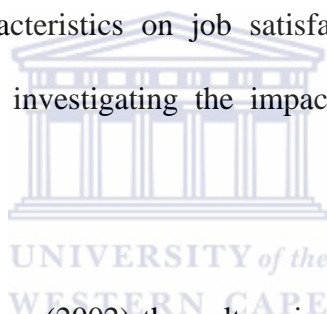
Contrary to the above findings, Greenberg and Baron (1993) report that women in general seem to be less satisfied with their work than their males counterparts.

Research by Al-Mashaan (2003) supports the aforementioned views, indicating that males in comparison to female employees report higher levels of job satisfaction.

Contrary to the above Greenberg, Golderberg, Hamil, O'Neil and Payne (1989); Rentner and Bissland, (1990); Oshagbemi (2000) found no significant differences between female and male job satisfaction levels in the workplace.

2.9.4.4 Job satisfaction, Race & Culture

Contrary to the various research and studies that have been conducted to examine the impact of biographical characteristics on job satisfaction, there appears to be a relatively dearth of research investigating the impact of race and culture on job satisfaction.



According to George and Jones (2002) the culture in which a person grows up can affect their levels of job satisfaction. The authors contend that workers who grows up in cultures like the American culture, which emphasise accomplishment and achievements are more likely to be satisfied with work that stress these characteristics and provide rewards and bonuses for these accomplishments.

Studies by Barber (1986) which examine the correlates of job satisfaction amongst human service workers, found no differences between job satisfaction based on race. Findings by McNeely (1987) failed to detect any relationship between job satisfaction and race between, White, Black and Hispanic social service employees.

2.9.4.5 Job satisfaction and Tenure

Tenure refers to the length of time an individual has worked for the organisation (Lum, Kevin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998). Numerous research studies investigating the relationship between tenure and job satisfaction seems to suggest that there is a positive correlation between the two variables (Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988). A study by Cano and Miller (1992) amongst agricultural teachers in Ohio supports the view that there is a relationship between the two variables, in that findings suggest that age, years in current position and total years in teaching were significantly related to job satisfaction.

According to Berns (1989) as the age of teachers in a job increased, so did their levels of job satisfaction. Mottaz (1986) gives an explanation for this phenomenon in that the author argues that employees tend to adjust their values to the conditions of the workplace the longer they are employed.

Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) posit that there is an inverse relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. The suggestion is that longer serving employees show lower levels of job satisfaction than those employed for a shorter period. Possible reasons for these low levels of satisfaction can be attributed to the fact that the longer individuals hold the same job and becoming bored, the more the likelihood in being dissatisfied.

2.10 CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

The labour relationship has two major players that are the trade unions and employers. The presence of a trade union has significant implications for the structure of an organization and management of employees. A union comprises any number of workers within an organization for the sole purpose of organizing relationships between themselves and employers. (Grobler et al., 2006). Unions also act collectively to protect their mutual interests through collective bargaining (de Cenzo & Robbins, 2007).

Grobler et al. (2006, p. 418) propose that employees can join unions for several reasons. They maintain that “through unionization, employees have a powerful collective voice that may be used to communicate to management their dissatisfactions and frustrations.” The collective bargaining and grievance procedures ensure that union employees will have their wants, needs and concerns brought before management without retaliation.

A customer could be defined as an individual or a firm that used a particular product in the past year (Nauman & Giel, 1995). In the service environment there has been a protracted debate whether customer satisfaction is a process or an outcome, but literature would suggest that there seem to be two schools of thought (Yi, 1991).

According to Oliver (1989) customer satisfaction is viewed as an outcome or as a result of the consumption process. He postulates that customer satisfaction “is not the pleasure of the experience, but the evaluation rendered that the experience was at least good as it was supposed to perceive.” For the purpose of the research customer

satisfaction is the interpretation of the service and consumers expectation of that particular service.

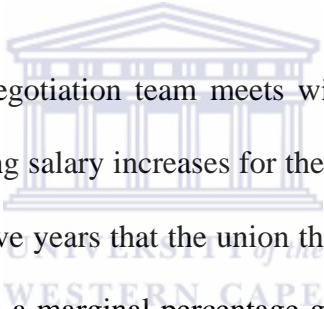
Overall satisfaction can thus be based on all encounters and experiences with a particular service firm (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994). Employees belonging to unions and which pay a monthly subscription fee can thus be viewed as the customer and the union being the service organisation, rendering a particular service to their client (members).

According to Christopher (1992, p. 23) “customers do not buy products they seek benefits.” The same could be said of employees belonging to trade unions. Employees seek continuous new benefits and the trade-union movement is seen as the vehicle to advance their needs. In the workplace it is commonly understood that a trade union would be the provider of a service and it has a responsibility in servicing their membership and to satisfy them to their point of need.

Mcnealy (1996), states that it is very important to identify customer needs and expectations. Bendix (2001) reports that in a unionised working environment these might include,

- a) Substantial annual wage increases
- b) Increased benefits
- c) Better negotiated conditions of service
- d) Sufficient representations in disciplinary hearings

Negative word-of-mouth between union members can have disastrous consequences on the credibility and effectiveness of a service organisations effort to attract new customer. The same can be said of the two unions, South African Typographical Union and Chemical Energy Paper Printing Wood And Allied Workers Union operating in the technical environment of the company where the research was conducted. Wage negotiations are a prime example of how employees perceived their union's ability to meet their mandates given to them to settle on high wage increases (Barker, 2003). Research has shown that customers dissatisfied with a service will divulge their experience to more than three other people (Horovitz & Jurgens-Panack, 1992).



Annually the organisations negotiation team meets with the leaderships of the two respective unions in negotiating salary increases for their employee's and members. It has been shown for the last five years that the union that settles with management on the best salary increase shows a marginal percentage growth in membership and this is usually due to the fact that either members of SATU migrate to CEPPWAWU or vice versa, perceiving that one union provides a better service during wage negotiations than the other. Smith and Lewis (1989) support this argument in that it reports that customer service expectations are constantly rising, while their tolerance for perceived poor service is declining. As a result customer are increasingly likely to migrate to competitors or opposing unions with a perceived higher service quality.

This in fact was the main reason why the National Union of Metal Workers of South Africa's members lashed out against their union leadership at the Volkswagen plant in 2001. Union members were disgruntled and annoyed against the union leaderships at the perceived lack of service and feeling that the union was signing away hard fought

rights won under the previous dispensation. Workers were actually striking against their own leadership which in turn negatively affected Volkswagen's export commitment to their world market, resulting in them losing millions of rands in contracts and finally dismissing 1300 workers for their participating in the "illegal strike".

2.11 SERVICE DELIVERY/QUALITY

Service quality has been defined as the degree and direction between customer service expectation and perceptions (Parasuraman, Zeithal & Berry in Newman 2001. p. 128). Thus Berry and Parasuraman (1991) further states that service quality is assessed by clients by comparing what they want or expect, and their perception of what they get. This indicates that service quality can be measured by either evaluating customer expectations or the extent of the importance that particular attribute carries which can be compared to one of the two perceptions of that particular service.

2.11.1 QUALITY OF SERVICE

The importance of service quality is seen in the effect that it has on customer satisfaction (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). Employees place a high demand on their union leaders to deliver effectively on improving their conditions of service.

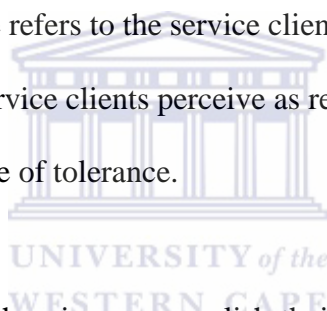
Service delivery is the effective manner and way the provider, in the case of this research, the trade union, can take their deliverables to their membership. These deliverables might include as earlier mentioned, substantial annual wage increases,

increased benefits, better negotiated conditions of service and sufficient representations in disciplinary hearings.

Cook (1997) further argues that a good service is an important factor of attracting and retaining customers. Clients expectations and perceptions determine the quality of service which will ultimately determine their overall satisfaction as well as the service experience whether it was of high or low quality (Donaldson & Toole, 2002).

Murphy (2001) states that there are three types of service expectations:

- (i) Firstly, desired service refers to the service clients would like to receive,
- (ii) Secondly, adequate service clients perceive as reasonable and acceptable,
- (iii) And lastly, clients zone of tolerance.



The mechanism through which unions accomplish their goals entails the principle of worker participation (Bendix, 1989).

2.12 WORKERS' PARTICIPATION AND INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY

The concepts of workers' participation and industrial democracy emphasise the need for cooperation between employer and employee and for an employee share in the decision-making processes of management. The introduction of more participative systems is a relatively new development and stems from shifting patterns in socio-political and economic ideologies, changing value systems and changes in the ownership structure of industrial organisations (Bendix, 1989). Employee participation has been the subject of extensive debate in recent times, largely as it has been strategically identified as

promoting higher morale, higher productivity and improved quality (Laubscher, 1991; Pons, 1993).

According to Slabbert, Prinsloo and Backer (1990, p. 12), employee participation can be defined as "the degree of influence which employees have on decisions affecting them." Participation is further defined as "giving employees whose work and working situation are affected by organisational decisions taken by others, a say in one or more phases of the cycle of making decisions (Thierry & de Jong, 1979 cited in Snelgar, 1988, p. 4). However, Salamon (1987, p. 12) succinctly defines workers' participation as "a philosophy or style of organisational management which recognises the need and right of employees, individually or collectively, to be involved with management in areas of the organisation's decision-making beyond that normally covered by collective bargaining". Jones and Maree (1989, cited in Cohen, 1991) postulate that the whole point about industrial participation is that it involves a modification to a greater or lesser degree of the orthodox authority structure, namely, where decision-making is the prerogative of management in which workers played no part.

2.12.1 PRINCIPLES OF WORKER PARTICIPATION

Workers' participation entails the involvement of employees in the organisation and planning of the work process, in the establishment of procedures and future processes, in the decision-making function at various levels and in the management and policy-making bodies of the undertaking (Armstrong, 1991). As such, it can take various forms and encompasses from information sharing and consultation to joint decision-making and shared ownership (Cohen, 1991).

Bendix (1989) argues that workers' participation is actually intended to promote the extension of industrial democracy in the enterprise, in the form of joint government by employees. In many developed systems participation and collective bargaining are supplementary processes. While free collective bargaining continues, participation is instituted to extend employee influence and to deal with aspects omitted in the collective bargaining process (Bendix, 1989).

The International Labour Organisation has reported on worldwide participation in decision-making and identified three general objectives behind the implementation of participative schemes. Ethical or moral objectives are linked to the increasing demand by workers for a better quality of work life. Sociopolitical objectives which seek to implement participatory schemes bring about democracy in the workplace or in the broader social context, while economic objectives relate directly or indirectly to the increasing of efficiency in the organisation. Participation is claimed to have a positive effect on the morale, motivation and psychological well-being of the worker, and this is translated into an increase in productivity and ultimately profits (Anstey, 1990; Cohen, 1991).

2.12.2 LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION

According to Torres (1991), participative management takes a variety of forms, and it is therefore useful to conceptualise it as a continuum involving low, medium and high levels of participation by workers. Participation may be instituted at various levels of the organisation, largely depending on whether it is task-centred or power-centred, whether it is aimed at participative work practices or at power sharing (Torres, 1991).

Task-centred participation means setting up consultative bodies where workers can debate with management the way in which their work is organised, the content of their jobs and greater intrinsic rewards (Cohen, 1991; Hawkins, 1979, cited in Giliomee, 1989; Slabbert et al., 1990), while power centred participation is concerned with the exercise of managerial prerogative and the balance of power between management and employees in the organisation's decision-making process (Armstrong, 1991; Maller, 1988, cited in Torres, 1991,).

Industrial democracy can be extended only by the introduction of power-centred participation. Usually the degree of employee share in decision-making increases as the level of power-centred participation increases. However, far-reaching democracy will not be introduced if power is shared only at the highest levels and there is no task-centred participation. Hence, for participation to be meaningful, it should first be introduced at the lower levels and thereafter extended to the higher levels (Bendix, 1989, Cohen, 1991).

2.12.3 FORMS OF WORKER PARTICIPATION

Anstey, 1990; Bendix, 1989; Cohen, 1991; Finnemore and van der Merwe, 1992; Torres, 1991; Slabbert et al., 1990 and Salamon, 1987 distinguish between direct and indirect forms of participation. In terms of direct participation, the employees themselves are involved in the activity or process, whereas, in the case of indirect participation, their involvement occurs through the agency of elected representatives. Decision-making, except at the very lowest levels or in very small undertakings, might be too time-consuming if it involved the direct participation of all employees, and hence participation takes place mainly by the indirect method (Bendix, 1989).

Direct participation tends to be job-orientated and involves improving efficiency and productivity. These forms may enhance job satisfaction, and organisational loyalty. They seek a greater humanisation of work, but have limited wider influence on the structures of organisational governance and the distribution of power (Slabbert et al.,1990).

2.12.3.1 INFORMATION SHARING

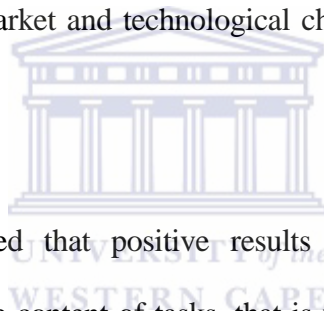
Wall and Lischerhorn (1977 cited in Slabbert et al., 1990, p. 12) argue that "participation refers to influence in decision-making exerted through a process of interaction between workers and manager and based upon information-sharing." Information sharing entails the dissemination of information and communication from management to employees and from employees to various levels of management. It is purported that the continual two-way flow of information alleviates the fear of the unknown on the part of employees and leads to greater acceptance, involvement, higher morale and increased commitment, which purportedly have a positive impact on productivity. However, in essence, information sharing does not constitute a participation method in the true sense, as it does not extend the employee's sphere of influence. Although management might take cognisance of the suggestions or grievances of employees, final decision-making power and authority is vested solely in the hands of the employer (Bendix, 1989).

2.12.3.2 INDEPENDENT WORK ORGANISATION

Bendix (1989) maintains that the concept of shared or independent organisation arose from the need to alleviate the alienation which resulted from the fragmentation of modern work processes, and is intended to motivate employees to become involved in tasks, to derive satisfaction from work, and thereby to become more productive. These

groups are provided with the necessary equipment and materials with which to execute their jobs and decide for themselves how the work is arranged, by whom each task will be performed, who is to lead the group and how long each task will take. In addition, an incentive may be added in the form of a bonus for increased productivity or a share of the profits made from additional units. Alternatively, employees might be given a budget of their own, with any excess profits being allocated to them (Bendix, 1989).

The increased emphasis placed on participative forms of work organisation is based on the sociotechnical system and involves job redesign. This has come about as a concern both to improve the quality of working life and adapt organisations and working arrangements to significant market and technological changes (Cohen, 1991; Salamon, 1987).



Some evidence has suggested that positive results are more likely to occur if participation is extended to the content of tasks, that is when jobs, individually or on a group basis, are redesigned, horizontally [job enlargement] and/or vertically [job enrichment] (van Assen & Den Hertog, 1984 cited in Snelgar, 1988).

The concept of an independent work organisation, if properly implemented, could increase employee satisfaction. It encourages individual responsibility and discretion, lends itself to immediate feedback, gives the employee the feeling of having made a significant contribution to the total process and allows for the necessary social interaction. Although, in some instances managers and supervisors may fear a loss of control and authority, this need not be the case, especially if leadership by management is effective and regular meetings are conducted. The independent work group allows

employees a modicum of control over their working environment, but participation, if it is restricted to this activity, remains at a relatively low level (Bendix, 1989).

2.12.3.3 PLANT LEVEL COMMITTEES OR COUNCILS

The use of plant level committees or councils constitutes one of the most popular forms of employee participation, but many such committees are not truly participative. Plant level committees may take many forms which are outlined below.

2.12.3.3.1 LIAISON COMMITTEES

Liaison committees consist equally of management and employee representatives and are essentially consultative in nature. They are designed to promote interaction between management and employees. However, the influence that such committees have is restricted due to the fact that management has an equal vote on these committees and any decision deemed unfavourable by management could be rejected. The issues dealt with by a liaison committee range from routine physical and hygiene-related matters to working conditions, workplace procedures and future organisational plans, but managerial representatives on these committees are under no obligation to agree to the requests or demands of the employee representatives, which detracts from the effectiveness of liaison committees as participative structures. However, liaison committees grant employees the opportunity to bring their interests to the attention of management, and they are consulted on matters of importance to them and to the company (Bendix, 1989).

2.12.3.3.2 WORKERS' COMMITTEES

Workers' committees are comprised solely or mainly of representatives elected by employees, and decisions taken by these committees are more influential than those of liaison committees. Although its scope could be unlimited, there is no onus on management to take cognisance of the suggestions, decisions and demands of such committees, thereby restricting its sphere of influence. On the other hand, there are instances where agreements between management and employees or the law obliges management to consult with these committees before taking decisions on certain major issues. A decision on the part of management in the face of objections from the workers' committee might then have legal implications. In these instances committees perform a more truly participative function. Workers' committees which are supported by the entire workforce could also exert significant pressure on management. Ultimately, the effectiveness of workers' committees, and also liaison committees, depends on management's commitment to participative practices and the perceptions employee representatives hold of their roles. Where there is true commitment to participation, consultation and cooperation, committees can prove very effective (Bendix, 1989).

2.12.3.3.3 SAFETY COMMITTEES

In addition to other committees formed, typically management and employers may decide among themselves to form other kinds of specially designated committee, the most prevalent of which deals with matters of health and safety. Health and safety is a real concern for all employees, and employees are entitled to be represented either in liaison safety committees or worker committees established specifically to deal with this issue. Depending on the circumstances, worker representatives act merely in a

consultative capacity, while in others they have extensive decision-making powers (Roustang, 1983; Singleton, 1983 cited in Anstey, 1990).

2.12.3.3.4 SHOP STEWARD COMMITTEES

Although shop stewards are the trade unions appointees at a plant, they are also the elected representatives of the majority of employees. Where there is strong shop steward presence, there is a propensity for management to consult with the shop stewards' committee prior to taking major decisions affecting employees, if only to prevent repercussions from the union. If plant-level bargaining is prevalent, shop stewards will be engaged in collective bargaining, but they will also present employees' grievances and problems to management for discussion and mutual problem solving. Thus, they tend to act in a dual capacity as collective bargaining and participative agents and they could resent the institution of other participative structures, in the face of their own organisation (Bendix, 1989; Finnemore & van der Merwe, 1992).

2.12.3.4 CO-MANAGEMENT BY WORKERS

Co-management by workers, as a system of participation, is practised in a limited number of Western countries. Although participation is granted and legally entrenched on supervisory boards or boards of directors, the actual management or day-to-day conduct of the organisation is entrusted only to professional managers. In a few isolated undertakings, management allows co-decision-making by elected employee representatives, but even here there is usually not parity in numbers and the amount of shared decisions is restricted. If full co-management of the organisation were to be introduced, employee representatives would share in decisions of all kinds, such as the

decision to dismiss or discipline another employee or manager, to extend or curtail operations or to cut back on wages. Worker self management refers to workers being in the majority in decision-making bodies and in particular in decision-making at the top level of the workplace. It refers to management being appointed by, accountable to and dismissable by workers (Bernstein, 1983 cited in Torres, 1991).

In those instances where co-management is practised, employee representatives share in some, but not all, of these decisions. However, management may perceive shared decision-making at managerial level as an encroachment on managerial prerogative. This resistance could be echoed by unions, who may fear the joint responsibility, possible role conflict and co-option of employees involved in such a system (Bendix, 1989).

2.12.3.5 CO-DECISION-MAKING ON SUPERVISORY BOARDS

Co-decision-making by employees on supervisory boards or boards of directors is common in a number of Western European countries. These boards decide on general policy for the enterprise and its management team, but usually do not function in an executive capacity, that is, they are not involved in the actual day-to-day running of the enterprise. However, where these systems do operate, it is feared that, if worker directors are involved also in the management function, there will be continual confrontation between employee and managerial representatives, and that urgent decisions may be delayed. It is argued that, while it may be right to involve employees in strategic decisions and the establishment of overall organisational policy, a lack of financial backing, managerial expertise and dilemmas of authority of control result in ineffectiveness (Anstey, 1990).

Representation on supervisory boards is rarely on an equity basis. Most commonly, employee representatives constitute one third of the board, the other two thirds being made up of directors elected by the shareholders. Alternatively, the remaining directorial seats could be divided between shareholder and independent experts. The appointment of worker-directors to supervisory boards does bring about participation at the highest decision-making levels of the enterprise. A more balanced perspective is achieved and more equitable decisions may be taken, since worker directors are able to represent the interests of employees at this level and to put forward alternatives to managerial proposals. In essence, such worker directors share in controlling and supervising the functions and policies of management. However, the fact that parity representation is not granted limits the degree of influence which can be exercised by worker directors. It also reflects the belief that, if disagreement exists, the final decision should rest with the shareholders, or at the least with shareholders and appointed experts. Co-decision-making at supervisory board level, as it is practised, may greatly extend the influence of employees in the undertaking, but it does not grant them an equal say or an active part in the day-to-day conduct of the undertaking's affairs (Bendix, 1989).

Management may regard the worker director primarily in terms of establishing a coalition between employees and management. Worker directors could contribute their views and experience and improve the quality of discussions and decisions, secure greater employee commitment to the decisions taken at board level and reduce conflict by making employees more aware of the problems and constraints which face management (Salamon, 1987). Trade unions may however, take the view that the introduction of worker directors would detract from their role as countervailing power to management and inhibit their ability to challenge management decisions (Finnemore & van der Merwe, 1992).

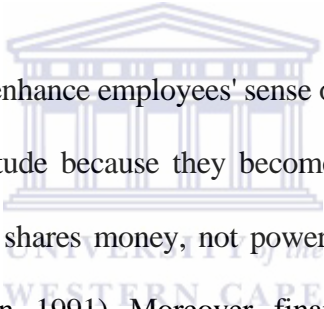
2.12.3.6 PROFIT SHARING SCHEMES

Profit-sharing, as a method of employee participation shifts the emphasis from a share in the decision-making and work process to a share in the financial rewards earned by employers and employees while engaged in economic activity. Profit sharing schemes provide for a fixed proportion of company profits to be paid to all employees, either individually or to a fund established for the benefit of the employees. Schemes of this nature are intended to bring about a fairer distribution of wealth. They may also act as incentive to employees to cut costs and increase productivity and could result in greater co-operation arising from the perception of mutually created gain. However, unless profit sharing is accompanied by other participative practices, the employee does not gain control over his working life and participation, in the decision making sense is not achieved. The share of profits fluctuates with the economic performance of the organisation and may not provide a stable income over time. Hence, morale may be affected as well as productivity (Bendix, 1989; Cohen, 1991 and Slabbert et al., 1990;).

2.12.3.7 SHARE OWNERSHIP SCHEMES

Share ownership schemes are intended to counter the employer-employee dichotomy by making employees also the owners of industrial property or, more specifically, part owners of the company for which they work. If carried to the full, share ownership schemes would eventually allow employees to become their own employers. Under the share ownership schemes employees are encouraged to buy shares or are granted shares in the company. It is believed that, even more than in the case of profit-sharing, share ownership encourages commitment to the organisation and eradicates employer-employee conflict. It is also argued that the position of the shareholder allows the

employee to participate in decision-making at the highest level. In practice, employees have not proved to be enthusiastic about share-ownership. One reason for this is the fact that share ownership does not bring about immediate concrete results, in the form of an improved standard of living. Thus, particularly where employees perceive themselves as economically deprived, the preference may be for direct, economic rewards rather than for intangible investments. Another reason for non-acceptance is the inability of employees to perceive in share-ownership any increased opportunity for employee participation in decisions or for control of the work situation. Consequently, shareholding schemes are likely to succeed only where employees subscribe to the same ideologies as employers (Anstey, 1990).



It is argued that such schemes enhance employees' sense of identity with the organisation and possibly change their attitude because they become part owners of the business. Financial participation merely shares money, not power, authority or decision-making within the organisation (Cohen, 1991). Moreover, financial participation on its own, cannot advance industrial democracy, since worker influence is generally limited as minority shareholders (Slabbert et al., 1990).

Of greater significance to organisations intending to implement such systems involves the argument proposed by Koopman (1986 cited in Slabbert et al., 1990, p 11) that "without employee participation in decision-making, share ownership does not generate changes in employee motivation, loyalty or productivity."

2.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter introduced the concept of motivation and highlighted the salient motivational theories relating to job-satisfaction. Furthermore it provided a detailed explanation on job-satisfaction, factors influencing it, as well as the consequence and results of it within the workplace. From the literature review it is evident that job-satisfaction has been extensively researched and studied and the findings highlighted.

The chapter concludes by expounding on service delivery and customer satisfaction and how it relates to a unionised working environment.

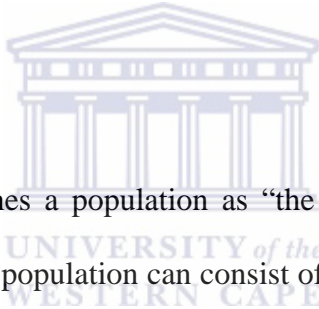


CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter focuses primarily on addressing how the research problem was investigated. It aims to identify the research design, the sampling method, selection of respondents, the biographical data of the respondents, various data gathering instruments (questionnaires), their reliability and validity and the statistical techniques used to analyse the data to assess the hypotheses generated for the purpose of the study.

POPULATION



McNabb (2002, p. 104) defines a population as “the set of all elements for which measurements are possible. A population can consist of products, workers, customers, firms, prices or other items about which the decision maker or manager is interested.”

The population for the study consisted of all technical employees of a media company in the Western Cape (Paarden-Eiland) and Eastern Cape (Port-Elizabeth), who are responsible for ensuring that newspapers are printed and distributed daily. The technical unit’s population consisted of 155 employees, who either belong to SATU or CEPPWAWA, trade unions operating in that particular environment. At the time that this research was undertaken SATU had 87 members in the population and CEPPWAWU 68 members.

All positions in the population are graded by using the Paterson Job Grading method, and most of the positions are held by males. Furthermore, posts within this organisation are classified on the basis of occupational categories (job-grades) as indicated in table 3.1 below.

| Job Grade | [B] Black | [C] Coloured | [D] White | Grand Total |
|-------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|-------------|
| | | 3 | | 3 |
| A1 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 8 |
| A2 | 1 | 3 | | 4 |
| B1 | 4 | 47 | 8 | 59 |
| B2 | | 8 | 3 | 11 |
| B3 | | 3 | | 3 |
| B4 | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| B5 | | | 1 | 1 |
| C1 | | 11 | 19 | 30 |
| C2 | | 5 | 10 | 15 |
| C3 | | 1 | 5 | 6 |
| C4 | | 1 | 5 | 6 |
| C5 | | | 1 | 1 |
| D1 | | | 4 | 4 |
| DM | | | 2 | 2 |
| Grand Total | 10 | 85 | 60 | 155 |

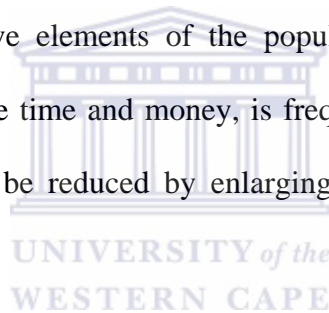
Table 3.1. Employee profile of a technical unit (printing press) of a large media company in South Africa, sourced from their HR-System, Dynamique.

3.2 SAMPLE

McNabb (2002, p. 103) defines a sample as “a portion of the population.” He further states that a sample is chosen as a representative of the entire population. Huysamen (1997) refers to a sample as a subgroup of cases from the population.

SAMPLING DESIGN

For the purpose of this research, a non-probability sampling technique was used. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1999, p. 88), “non-probability sampling refers to the case where the probability of including each element of the population in a sample is unknown, that is it is not possible to determine the likelihood of the inclusion of all representative elements of the population in the sample”. Non-probability sampling can save time and money, is frequently used in social sciences and their disadvantages can be reduced by enlarging the sample (Bless & Smith, 1999).

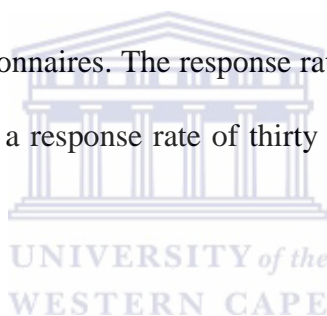


CONVENIENCE SAMPLING

A convenience sampling method was used, which according to Leary (2004), refers to a sample of participants that are easily available. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) postulate that convenience sampling makes no pretence of identifying a representative subset of a population, and may be appropriate for less demanding research problems. There are no attempts to control bias and units are taken as they arrive on the scene or as they are represented to the researcher (Leedy, 1997).

A total of 155 questionnaires were made available for all employees in the population. The technical environment of the company is a heavily unionised environment but the co-operation of the union leadership was given at a transformation committee workshop. Of the hundred and fifty five employees in the business unit most of the technical positions, such as printers operators are represented by the South African Typographical Union, whereas CEPPWAWA organises themselves amongst the assistant staff of the workforce, which are usually the workers with no formal tertiary or technical education. The total amount of employees in the population and their various levels of occupation are represented in Table 3.1.

Of the 155 questionnaires that were made available to the population, 75 respondents returned the completed questionnaires. The response rate for this study was (48.38%). According to Sekaran (2001) a response rate of thirty percent is acceptable for most studies.



The researcher relied on the production managers for their assistance in the distribution and administration of the questionnaires as most of the employees worked continental shifts.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The biographical information of the respondents (sample) for this study is represented in graphical format and explained.

GENDER

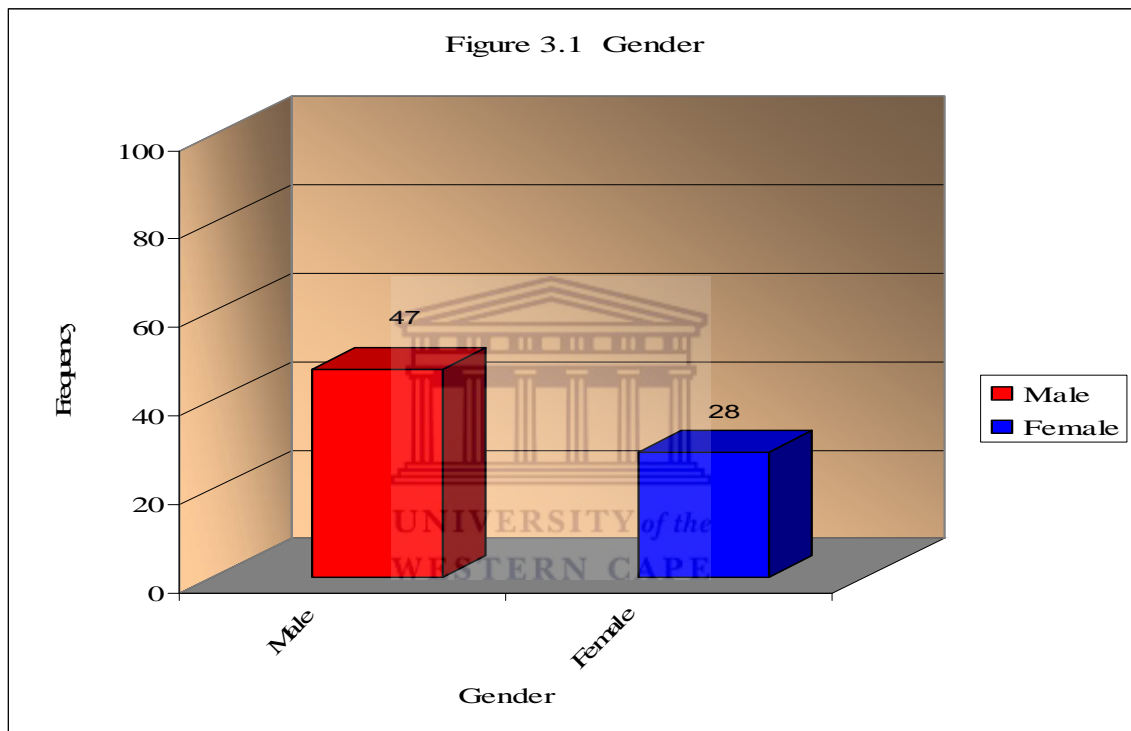
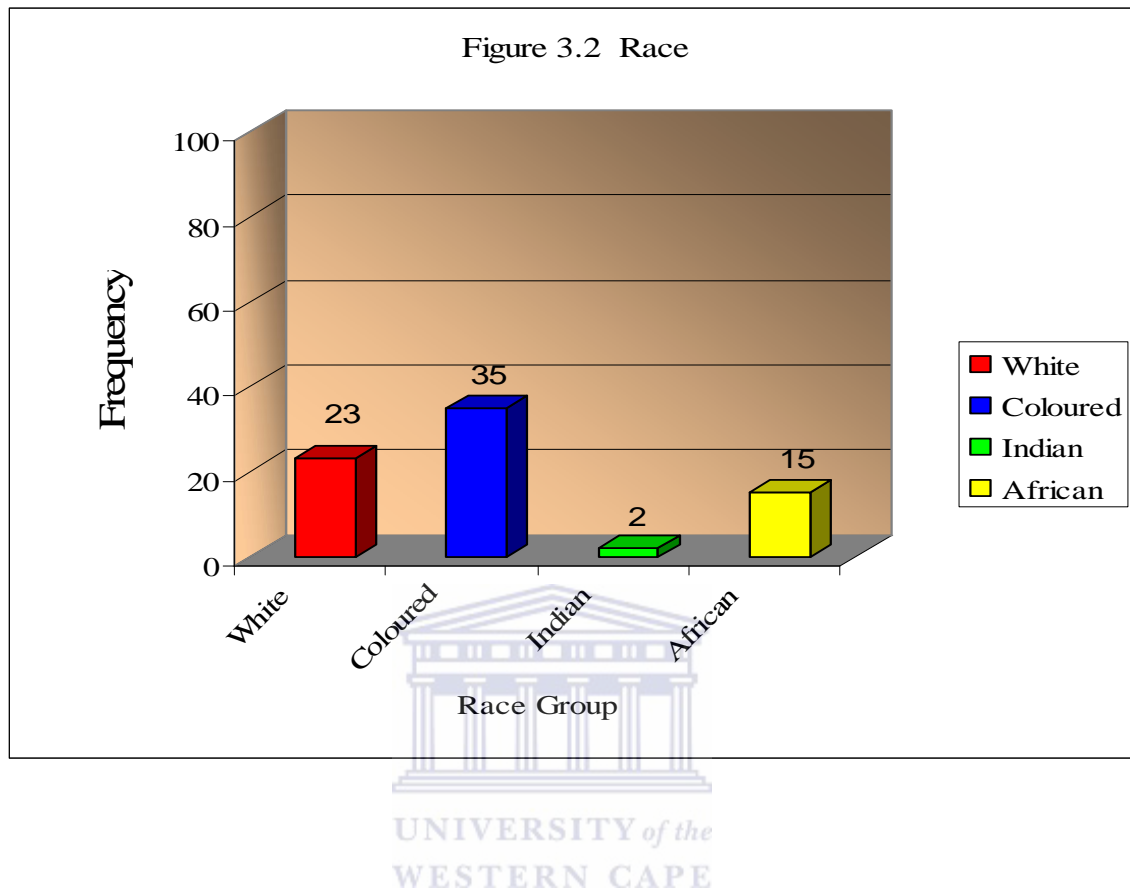


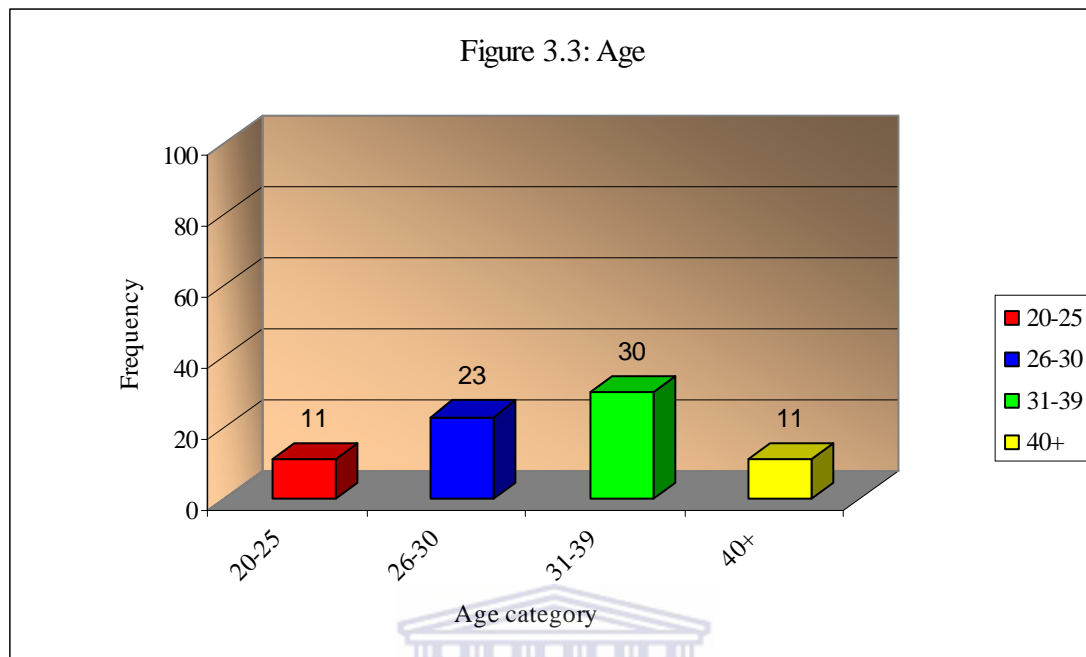
Figure 3.1 reflects that 63% (N=47) of the respondents in the sample are male and 37% (N=28) of the respondents are female.

RACE



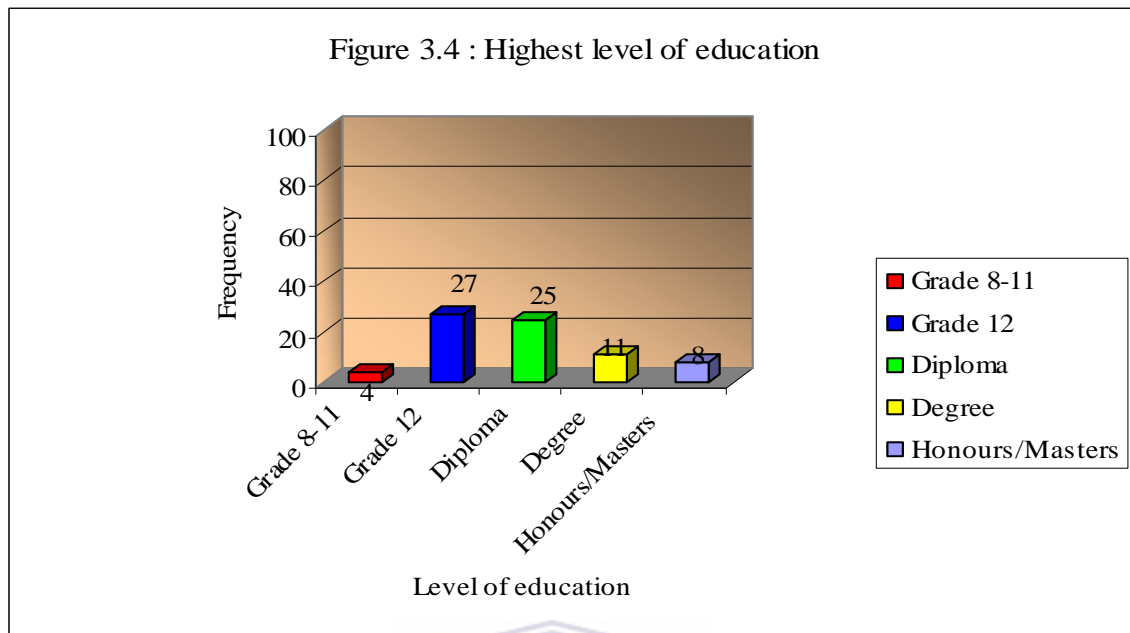
As illustrated in Figure 3.2 above, the racial composition of the sample comprises 3% (N=2) Indian respondents, 30% (N=23) White respondents, 46% Coloured (N=35) and 21% (N=15) Black respondents.

AGE



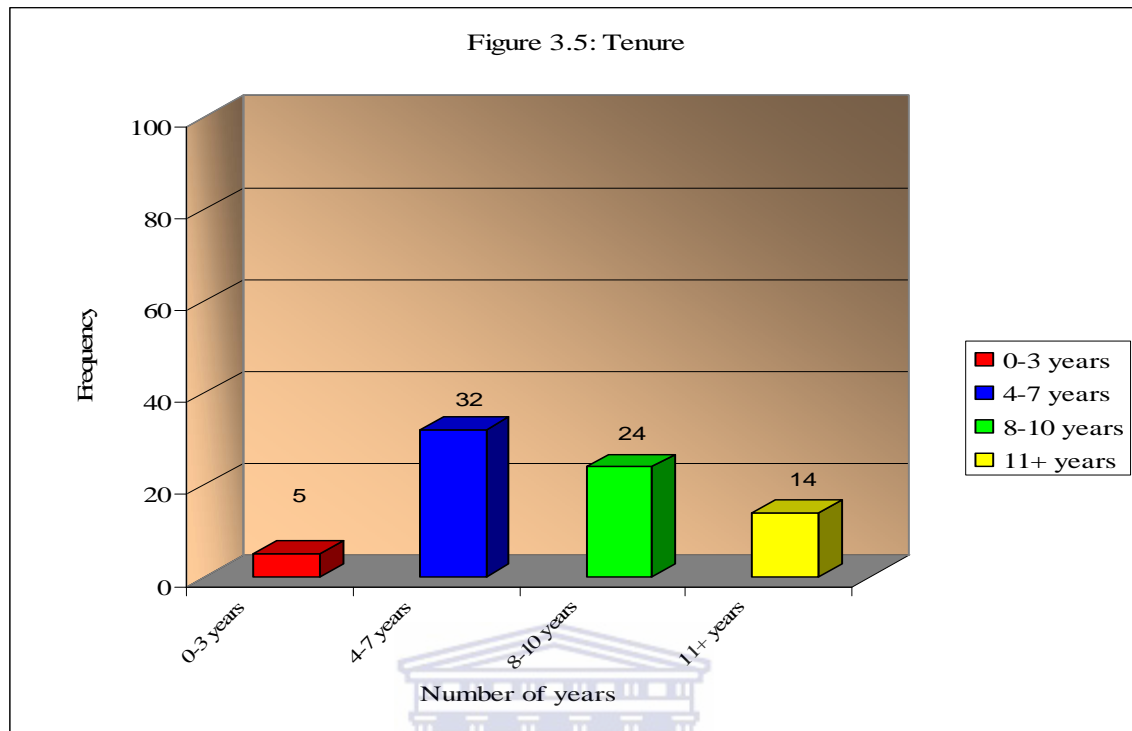
As reflected in Figure 3.3 above, the majority of the respondents (40%; N=30) fall within the age grouping of 31 – 39 years. 15% (N=11) of the respondents were 25 years or younger, while 14% (N=11) of the respondents were 40 years or older. Twenty three respondents (31%) were between 26 and 30 years.

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL



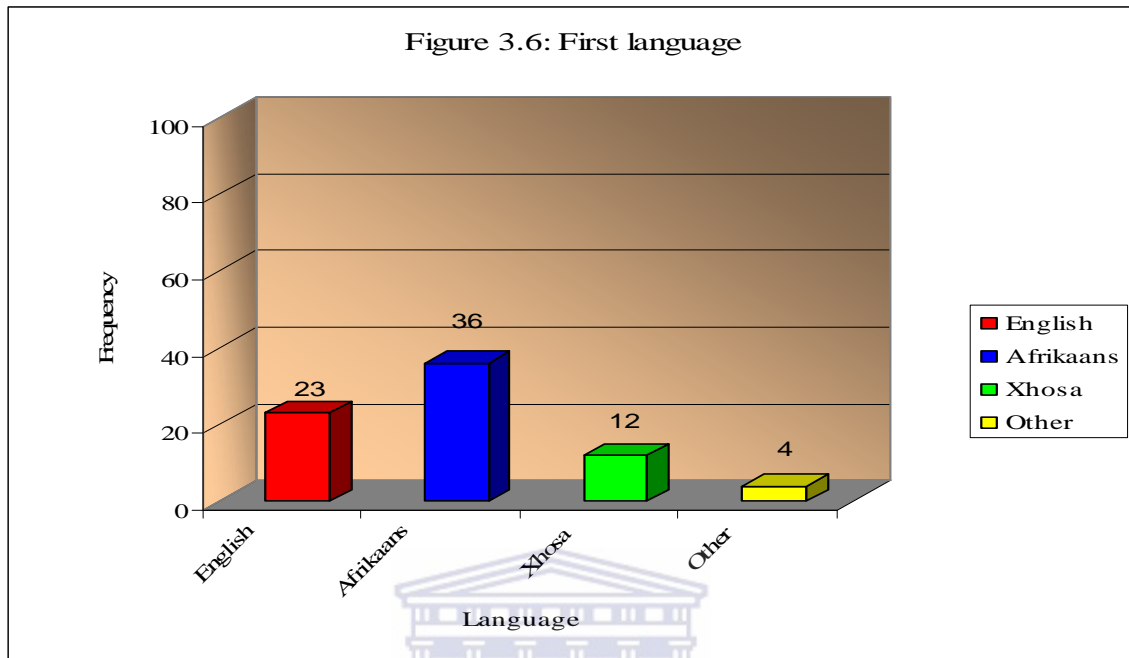
As reflected in Figure 3.4 above, the majority of the respondents (36%; N=27) possess a Grade 12 qualification, whilst (33%; N=25) possess a National Diploma. Furthermore, 5% (N=4) and 15% (N=11) have a Grade 8-11 and a degree qualification respectively. A total of 8 respondents (11%) have a Post Graduate qualification.

YEARS OF SERVICE



This variable assessed the years of service of respondents. It can be viewed that a total of 5 respondents (7%) have equal or less than 3 years service, while only 18% (N=14) of the respondents has more than eleven (11+) years service. Furthermore 43% (N=32) and 32% (N=24) of the respondents has 4 to 7 years service and 8 to 10 years service respectively.

LANGUAGE



As reflected in Figure 3.7, the majority of the respondents, 49% (N=36) speak Afrikaans, 30% (N=23) English and 16% (N=12) Xhosa. Furthermore, 5% (N=4) of respondents speaks an unspecified language.

3.3 DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENT

A quantitative method of data gathering was used for the purpose of this research, and a questionnaire was used as the measuring instrument. According to Patten (2001), the use of questionnaires has advantages in that it provides for an efficient way to collect data, yields responses that are easy to tabulate and are very economical to administer. The data gathering techniques used included a biographical questionnaire, the Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire as set out by De Beer (1987) and a questionnaire to measure worker's perception of unions.

3.3.1 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The biographical questionnaire was a self-developed questionnaire that encompasses specific personal biographical information of respondents which include gender, language spoken, marital status, age, race, job classification, education level, qualifications, job grade and tenure.

3.3.2 WORK SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire as set out by De Beer (1987) incorporates the sixteen factors of Herzberg's two-factor theory. The questionnaire consisted of nine dimensions that impact employee satisfaction and motivation.

3.3.2.1 THE NINE DIMENSIONS ARE AS FOLLOWS:

The dimensions (De Beer, 1987) are:

1. **Work content:** investigates the respondents feelings about the type of work they do.
2. **Payment:** examines respondents' satisfaction with their salaries.
3. **Promotion:** probes the opportunity that the organisation offers for promotion.
4. **Recognition:** investigates whether the respondent was receiving the recognition and feedback for the jobs they perform.
5. **Working conditions:** were elicited to ascertain interpersonal relations and opportunities to mix with colleagues.
6. **Benefits:** examines whether benefits such as pension, medical schemes and leave was satisfactory.
7. **Personal:** investigates the respondent's feelings towards their job.
8. **Leadership or supervision:** probed the level of satisfaction with the manager.
9. **General:** probed if the respondents had considered leaving the employ of the organisation and hence, their level of satisfaction with the organisation.

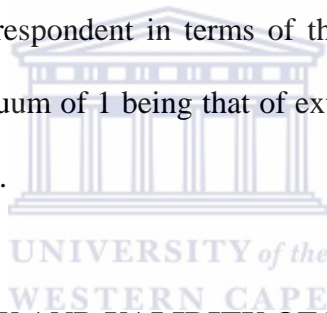
3.3.2.2 QUESTIONNAIRE STRUCTURE

According to Prinsloo (1996), the questionnaire consists of 43 positively stated items, and has a number of possible responses from which the respondent could select the one which best suited their feeling or attitude at that given time.

The selected responses were coded on a three-point scale:

| | | |
|----------|---|---|
| True | = | 1 |
| Not sure | = | 2 |
| Untrue | = | 3 |

The respondents were requested to mark their chosen responses with an X. A total score is calculated for each respondent in terms of the nine categories. Individual scores are plotted on a continuum of 1 being that of extreme satisfaction, and 3 being that of extreme dissatisfaction.



3.3.2.3 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

“Reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed. Validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the instrument measures, what it is supposed to measure” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 28-29).

De Beer (1987) conducted an item analysis to measure the inter-item consistency of the Work Motivation and Satisfaction Questionnaire. This provides an indication of the consistency of responses to all the items delineated in a measuring instrument.

The Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficients for the subsections of the Work Motivation & Satisfaction are as follows: Work content ($r = 0.78$), payment ($r = 0.86$), promotion ($r = 0.84$), recognition ($r = 0.90$), working conditions ($r = 0.77$), benefits ($r = 0.84$), my leader/supervisor ($r = 0.72$), general ($r = 0.75$).

The internal consistency of the Work Motivation and Satisfaction questionnaire was determined by computing the coefficient alphas, conducting an item analysis and factor analysis. Prinsloo (1996) reported a coefficient alpha that is consistently high, ranging from .82 to .93, with a median of .90 for the instrument.

Prinsloo (1996) postulates the results of the item analysis provided indication that each item had a positive correlation with the total score for the Work Motivation and Satisfaction Questionnaire, with the average correlations ranging from a low of .42 to .74, with a median correlation of .64. This suggests that the 43 items of the Work Motivation and Satisfaction questionnaire are relatively homogenous with respect to the underlying attitude construct they measure (Prinsloo, 1996). Likewise, the factor analysis indicates that the items are measuring a single common underlying construct (Prinsloo, 1996).

The reliability of this instrument is determined with the aid of the SPSSX-programme in conjunction with Cronbach coefficient-alpha (Prinsloo, 1996). The calculated coefficient-alpha is 0.82, which suggests a strong positive item-homogeneity in this measuring instrument, signifying an indication of test reliability.

3.4 PROCEDURE FOLLOWED TO GATHER DATA

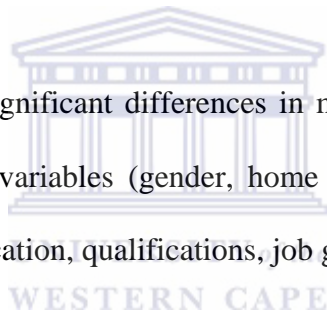
This section describes how the researcher gathered the relevant data for this study. Permission was obtained from the Senior Talent Manager to administer the questionnaires. The researcher is employed at the company where the study was conducted and the support of the Production Manager was elicited to ensure the effective administration of the questionnaires. The support of the local union leadership was also requested and obtained as they had the influence on the shop floor in encouraging their members to complete the questionnaires.

Each questionnaire was accompanied with a covering letter, introducing the researcher and the intended purpose of the research. Furthermore, respondents were made aware of the ethical considerations of the study and were assured that their responses would be treated with the utmost confidentiality, and only group data that was analysed would be presented. The format of the questionnaires was explained and outlined. Given the fact that most of the respondents in the population worked continental shifts, which included continuous periods of night shift and long periods of dayshift, accompanied by extended periods of off time to rest, a month was set aside to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaires were placed in a box on a table as the employees were about to start their shift, and a marked box for the returning completed questionnaires was placed in front of the Senior Productions Manager's office. A pamphlet was also distributed as a friendly reminder to employees to participate in the research and to complete the questionnaire.

3.5 STATEMENT OF THE HYPOTHESES

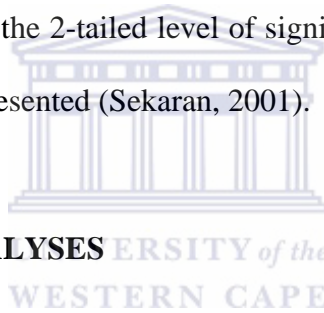
- I. There is no statistically significant relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision, general and work motivation and satisfaction in the technical department of this media company.
- II. The nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) will not significantly explain the variance in work motivation and service-delivery.
- III. There are no statistically significant differences in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).
- IV. There are no statistically significant differences in perception in service delivery and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).



3.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

3.6.1 DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 13 was used for all statistical analysis and calculations. The descriptive statistics utilized are based on frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. Furthermore, inferential statistics based on examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research are presented. The upper level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 5%. All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2001).



3.6.2 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

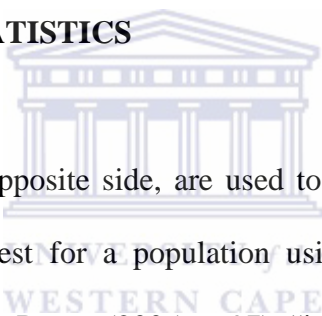
Statistics is used to mean the numerical data in a report. Statistics can be used to define the many mathematical techniques and procedures to collect data and then to describe, analyse and interpret that data (McNabb, 2005).

The purpose of statistics is to summarise and answer questions about the behavioural variability that was obtained in the research. McNabb (2005, p.103) further states, “statistics must be considered as both numerical data and the variety of tools or techniques that administrators and researchers use, to process raw data to make it more meaningful.” Statistical analyses involve both descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.6.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics help researchers to summarise data so they can easily be comprehended (Patten, 2004). For the purpose of this research the descriptive statistics used in this study includes means, frequencies, percentages and standard deviations. The mean is a measure of central tendency, which provides an arithmetic average for the distribution of scores (Neuman, 2000). The standard deviation on the other hand is a measure of variability, which is calculated as the square root of the variance (Leary, 2004).

3.6.2.2 INFERENCE STATISTICS



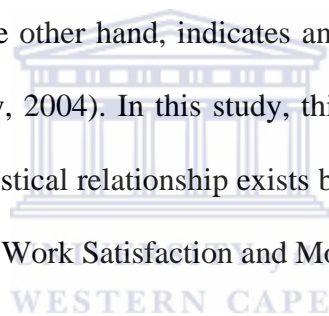
Inferential statistics, on the opposite side, are used to make estimates or inferences about characteristics of interest for a population using data from the sample set (McNabb, 2005). According to Patten (2005, p. 97), “inferential statistics is to help us draw inferences about the effects of sampling errors on the results that are described with descriptive statistics.” More specifically, inferential statistics help the researcher make generalisations about the characteristics of populations based on data obtained by studying samples.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Regression Analysis and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), were used to test the research hypotheses.

3.6.2.2.1 THE PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

According to Coolican (1999), the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient shows the degree of correlation between two interval level variables. Robson (2002, p. 420) states that “the co-relationship between two variables are referred to as correlation coefficients, and they give an indication of both the strength and the direction of the relationship between the variables.”

A positive correlation indicates a direct, positive relationship between two variables. A negative correlation, on the other hand, indicates an inverse, negative relationship between two variables (Leary, 2004). In this study, this statistical method is used to determine if a significant statistical relationship exists between the dimension of work motivation as specified in the Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire.



3.6.2.2.2 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple Regression Analysis is identified through three distinct types of multiple regression procedures, namely, standard, stepwise, and hierarchical multiple regression. According to Robson (2002, p. 430), “multiple regression is multiple in the sense that it involves a single dependent variable and two or more independent variables,” In using multiple regression analysis, a statistical prediction of one variable is made using the correlation of other known variables (Coolican, 1997).

This approach will be elicited to determine if selected dimensions of motivation will statistically explain the variance in total work motivation experienced by the technical employees of the organisation.

3.6.2.2.3 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)

According to McNabb (2002), Analysis of Variance test for differences on one variable for two or more groups or it tests for differences on two or more variables between two or more groups, or either for any interaction that may result from the two variables. In this study this statistical method is used to establish if a statistically significant difference exist between the levels of motivations and the biographical variables.

For the purposes of this study, ANOVA was used to determine whether there are differences in work motivation and service delivery based on the biographical characteristics of the sample.

3.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided a summary and a comprehensive overview of the sample, the measuring instrument used, and the procedure followed to gather the data, the hypotheses as well as the various statistical techniques (descriptive and inferential analyses) used to analyse the data and concluded with the statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses. The following chapter will detail and explain the findings of the study, by reporting on the results of the empirical analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous section, the research methodology and design utilised during the current study were outlined. The information provided and discussed in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted and is based on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses.

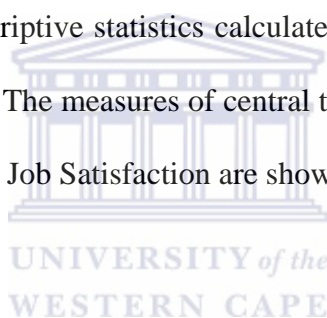
The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 13. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study. The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are then drawn on the basis of the obtained results.

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

4.2 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the questionnaire. The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the dimensions of Motivation and Job Satisfaction are shown in Table 4.1.



This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. Descriptive statistics, in the form of measures of dispersion and variability, are subsequently presented graphically for each of the variables included in the research.

4.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table 4.1 Means, Standard deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of the Motivation and Job Satisfaction questionnaire

| Variable | N | Min | Max | Mean | Std. dev. |
|------------------------|----|-----|-----|------|-----------|
| Work Content | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.23 | .45 |
| Payment | 75 | 1 | 3 | 2.56 | .32 |
| Recognition | 75 | 1 | 3 | 2.47 | .42 |
| Promotion | 75 | 1 | 3 | 2.42 | .30 |
| Working conditions | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.49 | .68 |
| Benefits | 75 | 1 | 3 | 2.45 | .49 |
| Personal | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.34 | .41 |
| Leadership/supervision | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.78 | .39 |
| General | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.42 | 1.1 |

- Where high scores correspond to low motivation and job satisfaction

The mean score ($M=1.23$) for Work content indicates that subjects showed work content to be the dimension which provided the highest motivation and job satisfaction. The standard deviation (.45) shows that moderate variation in the responses were obtained with respect to Work content.

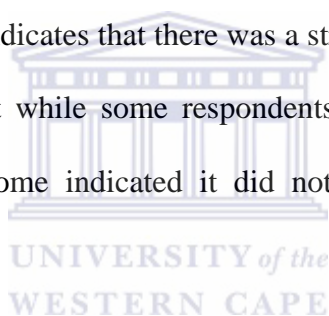
For the Payment dimension, the mean score ($M=2.56$) indicated that respondents showed payment to be one of the least motivating and satisfying. The standard deviation (.32) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

In terms of the Recognition dimension, the mean score ($M=2.47$) reveals that respondents rated recognition to be one of the least motivating and satisfying aspects.

However, the standard deviation (.42) indicates that there were moderate variations in the responses obtained on this dimension.

The mean score ($M=2.42$) for Promotion indicates that subjects showed promotion content to be one of the dimensions which provided the least motivation and job satisfaction. The standard deviation (.30) shows that the responses did not differ substantially with respect to promotion.

For the Working conditions, the mean score ($M=1.49$) indicates that respondents showed working conditions to be one of the most motivating and satisfying. However, the standard deviation (.68) indicates that there was a strong variation in the responses obtained. This indicates, that while some respondents rated working conditions as motivating and satisfying, some indicated it did not provide motivation and job satisfaction.



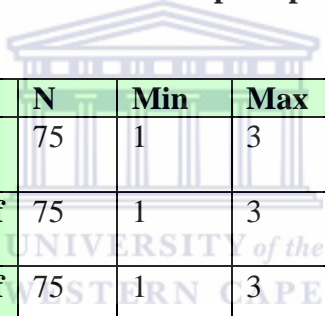
In terms of the Benefits dimension, the mean score ($M=2.45$) reveals that respondents rated benefits to be one of the least motivating and satisfying aspects. The standard deviation (.49) indicates that there were moderate variations in the responses obtained on this dimension.

The mean score ($M=1.34$) for Personal indicates that subjects showed personal to be the dimension which provided some of the highest motivation and job satisfaction. The standard deviation (.41) shows that moderate variation in the responses were obtained with respect to personal.

For the Leadership/supervision dimension, the mean score (M=1.78) indicated that respondents showed leadership/supervision to be one of the most motivating and satisfying. The standard deviation (.39) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

In terms of the General dimension, the mean score (M=1.42) reveals that respondents rated general to be one of the most motivating and satisfying aspects. However, the standard deviation (1.1) indicates that there were large variations in the responses obtained on this dimension.

Table 4.2: Mean and standard deviation for perceptions of service delivery



| Variable | N | Min | Max | Mean | Std. dev. |
|--|----|-----|-----|------|-----------|
| Overall perception of service delivery | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.39 | .45 |
| Perception of membership | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.96 | .32 |
| Perception of affiliation | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.47 | .42 |
| Perception of benefits | 75 | 1 | 3 | 1.91 | .30 |

The mean scores were computed to ascertain overall perception of service delivery amongst union members. The mean score obtained was 1.39 indicating that union members did not have a very positive perception regarding service delivery by their union. The standard deviation indicates that the scores varied regarding perception of service delivery.

4.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Table 4.3: Pearson's correlation matrix between the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| | Work motivation and satisfaction | |
|--------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Variable | Pearson correlation | Significance (2-tailed) |
| Work content | .234* | .013 |
| Payment | .492** | .009 |
| Promotion | .516** | .004 |
| Recognition | .572** | .008 |
| Working conditions | .355** | .002 |
| Benefits | .476** | .008 |
| Personal | .116 | .365 |
| Leader/supervisor | .127 | .147 |
| General | .179 | .154 |

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.3 indicates that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between payment and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=.492$, $p<0.01$). Similarly, there is a statistically significant positive relationship between promotion and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=.516$, $p<0.01$). There is a statistically significant and direct relationship between recognition and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=.572$, $p<0.01$). There is also a statistically significant correlation between benefits, motivation and satisfaction ($r=.476$, $p<0.01$). There is also a significant positive correlation between work content and work motivation and satisfaction ($p= .234$, $r<0.05$).

The remaining variables did not correlate significantly with work motivation and satisfaction.

Table 4.4: Pearson's correlation matrix between work motivation and satisfaction and perceptions of service delivery

| | Overall perception of service delivery | |
|----------------------------------|--|-------------------------|
| Variable | Pearson correlation | Significance (2-tailed) |
| Work motivation and satisfaction | .634 | .000** |

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 indicates that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between Work motivation and satisfaction and overall perceptions regarding service delivery ($r=.634$, $p<0.01$). This indicates that the better their perception of service delivery by unions is, the higher is their work motivation and satisfaction.

Table 4.5: Multiple Regression Analysis of the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Multiple R | 0.997 | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|----------|--------------|
| R Square | 0.994 | | |
| Adjusted R Square | 0.994 | | |
| Degrees of freedom | | | |
| Regression | 7 | | |
| Residual | 123 | | |
| F | 4.06328 | | |
| Sign F | 0.0019 ** | | |
| Variable | Beta | T | Sig T |
| Work Content | 0.140 | 0.385 | 0.000** |
| Payment | 0.235 | 1.171 | 0.004** |
| Promotion | -0.561 | 1.668 | 0.005** |
| Recognition | 0.027 | 3.003 | 0.003** |
| Working conditions | -0.024 | 0.065 | 0.008** |
| Benefits | 0.024 | 0.270 | 0.001** |
| Personal | 0.159 | 2.570 | 0.034* |
| Leadership/supervision | 0.134 | 2.312 | 0.132 |
| General | 0.145 | 1.120 | 0.432 |

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

From Table 4.5 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction is 0.997, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.994, it may be deduced that 99.46% of the variance in work motivation and satisfaction can be accounted for work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leader/supervisor and general. It should be noted, however, that the variance accounted for by work

motivation and satisfaction is relatively small, with the remaining variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

4.4 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

In order to examine the relationships between the biographical variables with the work motivation and satisfaction, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

Table 4.6: Gender and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | T | P |
|------------------------|--------|-------|
| Work Content | -1.823 | .070 |
| Payment | .236 | .013* |
| Promotion | .102 | .019* |
| Recognition | -1.215 | .022* |
| Working conditions | -.735 | .452 |
| Benefits | 1.282 | .028* |
| Personal | 2.562 | .257 |
| Leadership/supervision | 2.552 | .169 |
| General | 2.416 | .227 |

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.6 shows that there are significant differences in work motivation and satisfaction based on payment, promotion, recognition and benefits between males and females ($p < 0.05$).

There were no statistically significant differences in the other dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on gender.

Table 4.7: Race and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|------------------------|-------|--------|
| Work Content | 1.093 | .354 |
| Payment | 0.649 | .043* |
| Promotion | 1.141 | .024* |
| Recognition | 1.515 | .001** |
| Working conditions | 2.296 | .065 |
| Benefits | 1.255 | .003** |
| Personal | 0.180 | .532 |
| Leadership/supervision | 0.530 | .465 |
| General | 3.024 | .318 |

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.7 indicates that there are significant differences in payment and promotion based on race ($p < 0.05$). Similarly, there are significant differences in recognition and benefits based on race ($p < 0.01$). The remaining dimensions were not found to be significantly different based on race.

Table 4.8: Marital status and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|------------------------|-------|-------|
| Work Content | .182 | .254 |
| Payment | .535 | .585 |
| Promotion | .437 | .335 |
| Recognition | .625 | .213 |
| Working conditions | .976 | .031* |
| Benefits | .288 | .288 |
| Personal | .590 | .835 |
| Leadership/supervision | .643 | .590 |
| General | .0321 | .052 |

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.8 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in working conditions based on marital status. However, for the remaining dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction, no statistically significant differences based on marital

status were found.

Table 4.9: Age and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Work Content | 2.658 | .703 |
| Payment | 1.698 | .163 |
| Promotion | .824 | .976 |
| Recognition | 5.516 | .416 |
| Working conditions | 1.849 | .726 |
| Benefits | .382 | .467 |
| Personal | -1.405 | .285 |
| Leadership/supervision | .030 | .171 |
| General | .816 | .957 |

Table 4.9 indicates there are no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on age.

Table 4.10: Educational level and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Work Content | -2.064 | .703 |
| Payment | -.522 | .008** |
| Promotion | .054 | .041* |
| Recognition | -.451 | .052 |
| Working conditions | .162 | .035* |
| Benefits | .954 | .601 |
| Personal | .171 | .599 |
| Leadership/supervision | .602 | .652 |
| General | .953 | .285 |

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Results depicted in Table 4.10 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in payment based on educational level ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, there is a significant difference in promotion and working conditions based on educational level ($p < 0.05$) of the respondents. However, there were no statistically significant differences in work content, recognition, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision and general based on educational level.

Table 4.11: Years of service and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Work Content | 1.670 | .176 |
| Payment | 2.959 | .000** |
| Promotion | 1.975 | .000** |
| Recognition | .454 | .009** |
| Working conditions | 1.337 | .974 |
| Benefits | .596 | .538 |
| Personal | 4.033 | .619 |
| Leadership/supervision | 6.499 | .020* |
| General | .074 | .265 |

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.11 indicates a statistically significant difference in payment, promotion and recognition, respectively based on the years of service ($p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a statistically significant difference in leadership/supervision ($p < 0.05$ based on the number of years' service in the organisation).

There were no statistically significant differences in work content, working

conditions, benefits, personal and general) based on tenure.

Table 4.12: Job grade and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Work Content | .889 | .449 |
| Payment | .669 | .572 |
| Promotion | 1.613 | .189 |
| Recognition | .048 | .986 |
| Working conditions | .975 | .406 |
| Benefits | 1.270 | .284 |
| Personal | 1.098 | .119 |
| Leadership/supervision | .787 | .503 |
| General | .404 | .750 |

The results presented in Table 4.12 indicate that there are no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on the job grade of employees.

Table 4.13: Job classification and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

| Variable | F | P |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Work Content | .316 | .324 |
| Payment | .938 | .012* |
| Promotion | 1.587 | .000* |
| Recognition | .728 | .181 |
| Working conditions | .288 | .750 |
| Benefits | .084 | .919 |
| Personal | .343 | .067 |
| Leadership/supervision | .217 | .442 |
| General | .357 | .096 |


* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.13 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in payment based on job classification ($p < 0.05$). There was also a statistically significant difference on promotion based on job classification ($p < 0.01$). For the remaining dimensions, no significant differences were found.

4.5 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach's Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). It is argued that Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient, however, the closer Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

TABLE 4.13: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the Work Motivation and Satisfaction questionnaire



| Reliability Coefficient | | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------|-------|--------------|
| | No. of cases | Alpha | No. of items |
| Work motivation and satisfaction | 75 | 0.78 | 29 |
| Perceptions of service delivery | 75 | 0.81 | 32 |

The scores obtained for all the Work Motivation and Satisfaction questionnaire which was administered can be regarded as satisfactory in terms of the reliability of the instrument. In addition, the results indicate that the questionnaire regarding perceptions of service delivery was also acceptable. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence with the current study, this was exceeded, indicating a high degree of inter-item consistency or reliability.

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter objectively presented the results of the study using descriptive statistics to describe the results and inferential statistics to make inferences about characteristics of the population based on the sample solicited to participate in the study. This enabled the researcher to identify significant relationships and differences between the variables in the study.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview and summary of findings emanating from the research. The analysis of the statistical information is presented and discussed against the literature presented in the aforementioned chapters. Conclusions are drawn from the obtained results and correlated against previous research and recommendations are given for future research.



5.2 DISCUSSION

The primarily purpose of the research was to investigate the relationship between union service delivery, motivation and job satisfaction amongst union workers in a media organisation. Four hypothesis were generated to investigate the relationship between the above mentioned variables.

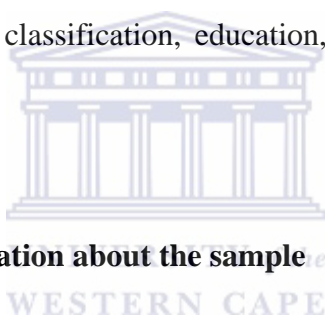
The hypotheses put forward were:

H1. There is no statistically significant relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision, general and work motivation and satisfaction in the technical department of this media company.

H2. The nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) will not significantly explain the variance in work motivation and service-delivery.

H3. There are no statistically significant differences in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).

H4. There are no statistically significant differences in perception of service delivery and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).



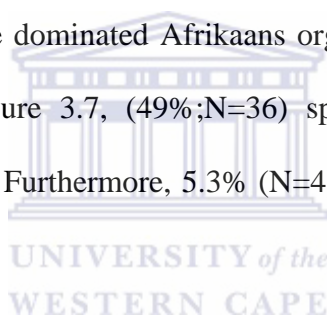
5.2.1 Demographic information about the sample

The sample consisted of 75 technical workers of a media organisation in the Western Cape. With reference to figure 3.1, 63% (N=47) of the respondents in the sample are male and 37% (N=28) of the respondents are female. Figure 3.2 illustrate the racial composition of the sample which comprises 3% (N=2) Asian respondents, 30% (N=23) White respondents, 46% Coloured (N=35) and 21% (N=15) Black respondents respectively. As reflected in figure 3.3, the majority of the respondents (40%; N=30) fall within the age grouping of 31 – 39 years. Fifteen percent (N=11) of the respondents were 25 years or younger, while 14. 17% (N=11) of the respondents were 40 years or older. All respondents indicated their respective age grouping.

The majority of the respondents as reflected in figure 3.4, has a Grade 12 qualification, (36%; N=27), whilst (33%; N=25) possess a National Diploma. Furthermore, 5% (N=4) and 15% (N=11) have a Grade 8-11 and a degree qualification respectively. A total of 8 respondents (11%) have a Post Graduate qualification. All respondents indicated their educational level.

All respondents indicated their years of service, whilst 43% (N=32) and 32% (N=24) of the respondents has 4 to 7 years experience and 8 to 10 years service experience respectively.

Being a predominantly White dominated Afrikaans organization, the majority of the respondents reflected in Figure 3.7, (49%; N=36) spoke Afrikaans, 30% (N=23) English, 16% (N=12) Xhosa. Furthermore, 5.3% (N=4) of the respondents speaks an unspecified language.



5.2.2 Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of the Motivation and Job

Satisfaction Questionnaire

The results in table 4.1 indicate the employees at a media organisation in the Western Cape where the research study was conducted that work content to be the dimension which provided the highest motivation and job satisfaction. The personal (M=1.34; SD=.041) and general (M=1.42; SD=1.1) dimensions are rated respectively the second and third highest dimensions that contributed to high levels of motivation and job satisfaction. It should be noted that the standard deviation of 1.1 obtained for the

general dimension indicates that there were large variations in the responses obtained on this dimension. Mean scores of 1.49; 1.78 and 2.42 were obtained for the working conditions, leadership/supervision and promotion dimensions respectively. It would appear that these dimensions contribute towards motivation and job satisfaction for technical staff at a Media organisation in the Western Cape. However, it should be noted that the standard deviation of (0.68) for the working condition dimension indicated strong variations in the responses obtained. This indicate some employees rated working conditions as motivating and satisfying, whilst some indicated that it did not provide motivation and satisfaction.

Means scores of 2.56, 2.47 and 2.45 for the payment, recognition and benefits dimension indicates that respondents rated these dimensions as the least motivating and satisfying aspects in the workplace. It therefore appears that employees at the technical department of a Media organisation in the Western Cape are not very satisfied by their payment, recognition programmes and benefits which contributed to their motivation and satisfaction levels in the workplace.

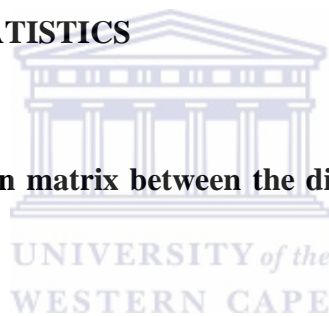
Thus in summary table 4.1 shows that work content, personal and general dimensions contributed to high motivation and satisfaction, whilst payment, recognition and benefits are indicated by respondent to be the least contributory dimensions for motivation and satisfaction.

5.2.3 Descriptive statistics for worker's perception of service delivery

The results in table 4.2 indicate the mean scores computed to ascertain overall perceptions of service amongst union members in a technical department of a media organisation in the Western Cape. The mean score of 1.39 for overall perception of service delivery by union members suggests union members did not have a very positive perception regarding service delivery by their union. The standard deviation of 0.45 would suggest that there are variances regarding the perception of service delivery.

5.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

5.3.1 Pearson's correlation matrix between the dimension of work motivation and job satisfaction



Hypothesis H1

There is no statistically significant relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision, general and work motivation and satisfaction in the technical department of this media company.

The results of table 4.3 indicate the relationship between respondents response to the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction. The correlations coefficients vary and ranged between 0.116 (personal) to 0.572 (recognition) respectively.

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation at the 99% confidence level between respondents payment and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=0.492$, $p<0.01$), promotion and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=0.516$, $p<0.01$).

Furthermore, there is a statistically significant and direct relationship between recognition and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=0.572$, $p<0.01$). There is also a statistically significant correlation between benefits, motivation and satisfaction ($r=0.476$, $p<0.01$).

The results further indicate a significant positive correlation at the 95% significant level between work content and work motivation and satisfaction ($p=0.234$, $r<0.05$).

However, the remaining variables did not correlate significantly with work motivation and satisfaction, i.e. personal ($r=0.116$; $p>0.05$); leader/supervisor ($r=0.127$; $p>0.05$) and general ($r=0.179$; $p>0.05$).

The results portrayed in Table 4.3 clearly indicate and suggest that there is a significant statistical correlation and relationship between the dimension of work motivation and satisfaction.

Hence the hypothesis H1 is rejected.

5.3.2 Pearson's correlation matrix between the dimension of work motivation and job satisfaction and perceptions of service delivery

Hypothesis H2

The nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) will not significantly explain the variance in work motivation and service-delivery.

Table 4.4 indicates the Pearson's correlation matrix between work motivation and satisfaction and perceptions of service delivery. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between work motivation and satisfaction and overall perceptions regarding service delivery ($r=.634$, $p<0.01$). Furthermore, this indicates that the better their perception of service delivery by unions is, the higher is their work motivation and satisfaction.

The results portrayed in Table 4.4 clearly indicate and suggest that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between work motivation and satisfaction and overall perceptions regarding service delivery.

Hence the hypothesis H2 is rejected.

5.3.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

Hypothesis H3

There are no statistically significant differences in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure)

From Table 4.5 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction is 0.997, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.994, it may be deduced that only 99.46% of the variance in work motivation and satisfaction can be accounted for work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leader/supervisor and general. It should be noted, however, that the variance accounted for by work motivation and satisfaction is relatively small, with the remaining variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

Hence the null hypothesis H3 is rejected.

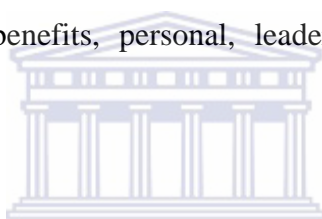
5.4 Differences in job satisfaction based on biographical characteristics (Analysis of Variance)

The following discussion of the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) which was conducted in order to examine the relationships between the biographical variables with the work motivation and satisfaction, will be organized under the following headings, that is job satisfaction, occupational and educational level; job

satisfaction and age; job satisfaction and gender; job satisfaction, race and culture; job satisfaction and tenure and job satisfaction and marital status. Furthermore the discussion of the results will be correlated against previous research on this matter.

5.4.1 Job satisfaction, Occupational & Educational Level

Results depicted in Table 4.10 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in payment based on educational level ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, there is a significant difference in promotion and working conditions based on educational level of the respondents. However, there were no statistically significant differences in work content, recognition, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision and general based on educational level.



The findings of the study are consistent with previous research done to measure the relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction. Berns (1989) reports teachers with a master's degree in education were significantly satisfied than teachers with a bachelor's degree in education. Research by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) in a Lebanese banking environment give credence to the findings of this study in that it reports that lower educational level employee's job satisfaction was observed as being much lower than employees who had college certificates. Contrary to the above, research conducted by Groot and Maassen van den Brink (1999) cites that highly educated workers are less satisfied with their work than less educated workers.

Ting (1997) states that research done with federal government employees, confirm that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and educational levels of

employees. Furthermore, a study conducted by Bowen, Radhakrishna and Keyser (1994) as well as by Griffin (1984) found no relationship existed between educational levels and job satisfaction.

In addition the results in Table 4.13 indicate that there are statistically significant differences in payment based on job classification ($p < 0.05$). There was also a statistically significant difference on promotion based on job classification ($p < 0.01$). For the remaining dimensions, no significant differences were found.

Oshagbemi (1997) posits that relatively few studies have been commissioned to investigate the relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction. Research by Smither (1998) reports that job satisfaction tends to be lower amongst employees who work under dangerous working conditions. Saal and Knight (1988) argue that professional and managerial jobs are usually paid more, receive better conditions of service, autonomy and responsibility which might increase levels of job satisfaction on these job levels.

5.4.2 Job satisfaction and Age

Table 4.9 indicates there are no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on age. The findings of this study corroborates with previous research that there is no significant difference between work motivation and satisfaction based on age (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; Siu, 2002).

Contrary to the findings of this research, Doering, Rhodes and Schuster (1983) and Warr (1992), report research conducted to evaluate the impact of age as a biographical dimension impacting on job satisfaction. Results suggest that older employees tend to report higher job satisfaction than younger employees. Findings by Rhodes (1983) support the afore-mentioned argument in that older workers appear to portray greater satisfaction with their jobs than younger employees.

Morrow and McElroy (1987) contend that job satisfaction usually differs for individuals in terms of their various career stages in an organisation. The authors posit that job satisfaction is significantly positive in the maintenance stage, than in the early trial stage of a career. Mottaz (1987 cited in Oshagbemi, 2003) put forward various reasons for the variances between job satisfaction between younger and older workers. One of the reasons the author contends is that younger workers demand more than their jobs can offer hence their feelings of dissatisfaction.

Research by Okpara (2004) amongst IT managers gave numerous explanations for the positive relationship between job satisfaction and age:

- Older employees have successfully adjusted their work over the years, which may result in high levels of job satisfaction
- As older employees mature in prestige and confidence in age this could result in high levels of job satisfaction
- Younger employees see themselves as more mobile in the job market and may seek greener pastures, which could lead in lower satisfaction levels

However, the results of this study do not concur with studies by Reudavey (2001) in the aviation industry that there are no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on age.

5.4.3 Job satisfaction and Gender

The result of this study shows in Table 4.6 that there are significant differences in work motivation and satisfaction based on payment, promotion, recognition and benefits between males and females ($p < 0.05$). However, there were no statistically significant differences in the other dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on gender.



Literature on the impact of gender on job satisfaction is not conclusive and reports different findings on this matter. Some studies suggest that females have higher job satisfaction than their male counterparts, whilst other research contends that males have higher job satisfaction than females, yet other findings state that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and gender (Greenberg & Baron, 1993; McNeely, 1984; Schultze & Steyn, 2003).

According to Clark (1996 cited in McKenna, 2006), women reported more job satisfaction than men. The author cites the 1991 British Household Panel Survey which reported that females are more satisfied than males in organisations. McNeely (1984) found a significant difference between employed women's job satisfaction as opposed to men, in that women were found to be intrinsically more satisfied than men.

Contrary to the above findings, Greenberg and Baron (1993) report that women in general seem to be less satisfied with their work than their males counterparts. Research by Al-Mashaan (2003) supports the aforementioned views, indicating that males in comparison to female employees report higher levels of job satisfaction.

Contrary to the above, Greenberg, Golderberg, Hamill, O'Neil and Payne (1989); Rentner and Bissland, (1990); and Oshagbemi (2000) found no significant differences between female and male job satisfaction levels in the workplace.

Alavi and Askaripur (2003) cite in their research amongst 310 employees in a government organisation that there are no significant differences in job satisfactions amongst male and female employees.

5.4.4 Job satisfaction, Race and Culture

The results of this study as depicted in Table 4.7 indicates that there are significant differences in payment and promotion based on race ($p < 0.05$). Furthermore, the results show that there are significant differences in recognition and benefits based on race ($p < 0.01$). The remaining dimensions (work content, working conditions, personal, leadership/supervision and general) were not found to be significantly different based on race.

Contrary to the various research and studies that has been conducted to examine the impact of biographical characteristics on job satisfaction, little research on the impact of race and culture on job satisfaction have been commissioned. Friday and Friday

(2003) maintain that research and findings with regard to the relationship between race and job satisfaction are inconclusive. The authors posit that some studies have found that Black workers report higher levels of job satisfaction than their White counterparts, whilst other studies seem to suggest the opposite.

Studies by Barber (1986) which examine the correlates of job satisfaction amongst human service workers, found no differences between job satisfaction based on race. Findings by McNeely (1987) failed to detect any relationship between job satisfaction and race between, White, Black and Hispanic social service employees.

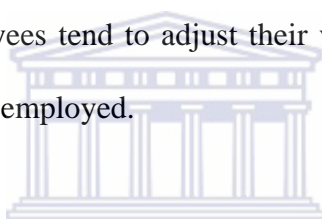
George and Jones (2002) posit the culture in which a person grows up can affect their levels of job satisfaction. The authors contend that employees who grow up in cultures like the American culture, which emphasises accomplishment and achievements are more likely to be satisfied with work that stress that these characteristics and provide rewards and bonuses for these accomplishments.

5.4.5 Job satisfaction and Tenure

The results of this study as depicted in Table 4.11 indicates a statistically significant difference in payment, promotion and recognition, respectively based on the years of service ($p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a statistically significant difference in leadership/supervision based on the number of years' service in the organisation. Furthermore, there were no statistically significant differences in work content, working conditions, benefits, personal and general based on tenure.

Various studies and research investigating the relationship between tenure and job satisfaction seems to suggest that there is a positive correlation between the two variables supporting the results of this study (Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988). A study by Cano and Miller (1992) amongst agricultural teachers in Ohio supports the view that there is a relationship between the two variables, in that findings suggest that age, years in current position and total years in teaching were significantly related to job satisfaction.

According to Berns (1989) as the age of teachers in a job increased so did their levels of job satisfaction. Mottaz (1986) gives an explanation for this phenomenon in that the author argues that employees tend to adjust their values to the conditions of the workplace the longer they are employed.



Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) posit that there is an inverse relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. The suggestion is that longer serving employees show lower levels of job satisfaction than those employed for a shorter period. Possible reasons for these low levels of satisfaction can be attributed to the fact that the longer tenured individuals hold the same job and becoming bored the more the likelihood in being dissatisfied.

5.4.6 Job satisfaction and Marital Status

The result of the study shown in Table 4.8 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in working conditions based on marital status. However, for the remaining dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction (work content,

payment, promotion, recognition, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision and general), no statistically significant differences based on marital status were found.

The results of this study correlates with research done by Luddy (2005) amongst civil servants in a governmental department in the Western Cape that marital status as a biographical dimension positively correlates with job satisfaction. The findings of the study suggested that married employees reported lower levels of job satisfaction than single, divorced or widowed employees in the sample.

Hence the null hypothesis H4 is partially accepted.

5.5 Service Delivery



The results in the study indicate (see table 4.4) that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between Work motivation and satisfaction and overall perceptions regarding service delivery ($r=.634$, $p<0.01$). This indicates that the better their perception of service delivery by unions is, the higher is their work motivation and satisfaction.

The most important function of trade unions is to level the playing fields for management and the workforce (Frawley, 1996). The trade union can play this role in several ways and pivots around the collective bargaining process. Essentially this entails the inclusion of a system of checks and balances in the decision-making process, the creation of a culture of legitimacy and fairness and acceptance of the co-dependence on and respect for each other. Furthermore, it translates into the

development of respect for basic fundamental principles and rights of people in the workplace, the development of the understanding that healthy labour relations are good for the enterprise performance as well as the broader economy and the consequent social stability, the protection and improvement of workers' interests, and through this, the combating of poverty and the application of current theories to achieve the trade unions' goals (Buel, 1997; Somavia, 2000).

One way to achieve this is based on employee involvement in decision-making. According to Laubscher (1991), participative management has, at times, been promoted as a panacea for poor morale and low productivity. Anstey (1990, p. 23) contends that "worker participation has been proposed to hold the key to the achievement of a wide range of organisational, individual and nation-building objectives. Increased job satisfaction is proposed as the vehicle for improved motivation and enhanced productivity; a sense of belonging and relevance is proposed to increase organisational loyalty; adjustments of traditional autocratic decision-making structures and improved communication channels are mooted as the means to a more meaningful industrial democracy allowing the proper expression of worker rights as organisational stakeholders and as having the consequence of improved problem solving and lowered resistance to decisions. Improved supervisory relations, new efficiencies, raised levels of competitiveness, a new regard for worker rights, and cooperative endeavour in nation-building are themes which run through the literature."

Management regard participation as a means of obtaining greater commitment and cooperation from the workforce (Bendix, 1989). Furthermore there is a perceived economic advantage, in that cooperation is seen as bringing about greater commitment

and involvement on the part of employees and thereby greater motivation and higher productivity. Nakajima (1989, cited in Venter, 1990, p. 7) is of the opinion that “the goal of all factory improvement activity is to increase productivity by minimising input and maximising output. Output refers to ... increased productivity ... better quality, lower costs, timely delivery, improved industrial safety, higher morale and a more favourable working environment”. .

Employees and particularly trade unions view participation as an extension of employee influence at the workplace, as a means of power sharing and even as a step towards eventual control of the productive system. Participation is also seen as providing greater protection to employees by the extension of the representational function (Bendix, 1989). Participative management is predicted to increase motivation because it increases the meaningfulness of work, the amount of interpersonal contact and the amount of discretion and autonomy that individuals have at work by decentralising decision-making and increasing participation in decision-making processes as much as possible. Satisfaction of these needs enhances feelings of acceptance and commitment, security, challenge and satisfaction. In turn, these positive feelings supposedly lead to increased innovation and performance (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992). The result of practising participative management is to reduce conflict and tension while increasing productivity (Quick & Quick, 1984).

Locke, Schweiger and Latham (cited in Laubscher, 1991) found in a review of various large scale studies on the impact of participation on productivity, no conclusive evidence that participation leads to better performance. Some researchers interpret the published findings as suggesting that authoritarian methods were just as effective in increasing

productivity as participative management. Others argue that different types of participation significantly affect productivity. Effective participation requires a constructive interaction that fosters cooperation and respect, as opposed to competition and defensiveness (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992).

Management sees participation as of benefit to the company through increased efficiency and productivity. However, in reviewing the work of Franke & Kaul, Locke et al., (1986) found that “no productivity increase could be attributed to employee participation.”

Management hence needs to realise that in order to achieve high productivity, it will have to acknowledge the complexity of such a task and entails much more than keeping employees satisfied. It is hence deemed expedient to identify key factors that affect productivity which include technology, ability of employees hired, training, management skill in planning and coordination, specificity and difficulty of employee goals and incentives (Locke et al., 1986).

Management may object to participation because it delays decision-making, takes control out of the hands of the employer and may prioritise employee goals as against the goals of the organisation, that it is a time-consuming process and that, as a result, managerial efficiency may be detrimentally affected. The counter-argument to this is that, while participation may lead to temporary or marginal inefficiency, it may result in higher quality, more generally accepted decisions and to increased efficiency and productivity in the long term, but not all managers agree with this. Another very important managerial problem is that employees may not have the same objectives as management and that, particularly where employees share in the higher level decisions,

such employees place their preference for economic benefits and for leisure above the long term interests of the organisation (Bendix, 1989; Cohen, 1991).

Moreover, unions encounter several problems in demarcating areas for participation from those subjected to collective bargaining. Furthermore, they may find it difficult to reconcile their role as challenger of managerial decisions with that of co-decision-maker (Bendix, 1989).

In addition, unions argue that participation should be extended at all levels, but that emphasis should be placed on the representation of employee interests, as against those of the employer, rather than on cooperation. This amounts to an extension of collective bargaining to all levels of the organisation. The argument is used as a solution to the fears often expressed by some unions that co-responsibility and co-accountability for decisions will dilute the union's traditional role as challenger of managerial decisions (Bendix, 1989).

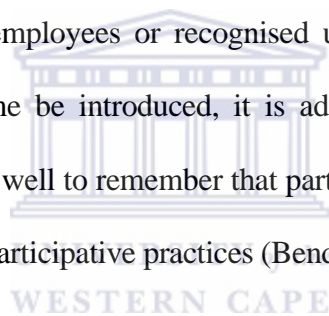
Trade unions have argued that management's prime motivation for introducing participative management schemes was to increase productivity, improve worker cooperation, challenge union power and exert other forms of traditional management control, and that employers are attempting to empower the individual at the expense of the collective strength of labour (Cohen, 1991; Pons, 1993).

Worker participation schemes are viewed as managerial methods of coopting the allegiance of workers away from unions. Trade unions may be suspicious and perceive the introduction of participative forms of work organisation as a way of exploiting

workers to achieve greater production without rewarding them for their efforts (Cohen, 1991).

Unions believe in the irreconcilability of certain interests and an associated fear of cooption arising from a loss of independence and potential fragmentation of the worker power-base. Hence, the relationship between employers and unions will need to mature as they seek solutions to the global challenge facing them (Finnemore, 1992).

The introduction of a participation scheme is a slow process and requires the commitment of all concerned. Managements which attempt to introduce participation schemes without consulting employees or recognised unions, may find that they are unsuccessful. Should a scheme be introduced, it is advisable that the parameters be clearly delimited, but it is also well to remember that participation in one sphere is likely to lead to demand for further participative practices (Bendix, 1989; Salamon, 1987).



Bornman (1990 cited in Cohen, 1991) has noted that organisational culture is the most important determinant of success or failure of employee participation. If there is no internal transformation within the organisation, any form of employee participation will flounder. Hence, prior to involving employees in decision-making processes, the organisation culture should be conducive to participation.

In the final analysis, Laubscher(1991) argues that managers should give subordinates reasonable expectations about their level of involvement in decisions, be explicit about constraints on decisions, provide rewards and feedback, provide a time frame for

decisions, specify accountability, reporting relationships, standards and provide necessary information and training to help employees make participation work.

According to Stredwick (2000), an organization will not be able to function effectively unless it has a stable and relatively harmonious relationship with its employees. "Conflict and disaffection will lead, almost inevitably, to high staff turnover, poor attendance, lack of involvement and other indicators of poor performance" (Stredwick, 2000, p. 197). It is thus imperative that organizations have sound labour relations by maintaining good relationships with their employees.

The survival of trade unions resides in the loyalty and support of the rank and file and the extent to which the union fulfils its purpose in and outside the workplace. Low economic growth, tough competition and the difficulties globalization has brought to South Africa are some of the challenges facing trade unions (Rust, 2001).

Kushner (1996) maintains that trade unions are losing members because they do not see their members as their clients, and do not pay the necessary attention to their needs. He asserts that members' needs must be determined, and attended to, in order to create a strong loyalty and cohesiveness which could be marketed further.

5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One limitation of the present study is that the sample group ($n=75$) was very small and it will be very difficult to generalise the results for the whole population. Thus increasing the size of the sample group, could further yield and increase statistically significant results.

Another limitation of the study is that the research and distribution was done during the annual wage negotiations period between the two respective unions operating within the workplace and the employers. Given the fact that this particular media organization has operations in Gauteng, Eastern Cape and Free-State, the findings and results of this study cannot be seen as applicable to technical staff in other geographic regions. Generalisation of these results could be problematic as these other plants have different remuneration indicators, supervision and geographic challenges than their counterparts in the Western Cape.

For the purpose of this research, a non-probability sampling technique was used. A convenience sampling method was used as this particular sampling method makes no pretence of identifying a representative subset of a population, and may be appropriate for less demanding research problems. There are no attempts to control bias and technical staff were given the questionnaire as they arrived at the workplace or as they are represented to the various production shift managers.

5.7 CONCLUSIONS

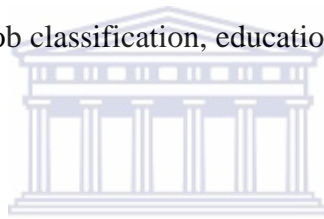
The central purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between motivation and union service delivery of technical staff within in a media organisation in the Western Cape and the impact it might have on employee satisfaction and motivation. Data was gathered regarding the biographical information of the respondents, as well as their perception of service delivery and feelings of satisfaction. Previous research was highlighted and motivational theories and literature was discussed to form the theoretical basis for the study.

The statistical results and interpretation of the data emanating from the research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between motivation, job satisfaction and union service delivery amongst the sample of technical workers of a media organisation in the Western Cape.

In terms of the primary objective of this study and the hypotheses set out to prove or disprove, the following empirical findings emanating from the research and investigation are:

⇒ There is a statistically significant relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision, general and work motivation and satisfaction in the technical department of this media company.

- ⇒ The nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) will significantly explain the variance in work motivation and service-delivery.
- ⇒ There are no statistically significant differences in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).
- ⇒ There are statistically significant differences in perception in service delivery and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure).



There was a statistical significant difference found between the dimension of work motivation and satisfaction, namely, work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions and benefits. The remaining variables, personal, benefits and general did not correlate significantly with work motivation and satisfaction.

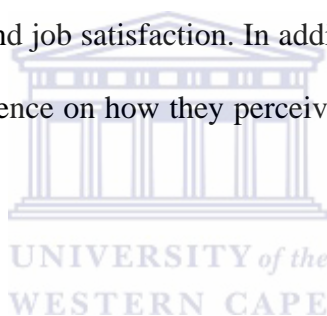
Moreover, the study shows significant differences in work motivation and satisfaction based on payment, promotion, recognition and benefits between male and females. In addition, the results of the study found significant differences in recognition and benefits based on race.

The findings of the study reveal that the respondent's marital status has a influence on their perception of working conditions and how it relates to their motivation job

satisfaction. The results of this study correlates with research done by Luddy (2005) amongst civil servants in a governmental department in the Western Cape that marital status as a biographical dimension positively correlate to job satisfaction.

Contrary to previous research the results of the study reveal that there are no significant differences in the dimension of work motivation and satisfaction based on the respondent's age.

Futhermore, the findings of the study reveals that the respondents tenure or years of service indicates a significant differences in payment, promotion and recognition and how it relates to motivation and job satisfaction. In addition, the respondent's years of service has a significant influence on how they perceive leadership/supervision in the workplace.



Through this study, it has been revealed that the educational level of the respondent has an influence on the motivation and job satisfaction and their perception of payment. Moreover, the results indicate that the respondents view promotional opportunities and their working condition as important dimensions which impact on their overall motivation and job satisfaction.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

The present research utilised a convenience sampling method which is a non-probability sampling method. It is suggested for future research purposes that a stratified random sample be used as it provides the researcher greater control and

precision to the sample which has been used. Murphy and Davidshofer (1988) posit that stratified random sampling is the most suitable research technique in that the method attempts to reduce research bias.

Furthermore, the sample used was relatively small, which limits the generalisability of the findings to other organisations. The present study was conducted in a media organisation in the Western Cape, which further limits its applicability to a wider population.

Empirical findings of the current study found that the nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/ supervision and general) will significantly explain the variance in work motivation and service-delivery. From the literature surveyed it is important for organisations especially the Human Resources departments to fully understand the impact of the above-mentioned independent variables and managing it in a professional manner that will contribute to overall workers satisfaction and service delivery.

Furthermore the study found that there are no statistically significant differences in motivation and job-satisfaction based on the biographical variables (gender, home language, marital status, age, race, job classification, education, qualifications, job grade and tenure). Moreover, the relatively small number of female respondents represented, prevented meaningful comparisons being made.

Finally, future research on this subject may assist human resources practitioners to understand the role unions play within the workplace and the important factors that contribute to worker job satisfaction, and ultimately service delivery.



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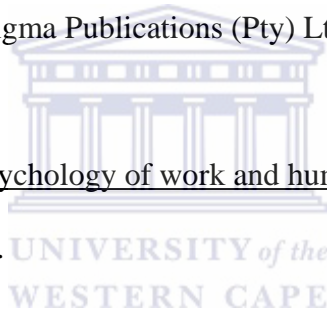
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APPENDIX A

“LEARNING IS A LIFE-LONG JOURNEY....ENJOY IT”

Dear Colleague

REQUEST TO COMPLETE A BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a Masters student at the University of the Western Cape (Industrial Psychology Department) conducting research for my thesis on Motivation and Union service delivery. In January 2005 I obtained permission from Media24 Head Office (Ms Shelagh Goodwin) to proceed with my research at your institution.

The attached biographical questionnaire contains questions about yourself while the service delivery questionnaire taps into feelings and perceptions you may have about the role and function of your union. There are no right and wrong answers. Please ensure that you circle all your responses listed under the different facets.

Your responses will be treated with the utmost of confidentiality; therefore no provision is made on the questionnaires for you to write down your name. It would be appreciated if you could place the questionnaires in the envelope provided and ensure that it is sealed on return. All questionnaires are to be returned within one (1) week of the date of receipt thereof.

I assure you that the information provided is for research purposes only. I want to take this opportunity to thank you for availing yourself and thereby contributing towards making my research thesis a success.

.....
WARREN CHARLES

APPENDIX B

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please complete the following details for purposes of the research study by marking the box (with an X) that is appropriate for you.

1. Present Designation

Store Manager ☐ Store Assistant ☐ Manager ☐
Department Manager ☐

Other :

2. Highest level of education

Grade 8-11 ☐ Grade 12 ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Honours / ☐
Masters ☐

3. Age

20-25 yrs ☐ 26-30 yrs ☐ 31-39 yrs ☐ 40 yrs + ☐

4. Race

White ☐ Coloured ☐ Indian ☐ African ☐

5. Gender

Male ☐ Female ☐

6. First Language

English ☐ Afrikaans ☐ Xhosa ☐
Other ☐

If other, please specify,

7. No of years with the organisation

0 - 3 yrs ☐ 4 - 7 yrs ☐ 8 - 10 ☐ yrs 11 ☐
 yrs + ☐

APPENDIX C

WORK SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

CONFIDENTIAL

1. INTRODUCTION

It is fairly obvious that people differ from one another in what they need and expect to get from different areas of their lives. Please think about the work you do and because most jobs are not perfect, consider what would make it better from your point of view.

2. METHOD

With each question, you have a choice of three answers. Choose one of the following:

TRUE = **T**
NOT SURE = **NS**
UNTRUE = **U**

Mark your answer with a cross.

3. WORK CONTENT

| | T | NS | U |
|--|----------|-----------|----------|
| 3.1 I am interested in my work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.2 My work consists of a variety of work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.3 I receive training daily which teaches me something new | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.4 My work is easy | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.5 The amount of work is easy to handle | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.6 I control the amount of work I do myself | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.7 I am completely independent of others | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.8 I regard the content of my work as responsible | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.9 I know exactly what my tasks are | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.10 I am allowed to decide on the methods for doing the work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.11 I am proud to say what kind of work I do | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.12 My work is the way to future success | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.13 I will not be dismissed without good reason | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.14 I have the opportunity to take part when decisions are made | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.15 I feel that my work is of value in my department | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.16 There is not time for idleness | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3.17 I have a certain degree of authority in my work | 1 | 2 | 3 |

4. PAYMENT

| | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| 4.1 | My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4.2 | I earn the same as or more than other people in a similar job | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4.3 | The basis of payment, for example overtime payment, is reasonable | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4.4 | Salary increases are decided on a fair manner | 1 | 2 | 3 |

5. PROMOTION

| | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 5.1 | I will be promoted within the next two years | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5.2 | Everyone has an equal chance to be promoted | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5.3 | Staff are promoted in a fair and honest way | 1 | 2 | 3 |

6. RECOGNITION

| | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 6.1 | I am praised regularly fro my work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6.2 | I receive constructive criticism about my work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6.3 | I get credit for what I do | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6.4 | I am told that I am making progress | 1 | 2 | 3 |

7. WORKING CONDITIONS

| | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| 7.1 | My working hours are reasonable | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7.2 | I am never overworked | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7.3 | I get the opportunity to mix with my colleagues and to communicate on aspects of our work | 1 | 2 | 3 |

8. BENEFITS

| | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 8.1 | My pension benefits are good | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8.2 | My medical scheme is satisfactory | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8.3 | I never have problems with my arrangements for leave | 1 | 2 | 3 |

9. PERSONAL

| | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| 9.1 | I am given work in accordance with my qualifications and skills | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9.2 | I work in the department of my choice | 1 | 2 | 3 |

10. MY LEADER / SUPERVIROR

| | | | | |
|------|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| 10.1 | Is satisfied easily | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10.2 | Will support me if there are problems | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10.3 | Can be convinced and persuaded | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10.4 | Is a warm-hearted person | 1 | 2 | 3 |

11. GENERAL

| | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|
| 11.1 | I have considered changing jobs | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11.2 | I have been looking out for another job | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11.3 | I am thinking of resigning | 1 | 2 | 3 |

THANK YOU

Please check to make sure that you have not missed any questions.

