

**WORK MOTIVATION AMONGST EMPLOYEES IN A
GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT IN THE PROVINCIAL
GOVERNMENT WESTERN CAPE**

by

ROMEO ADAMS

**Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of**

MAGISTER ADMINISTRATIONIS



DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

SUPERVISOR: KARL HESLOP

APRIL 2007

ABSTRACT

Work Motivation amongst Employees in a Government Department in the Provincial Government Western Cape. The South African social, political and economic landscape has been characterized by profound changes during the past several years. Many organisations and their management are faced with inter alia, downsizing decisions, affirmative action policies to be implemented and an overabundance of other factors which could sway motivation and morale, attitudes and views of employees. The Public Service is currently embarking on restructuring in an attempt to improve efficiency and service delivery. Media reports have hinted at inefficiencies in some government departments, which amongst others, could be the result of low employee motivation.

The general research aim is to measure work motivation amongst employees in a Government Department in the Provincial Government Western Cape. Research has shown that motivated and satisfied employees are more productive and there is an improvement in service delivery. Factors that are said to influence employee motivation include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, growth, the need for a serious income and being treated with respect. A biographical questionnaire and the Organizational Motivation Questionnaire (OMQ) was administered to respondents to elicit responses on how the aspects of their work, compensation, advancement, recognition, working conditions, work benefits, interpersonal relations and supervision influence work motivation.

The sample group (N=81) consists of male and female employees, contract employees, permanent employees and Interns within a Government Department in the Provincial Government Western Cape. Statistical analyses involve both descriptive and inferential statistics (Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, Multiple Regression analysis and Multiple Analysis of Variance).

DECLARATION

The researcher hereby declares that the thesis, “**Work Motivation amongst Employees in a Government Department in the Provincial Government 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.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Romeo Adams".

ROMEO ADAMS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I wish to give all honour and praise to my Creator, for bestowing the necessary courage, good health and mental ability to complete the study. “I can do all things in Christ who strengthens me.”

Secondly, to my parents [Andrew Adams and Nancy Adams (Everson)] for their upbringing and sacrifices to give me a good education – without those sacrifices, I would not have achieved this success.

To my employer, who gave consent for this study to be conducted, the staff who participated in the study and my colleagues who supported and assisted me. Special thanks to Nicole Heynes, Lita Whitlow, Reygana Adams, Sakena Parker and Melissa Wicomb.


A special word of acknowledgement to a special friend, Beverley Josias for her support, motivation and drive which inspired me to finally complete the study and Clive Lahmore and Bruce Basson.

Finally, to a very supportive, accommodating and patient Karl Heslop who acted as my Supervisor for this study, for guidance and his willingness to share his experience and knowledge.

This thesis is dedicated to my late mother, Nancy Adams (Everson), my father Andrew Adams and my sons Romano Lincoln and Reece Liam.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Abstract	ii
Declaration	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	ix
 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW	
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Problem statement	7
1.3 Aims of the research	7
1.4 Objectives of the study	8
1.5 Hypotheses	9
1.6 Limitations of the study	9
1.7 Overview of the chapters	10
1.8 Summary of the chapter	11
 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Introduction	12
2.2 Motivation and job performance	14
2.3 The content or need theories of motivation	16
2.3.1 The Needs Hierarchy theory of Maslow	17
2.3.2 Alderfer's Erg theory of motivation	20
2.3.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor theory of motivation	23
2.4 The process theories of motivation	25
2.4.1 Skinner's Reinforcement theory of motivation	26

2.4.2	The Expectancy theory of motivation	28
2.4.3	Adam's Equity theory of motivation	30
2.5	Job Satisfaction	33
2.6	Relationship between job satisfaction, motivation and biographical characteristics	35
2.6.1	Occupational level	35
2.6.1	Age & marital status	36
2.6.2	Educational level	36
2.6.3	Race & gender	37
2.6.4	Tenure	38
2.7	Managing employee performance	38
2.8	Compensation/rewards/incentives/recognition management	41
2.9	Previous research on employee motivation	46
2.10	Summary of the chapter	49
		
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		
3.1.	Introduction	51
3.2.	Population	51
3.3.	Sample	53
3.3.1	Sampling design	53
3.3.2	Convenience sampling	54
3.3.3	Sample characteristics	55
3.3.3.1	Gender	55
3.3.3.2	Race	56
3.3.3.3	Age	57
3.3.3.4	Educational level	58
3.3.3.5	Years of service	59

3.3.3.6	Nature of work	60
3.3.3.7	Employment status	61
3.3.3.8	Salary level	63
3.3.3.9	Marital status	63
3.4.	Research design	64
3.4.1	Gathering of the data	64
3.4.1.1	Biographical questionnaire	65
3.4.2	Organisational motivation questionnaire	66
3.4.2.1	Nature and composition	66
3.4.2.2	Reliability and validity	67
3.5.	Statistical techniques	69
3.5.1	Data analysis	69
3.5.2	Descriptive statistics	69
3.5.3	Inferential statistics	70
3.5.3.1	Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient	70
3.5.3.2	Multiple Regression Analysis	71
3.5.3.3	Multiple Analysis of Variance (Manova)	71
3.6.	Summary of the chapter	72

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1	Introduction	73
4.2	Descriptive statistics	74
4.3	Measures of central tendency and dispersion	74
4.4	Inferential statistics	77
4.5	Analysis of variance	79
4.6	Reliability analysis	84
4.7	Summary of the chapter	85

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1	Introduction	86
5.2	Descriptive statistics	87
5.2.1	Descriptive statistics: Sample in relation to biographical variables	87
5.2.2	Descriptive statistics in relation to work motivation and job satisfaction	89
5.3	Inferential statistics	91
5.3.1	Discussion of findings	91
5.4	Conclusion and recommendations	102
5.4.1	Recommendations for future research	105
5.5	Summary of the chapter	106

BIBLIOGRAPHY

108



FIGURE	DISCRIPTION	PAGE
Figure 2.1	Motivation and performance model	15
Figure 2.2	Maslow's theory	19
Figure 2.3	Alderfer's ERG theory	21
Figure 2.4	Herzberg's Two-factor theory	24
Figure 2.5	Adams' Equity theory	30
Figure 2.6	Organisational performance management cycle	40
Figure 2.7	Compensation system	42

LIST OF TABLES


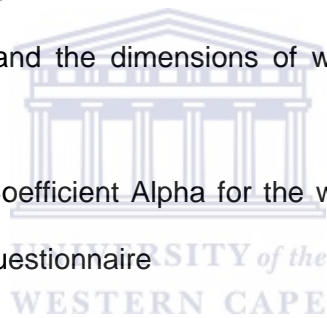
	PAGE
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
Table 3.(a)	Employee profile of a Government Department within the Provincial Government Western Cape. 52
Table 3.(b)	Sample size for a given population size. 54
Table 3.1	Gender distribution of sample 55
Table 3.2	Race composition of the sample 56
Table 3.3	Age in years 57
Table 3.4	Educational level of the sample 58
Table 3.5	Years of service in the Public Service 59
Table 3.6	Nature of work 60
Table 3.7	Employment status of sample 61
Table 3.8	Salary level 62
Table 3.9	Marital status 63
 UNIVERSITY of the	
CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	
Table 4.1	Means, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for the dimensions of the motivation and job satisfaction questionnaire 74
Table 4.2	Pearson's correlation matrix between the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction 77
Table 4.3	Multiple Regression Analysis of the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction 78
Table 4.4	Gender and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction 79
Table 4.5	Race and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction 80

Table 4.6	Marital status and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	81
Table 4.7	Age and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	81
Table 4.8	Educational level and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	82
Table 4.9	Years of service and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	82
Table 4.10	Nature of work and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	83
Table 4.11	Employment status and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	83
Table 4.12	Salary level and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction	84
Table 4.13	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the work motivation and satisfaction questionnaire	85

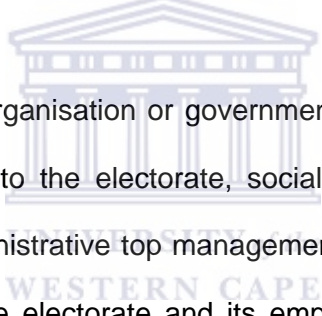


CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

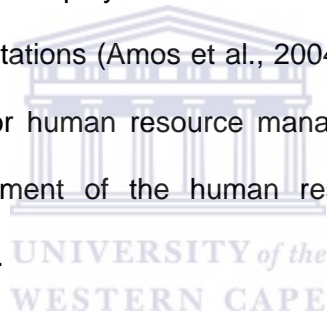
After more than a decade of democracy within the South African political environment, the Public Service is faced with a workplace plagued with a multitude of factors that impinge on the effective delivery of crucial services, which it provides. For instance, between 20% and 30% of senior management positions are not filled, leaving the question as to who gives strategic direction in the departments or departmental units where these vacancies exist (Sunday Times, 2004).



In order for a public sector organisation or government department to deliver on its mandate of service delivery to the electorate, social partners and employees, its political principal(s) and administrative top management must develop a relationship between the organisation, the electorate and its employees that will fulfil the ever changing needs of all parties. The political principals will endeavour to deliver on its election promises, while the organisation would expect employees to perform reliably the tasks assigned to them and at the desired standard, and to deliver on their key performance areas within the legislative and regulatory framework which governs the employer-employee relationship in the workplace. The political principals and management often expects more – not only that the tax payers money, from which government derives its budget, is stretched so that more is delivered for less – but that employees take initiative, supervise themselves, continue to learn new skills, and be responsive to organisational needs in order to achieve more with less. At a minimum, employees, sometimes though also through organised labour, expect their

organisation to provide equal pay for equal work, a safe working environment, and fair treatment in employment practices (Amos, Ristow & Ristow, 2004).

However, not unlike the political principals and management, employees often also expect more. Erasmus, Swanepoel, Schenk, van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2005) argue that the extent of such expectations are often dependant, on amongst others, the level of maturity, position, status or responsibility of employees within the organisation. Furthermore, the strategy, culture and values of an organisation also have an influence on how ambitious the expectations of each stakeholder are within such a relationship. Considering the aforementioned, it is thus understandable that organisations, and by implication managers, need to have an understanding of what motivates and how to motivate employees to achieve higher levels of performance in order to address these expectations (Amos et al., 2004). Boninelli and Meyer (2004) argue that the new model for human resource management will lead to a shift in approaches to the management of the human resources, by amongst others improving employee relations.



Improved productivity is dependant on whether an organisation has positively motivated employees (Oosthuizen, 2001). Wevers (2000) describes motivation as the forces, incentives, needs, tensions and other mechanisms which provide energy, direction and sustain the behaviour of individuals to perform against a particular deliverable. Motivation, however, has an intrinsic dimension which refers to the internal, subjective ability of individuals to deliver on job-related tasks (Davis & Wilson, 2000).

Oosthuizen (2001) identifies the role of managers as being that of motivating a diverse and more-often-than-not unpredictable group of people by exploring the factors influencing their behaviour and understanding how they behave. This refers

to the traditional notion of content theories versus the process theories. The content theories of motivation emphasise the reasons for motivated behaviour and/or what causes it and typically specify the associations of motivated behaviour, which include feelings or attitudes, and help to represent physiological or psychological deficiencies that an individual feels some compulsion to eliminate (Roberts, 2005). Process theories on the contrary provide insight into the needs which motivate people. Berg and Theron (2003) argue that these are internal processes which determine or influence the motivation of individuals and give rise to behaviour which attempt to satisfy these needs.

Although it is argued that human resources are now seen as the primary source of an organisation's competitive advantage, Fisher, Katz, Miller and Thatcher (2003) postulate that it is important that organisations identify employees who consistently perform above the norm in order to adequately reward, motivate and retain such employees. It could therefore be deduced that the way employees are treated, especially the consistently over-achievers, impacts on the prosperity or even survival of such organisation (Lawler, 2003).

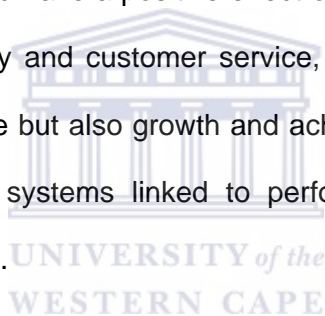
Furthermore, Viedge (as cited in Boninelli & Meyer, 2004) argues that people-friendly systems and a conducive environment which is acceptable and appealing for employees, will motivate employees to perform more effectively. The need also exists to establish an equitable balance between employee contribution to the organisation and how such contributions are compensated. Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2006) argue that decisions on reward systems should be a balancing act between achievement of organisational strategic objectives and the level of exceptional performance by employees – the system should allow for the actual performance to justify the reward(s).

Roberts (2005) argues that traditional reward and recognition systems were vague and often the manager's subjective assessment of an employee's performance was used as the yardstick for allocating rewards. This was characterised by the absence of set standards against which actual performance could be measured, and was open for interpretation of for example attitude, providing assistance to others, or even being punctual. Meyer and Kirsten (2005) describe the current organisational settings as having shifted to the understanding that performance management is much broader than assessing the individual performance of employees, but that its optimisation will result in reaching and probably also exceeding (in some cases) organisational objectives. Hence, the process of managing the performance of employees should ensure the establishment of specific outcomes and outputs, that all parties involved in the process understand their roles and responsibilities, that standards are clear and understandable and that the achieving of these standards could result in the allocation of specific rewards (Grobler et. al., 2006).

Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2003) support the above-mentioned, but extend the paradigm of performance management by arguing that performance management is to become a legitimate and integral part a manager's job with regards to ensuring that subordinates deliver on the expectations. This is a process where managers and employees collaboratively determine expectations, review results and establish which rewards are appropriate. If used correctly, this should result in employees considering the management of their performance being fair and transparent (Swanepoel et. al., 2003). If the aforementioned exists, this could result in increased levels of motivation in employees and they would be aware of their specific deliverables (including the standard of those deliverables) and would direct their effort at attaining those deliverables.

Literature argues that individual performance in organisations has traditionally focussed on the haphazard assessment of the performance of employees with the view of allocating rewards (Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono, & Werner, 2001). However, current best practice models have revealed that the effective and efficient implementation of a performance management system should be aligned to both improving organisational performance and reaching strategic objectives, but also towards enhancing organisational development (Swanepoel et. al., 2003).

According to Luthans (2002), allocating financial rewards based on performance of the employees is a major component of organisational reward systems. It is these financial rewards which should have a positive effect on the expected deliverables in relation to productivity, quality and customer service, but also enhance employees meeting not only maintenance but also growth and achievement needs. Considering the aforementioned, reward systems linked to performance could be utilised to increase employee motivation.



Schultz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge and Werner (2003) argue that for a system which postulates reward and recognition based on performance to be effective, the following should be present:

- There should be a direct and strong link between performance, contribution and rewards;
- The basis for measuring performance and contributions should be fair and consistent;
- The level of rewards and expectations of employees should be aligned;
- The organisation should experience a positive cost-benefit analysis with regards to improved overall performance versus the cost of the reward system.

Epstein and Rogers (2001) argue that the skilled manager enhances employee motivation by, amongst others, providing positive and constructive feedback, recognising achievement, and rewarding good performance. Furthermore, they create an environment where the job itself acts as a motivation when employees derive satisfaction just from doing the work itself. However, in too many organisations, recognition is reserved for a selected few and the basic remuneration for employment is considered a reward in itself (Roberts, 2005).

Although financial rewards are unquestionably an important form of rewarding employees for their exceptional performance, other forms of recognition are often overlooked as part of an organisations' reward system (Luthans, 2002).

It is perceived that a close relationship exists between employees' overall satisfaction with their jobs and their organisation and their intention to stay or leave. Previous research has revealed that when employee performance is considered "above and beyond" and they are rewarded, 90% are satisfied with their job, 88% are satisfied with the organisation and just 12% contemplate exiting the organisation. Amongst those employees who are of the opinion that their performance is not being rewarded, 52% are not dissatisfied with their jobs and 47% are satisfied with their organisation, however 36% genuinely consider exiting the organisation (Compensation and Benefits Report, June 2003 as cited in Roberts, 2005).

Organisations could benefit from implementing a total rewards programme that focuses on both formal rewards and informal recognition. The effectiveness of incentive programmes are captured in offering a combination of reward and recognition, and not necessarily one or the other (Motivation: What makes us tick? People Development, 2005).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The study was conducted at one (1) of the smaller government departments within the Provincial Government Western Cape and included both line function and support function departmental units.

The outputs of the line function departmental units differ substantially from those of the support function units, as the deliverables of the line function units can be directly attributed to the mandate(s) of the department compared to the support function units providing an enabling environment for the line function units to deliver.

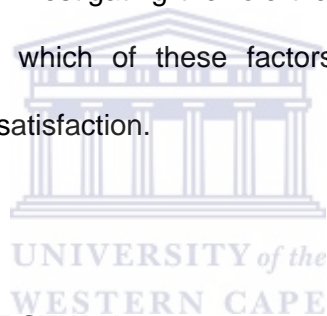
Creating this enabling environment includes enhancing the total work experiencing of staff, thereby creating a high performance culture as a departmental priority and strategic intent. This high performance culture will directly enhance the service delivery agenda of the department and provincial government towards the people's contract for effective and efficient delivery of services. It is therefore reasonable to argue that a high performance culture towards improved services delivery is dependant on a workforce that has high levels of motivation and commitment to such a culture. Given the framework governing conditions of service in the Public Service, the Department (and Provincial Government Western Cape) is therefore challenged to identify creative ways to increase work motivation and the levels of job satisfaction.

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

An organisation can use innovative initiatives as strategic measures to show employees that their contributions to the organisation are valued, and in so doing, influence their motivation, job satisfaction – leading to increased job performance.

However, the inconsistent implementation of any initiative (for example a reward or recognition system) could have more negative effects than positive (Roberts, 2005). Those staff who really excel would perceive the initiative to be unfair if those who are perceived not to be excelling in their performance are not benefiting from such initiatives.

The findings of this research could be utilised to improve and encourage the development and utilisation of effective initiatives (such as recognition) to increase work motivation and job satisfaction levels. Furthermore, the findings could influence the department to consider a more innovative, yet structured approach to managing worker motivation, which could enable the high performance culture it strives to attain. This research aims at investigating the role that various factors in motivating employees and will explore which of these factors have a greater impact on employee motivation and job satisfaction.



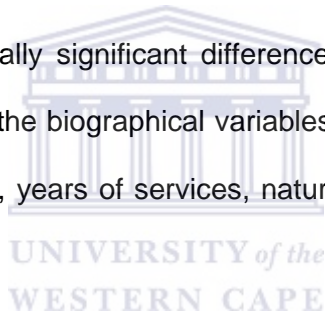
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

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 job satisfaction.
- (ii) Which factors contribute to work motivation and job satisfaction.
- (iii) The impact of biographical variables on work motivation and job satisfaction.

1.5 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 job satisfaction in a government department within the Provincial Government Western Cape.
- (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 job satisfaction.
- (iii) There are no statistically significant differences in work motivation and job satisfaction based on the biographical variables (race, gender, marital status, age, educational level, years of services, nature of work, employment status and salary level).



1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted at one (1) government department within the Provincial Government Western Cape and the type of sample utilised was considered appropriate due to the nature of the population – 50% of approved posts not permanently filled, 40% of employees are contract employees and the population also includes student interns. Due to the fact that a convenience sample was used, the findings cannot be generalised and compared to the twelve (12) other government departments within the Provincial Government Western Cape and therefore would be low in external validity. The sample included employees at all

levels within the department and with varying employment status (permanent, contract or student interns). These include administrative and clerical staff, supervisors, managers, specialists, middle managers and senior managers, thus not limiting generalisability to certain levels of staff only.

Given the case study nature of this investigation, results of findings may be specific only to the department where the research was conducted and may not be generalised to the other department within the Provincial Government Western Cape or other departments within the Public Service as a whole. However, the results of this research could be utilised by the other departments within the Provincial Government Western Cape to revisit its current reward and recognition programmes and in particular focus on addressing the needs of diverse groups of people within the services – especially since the Department of the Premier has a transversal function with regards to rewards and recognition.



1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

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

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the theoretical foundation that provides the premise of the study. The concepts of motivation and job satisfaction are introduced and discussed and the theories of motivation and specifically the theories used as foundation for this study are explained. Furthermore, job performance and compensation/reward/incentives/recognition management are also discussed.

Chapter 3 gives insight into the research design utilised 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.

Chapter 5 provides an inspection of the most salient results and the discussion thereof. The chapter concludes by discussing the challenges and limitations of the study with recommendations for future research.

1.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter the study has been contextualised with specific reference being made to the milieu of the study (environment of the Provincial Government Western Cape). The importance of the study was highlighted as the changes in the environment (e.g. political environment, greater focus on delivery) have resulted in reorganisation of the Provincial Government Western Cape.

The aims of the study were delineated, including the identification of factors which motivates employees of a government department within the Provincial Government Western Cape. The study also aims to establish whether a statistical significant difference exists between motivational factors and selected biographical factors.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The emphasis of this chapter is to present the theories which have shaped the concept and paradigm associated with worker motivation, by focussing on the content theories of motivation. The chapter proceeds with a focussed discourse on rewarding and recognising exceptional employee performance and how this could be supported by the management of employee performance in the workplace. Considering the emphasis of this research study, an adequate understanding of the concepts of rewards and recognition is required. Although literature clearly argues that there is a unique, tangible difference between these concepts, they are often used interchangeably.



2.1 INTRODUCTION

Cascio (2003) argues that organisations are managed and staffed by people and without this valuable resource organisations cannot exist. The author also notes that it is through people that organisational performance is influenced in many ways. Ehlers and Lazenby (2004) contend that it is strategic drivers of any organisation (that is people who act as stakeholders) who devise and implement the organisational strategy, while managing the mixture of sometimes limited resources and organisational opportunities and systems which results in determining the capabilities of the organisation to deliver on those strategic deliverables.

In order for the strategy to be executed, it is important that the organisation acquires the correct competencies, which are primarily the skills, knowledge and behavioural

attributes the organisation possesses in its human capital (Meyer, 2002). Considering the aforementioned, it would thus make good business sense for the organisation to obtain adequate knowledge regarding what motivates employees to fulfil their full potential (Lawler, 2003).

It is the performance of the human capital within an organisation which leads to organisational success or failure and organisations need to realise that in managing this resource appropriately it will ensure success (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw & Oostuizen, 2004). This implies also creating the opportunity for employees, or groups of employees, to be creative in achieving organisational goals. Once organisations recognise that employees are a valuable asset and not a liability, they will be respected and treated as precious human capital – viewed as the primary source of a company's competitive advantage in the global economy. It could therefore be argued that the way in which this resource is treated and maintained has a direct impact on the continued competitiveness and even existence of any organisation (Lawler, 2003).

The fair treatment of employees within an organisation is one of the cornerstones of progressive organisations, which acknowledges that a balance should be created and maintained between what employees contribute towards the achievement of organisational deliverables and how the organisation in the first instance, values these contributions and secondly recognises and rewards it in an equitable manner. Hellriegel et. al (2004) argue that maintaining some sense of equilibrium between what the organisation requires and what employees contribute in this situation, should be the foundation for recognising and rewarding employees.

Roberts (2005) postulates that organisations are continuously pressurised to enhance and improve their performance and it is through these pressures that they

realise that an interdependent relationship exists between organisational performance and employee performance. The following section will focus on the motivational theories and the impact which these theories have on enhancing employee performance. It should provide a better understanding of not only how individuals within an organisation are motivated, but also what motivates them.

2.2 MOTIVATION AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Motivation is defined as a function of an individual's personality and environment and it is argued in some quarters that divergences in an individual's character might be momentous in the work motivation of that individual (Chiu, 1999). Shulze and Steyn (2003) postulate that motivation represents the complex forces and needs which provide the energy for an individual to perform a particular task. If according to Oosthuizen (2000) it is the role of managers to successfully motivate employees and influence their behaviour to achieve greater organisational efficiency, it is thus understandable that these managers need to have an understanding of what motivates and how to motivate employees (Amos et. al., 2004).

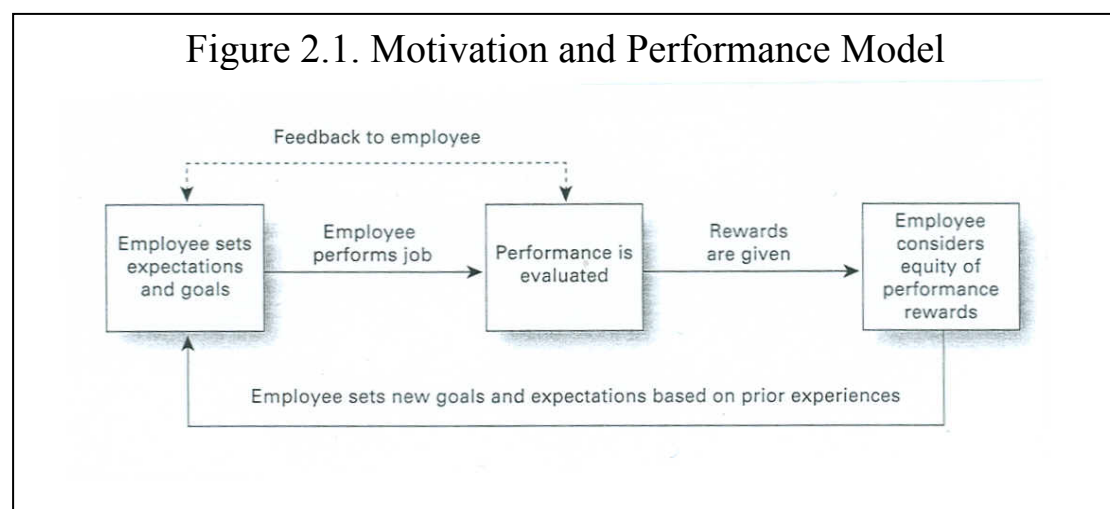
It is further argued that motivation is explained as being intentional and directional. 'Intentional' is referred to as a personal choice and diligence of action, whilst 'directional' alludes to the presence of an influential force aimed at achieving a specific goal. Hence, someone who is motivated is always conscious of the goal to be achieved and directs his or her efforts at attaining that goal (Nel et al. as cited in Roberts, 2005).

Steyn (2002) further postulates that in defining motivation and morale, it emphasises the important role of the employee when applying both these concepts in the work

environment. Morale is considered an extension of the concept of motivation – also including attitudes and feelings towards the organisation. Daniels (2000) contends that when employees are in a paradigm of “have to” instead of “want to” they are moved to perform, because of being remunerated for that performance rather than being motivated (and enjoying) to excel in what they do. There is thus a distinction between movement and motivation.

Stroh (2001) argues that an organisation who seeks to recruit and retain employees who want to work, enjoy their work and continually enjoy striving to improve their work performance, needs to ensure that a model exists which not only stimulates but also predicts such behaviour.

Managing the performance of employees forms an integral part of any organisation's strategy on how they deal with their human capital (Drucker as cited in Meyer & Kirsten, 2005). This function also includes creating a conducive enabling environment for employees to achieve organisational objectives. In this conducive environment, motivating employees could be used as a strategic tool to enhance job performance.



Source: Grobler et. al. (2006) *Human Resource Management in South Africa (3rd ed.)*. London: Thomson Learning.

Lawler (2003) argues that employees do not just need to be motivated, but also need to possess the ability in order to enhance job performance. Hence, a highly motivated employee would still need to possess the core competencies for the job in order to deliver against the key performance areas of the job. In the same way, competent employees (those with the expertise, knowledge, skills and behavioural attributes) would not necessarily do well, while they experience demotivation or are unmotivated. It is argued that the expectancy theory provides some grounds for why individuals are motivated to work and perform – this refers to employees expecting some form of reward for delivering on organisational expectations.

Roberts (2005) maintains that although motivation influences performance, performance – if followed by rewards – also has the potential to influence motivation. Motivation is considered an important factor in initiating, guiding, sustaining and stopping the employee's ability (and will) to perform on the job (Amos et. al., 2004). Oosthuizen (2001) argues that because motivation focuses on influences which create, direct and sustain goal-directed behaviour, any theory of work motivation must elucidate how human behaviour is guided or focussed.

2.3 THE CONTENT OR NEED THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Amos et. al. (2004) postulate that motivational theories which are placed within this category are based on the argument that an individual experiences an aroused state of need and searches for ways (that is behavioural responses) to satisfy these needs, as the aroused state leads to tension.

Schultz et. al (2003) argues that these theories focus on what motivates an individual and the factors which produce, direct and sustain individual behaviour. Roberts

(2005) argues that accomplishments of organisations are dependant on competent employees and that organisational success is linked to organisations attracting, retaining, and motivating the best and the brightest.

The ensuing discussion on the various theories of motivation will endeavour to provide some clarity on what motivates individuals to make certain choices about their careers or within the work environment. The understanding of these theories and its context within the work environment is considered important in order to give an idea of the role of reward and recognition within the practices of employee motivation (Lawler, 2003).

2.3.1 THE NEEDS HIERARCHY THEORY OF MASLOW

Newstom and Davis (2002) argue that the most known motivation theory of Abraham Maslow postulates that human needs are not of equal strength and that these needs transpire in an unambiguous arrangement. Once a lower level need is satisfied, it results in the next level need to be activated and this process continues until self actualisation level needs are reached (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004). The authors also postulate that although this theory was based on observing a few neurotic individuals, this theory is today used as the foundation for explanations of human behaviour. This theory also argues that managers should devise programmes which are aimed at satisfying unmet needs, as a satisfied need loses its motivational potential.

Maslow's theory developed a hierarchy of human needs (level approach), which Newstrom and Davis (2002) argue can be divided into lower and higher-order needs.

a) Lower-Order Needs:

(i) Level 1 needs: Physiological

This level needs is considered critical for survival and include food, water, rest and sex. In the workplace this need can be met by creating a comfortable environment, providing ample leisure and a "comfortable" salary (Grobler et. al., 2006).

(ii) Level 2 needs: Safety and Security

This need includes feeling protected against both physical and psychological harm within the environment (Schultz, 2003). Organisations could react to these needs by providing a safe and healthy environment, in compliance with the legislative and regulatory framework. Further interventions from the organisation could include appropriate salaries and benefits and job satisfaction (Grobler et. al., 2006).

b) Higher-Order Needs

(iii) Level 3 needs: Social needs

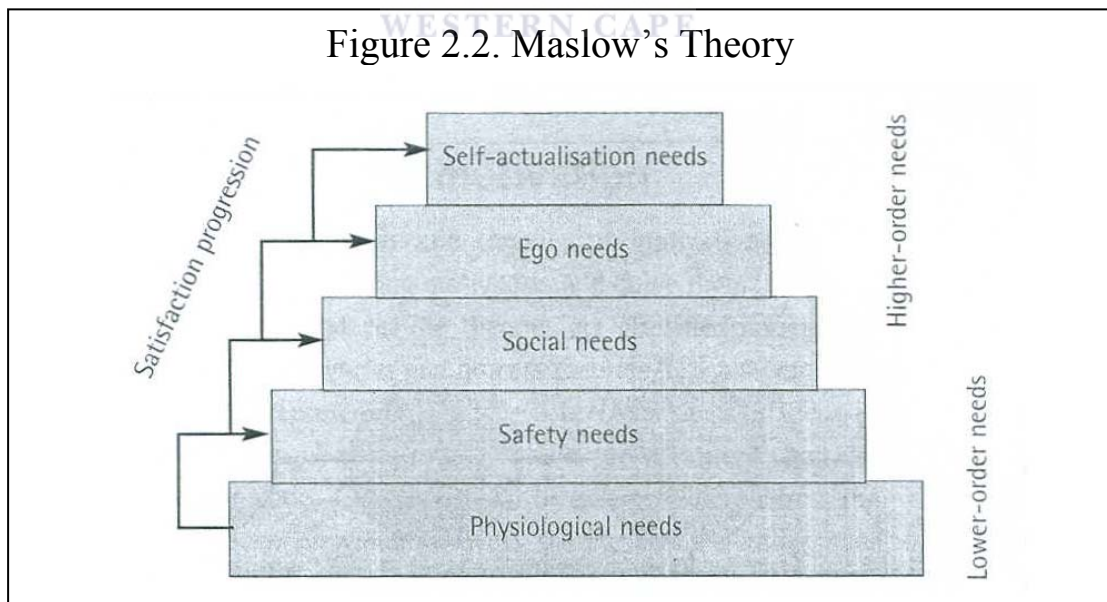
These needs include affection, sense of belonging, association, affiliation, and acceptance by others and includes the need for social interaction and for affection and support (Meyer & Kirsten, 2005). In the workplace these needs could be addressed by encouraging a team concept, providing close personal leadership and encouraging community-group participation (Grobler et. al., 2006).

(iv) Level 4 needs: Self-respect and Esteem

It is at this level where the need for psychological touch (intrinsic) and physical touch (extrinsic) is activated (Roberts, 2005). The organisation could address these needs by, amongst others, utilising positive-reinforcement programmes, provide symbols for recognition and include lower level employees in strategic processes (Grobler et. al., 2006).

(v) Level 5 needs: Self-actualisation

Amos et. al., (2004) argue that individuals who are at this level of motivation strive for truth, beauty, justice, individuality, meaningfulness, and perfection. Organisations which acknowledge this level need within the organisation focus more on opportunities for employees to address personal growth issues (Roberts, 2005). Grobler et. al. (2006) postulate that organisations should, amongst others, provide opportunities for personal development and reward exceptional performance.

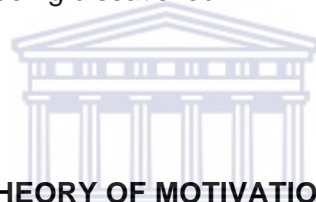


Source: Kreitner, R & Kinicki, A., 2004. *Organisational Behaviour* (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill/Irwin: New York.

According to Roberts (2005), the following reasons have resulted in this theory being very popular amongst managers:

- Simplicity
- Implications are clear
- It creates conditions in which employees' lower-level needs can be satisfied so that they are motivated to reach their full potential
- Provides a pathway to self-actualisation

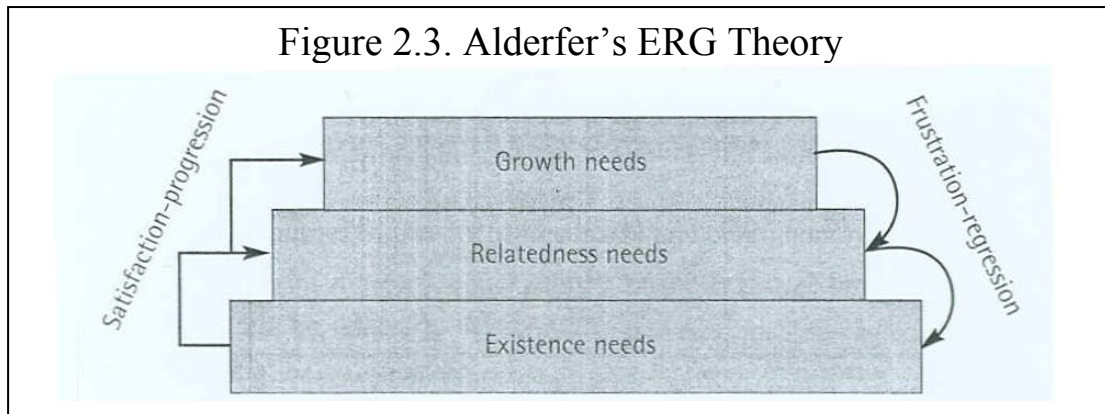
Roberts further argues that given this theoretical base, organisations should rather start with addressing the basics of addressing employee needs, before embarking on elaborate rewards and recognition programmes. Failure to focus on the basic needs first could lead to employees being dissatisfied.



2.3.2 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY OF MOTIVATION

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

Although Clayton Alderfer recognised that Maslow's theory contributed to understanding human motivation, he was of the opinion that the identification and categorisation of needs were inaccurate (Nelson & Quick, 2003). Alderfer's theory categorises needs in only three (3) groups which describes existence (E), relatedness (R) and growth (G).



Source: Amos et. al., (2004). *Human Resource Management (2nd ed.)*. Lansdowne: Juta & Co. Ltd.

(i) Level 1 needs: Existence needs

This category of needs is similar to the physiological and safety needs of Maslow's theory and focuses on the need for physical and material well-being (Amos et. al., 2004). Similarly to the satisfaction of the corresponding needs in Maslow's theory, these needs could be addressed in organisations by focussing on remuneration and environment.

(ii) Level 2 needs: Relatedness needs

Muchinsky (as cited in Roberts, 2005), postulates that this theory recognises that people are not self-contained units but must interact and engage within a social context with others. The needs in this category are similar to those social needs in Maslow's theory, hence these needs could also be addressed by encouraging a team concept, providing close personal leadership and encouraging community-group participation (Grobler et. al., 2006).

(iii) Level 3 needs: Growth needs

This category is characterised by needs to be productive and making a contribution (Amos et. al., 2004). This category is also equated to the needs for esteem and self-actualisation, in Maslow's theory. Roberts (2005) argues that by giving individuals opportunities to use their capabilities to the full, addressing challenges, functioning with autonomy and creativity the organisation would address these needs.

A further assumption of this theory is that individuals regress to the preceding lower level need and intensify the desire to satisfy that need, if the gratifying the higher level need results in frustration. This theory thus argues for progressive gratification of hierarchical needs, but also regression when frustrated. These movements up and down the "hierarchy" is referred to as satisfaction-progression for upwards progress and frustration-regression for downward movement (Schultz et. al., 2003). This theory has furthermore provided an argument for employee behaviour when some needs are not satisfied and result in frustration. Amos et. al., (2004) further argues that it should explain challenges with employee performance and lead managers to addressing blockages to gratification of needs.

Although there are some comparisons with Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, there are also apparent dissimilarities between these two theories. Firstly, while Maslow's theory argues that individuals persist towards gratification of a need, Alderfer's theory argues that frustration of a higher level need not being satisfied, could lead to regression to a lower level need. Secondly, Maslow argues that when a need has been satisfied, it no longer motivates the individual, while Alderfer argues that gratification of a need may heighten its intensity. This argument would then continuously challenge employers to introduce innovative reward and recognition systems (Schultz as cited in Robert, 2005).

2.3.3 HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION

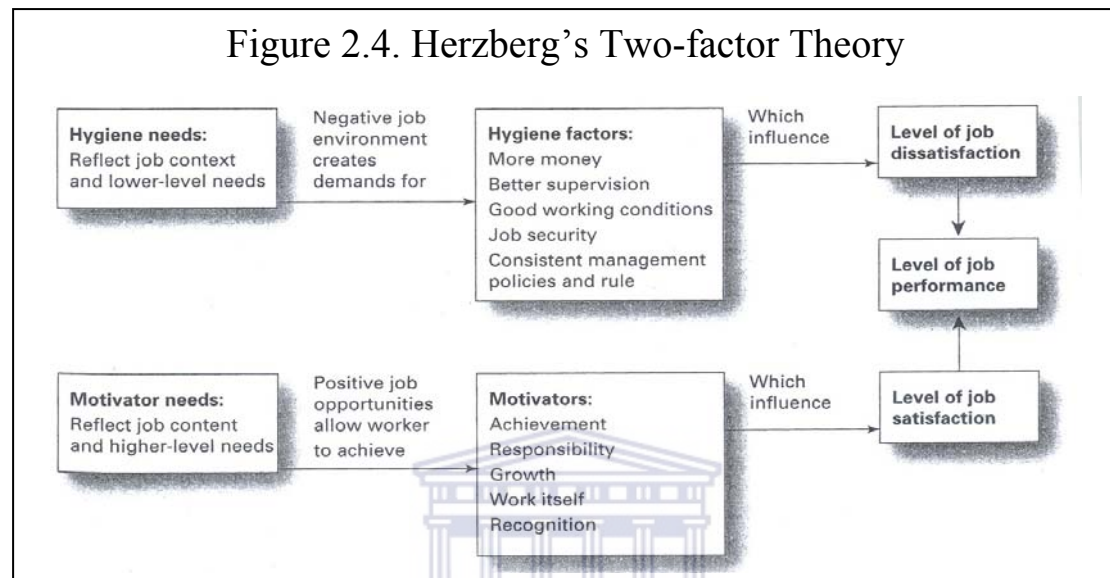
Oosthuizen (2001) posits a view that Herzberg's theory draws on both the models of Maslow and Alderfer. Herzberg's theory postulates that if hygiene factors (also called dissatisfiers) are present the lower level needs of physiology and safety are likely to be met. These factors are perceived to be acting as motivation for individuals to reach superior performance and effort. Factors referred to as motivators (also called satisfiers), and which focus on the job itself, provide opportunities for the gratification of higher order needs or growth needs. Furthermore, motivators primarily describe the environment and serve to prevent job dissatisfaction, while not having a significant effect on positive job attitudes.

Steyn (2002) maintains that this theory speculates that it is not extrinsic factors (e.g. salary, working conditions, and job security) which motivate employees, but rather intrinsic factors (for example achievement, recognition, responsibility). The presence of hygiene factors results in employees not being dissatisfied, but does not motivate these employees to perform at their full potential (McKenna, 2000).

Roberts (2005) postulates that Herzberg deduced that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was believed and found that eliminating dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not lead to the job itself becoming satisfying. Motivators are factors which produce real motivation – when they are inadequate there is no motivation, and although hygiene factors are not motivators, they are a prerequisite for motivation (Schulze & Steyn, 2003).

Herzberg's theory argues that in the workplace, managers have two different kinds of factors to consider in order to extract the best and most out of their employees and that both these factors are important in getting the job done, though they must be

considered separately (Stroh, 2001). Hygiene factors are to be maintained to prevent job dissatisfaction, while emphasis should be placed on factors associated with the work itself (Schultz et. al., 2003). Amos et. al., (2004) assume that this theory proposes a dual continuum, with the opposite of satisfaction being no satisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction being no dissatisfaction.



Source: Grobler et. al. (2006) *Human Resource Management in South Africa (3rd ed.)*. London: Thomson Learning.

Nelson and Quick (2003) argue that the combination of motivators and hygiene factors has four (4) possible outcomes:

(i) Highly motivated staff and few complaints:

In such a work environment, staff employees are motivated to perform above expectations and are contented with their work environment.

(ii) Jobs which are low in both hygiene factors and motivators:

Such an environment results in low levels of motivation and many employee complaints, where employees are demotivated to perform but also disgruntled with the working conditions.

(iii) Job which are high in motivators, but low in hygiene factors:

This leads to employees who are discontented with their work environment, but are still motivated to perform, especially when they take pride in their work.

(iv) Job which are low in motivators, but high in hygiene factors:

Although employees in such an environment do not complain much about the work environment, they are complacent and have little motivation to excel.

Nelson and Quick (2003) continue to contend that, to a certain extent, hygiene factors have value and the presence of motivators in the work environment are essential to enhance employee motivation to excel at work. Nel et al. (2001) therefore claim that organisations need to prioritise hygiene factors before the introduction of motivators.

2.4 THE PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Steyn (2002) postulates that motivational theories which are placed within this category are based on the argument that an individual engages in a specified behaviour because such behaviour should result in an identifiable outcome. Oosthuizen (2001) makes a case that these theories provide insight into what directs behaviour towards a goal and the decision-making processes which leads to certain behaviour, hence also arguing that behaviour is not only a result of needs.

Schultz et. al. (2003) contends that these theories attempt to address the question – What motivates individuals? (and for that matter employees in an organisational context). Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2000) contend that these theories explain the processes by which behaviour is initiated, guided, sustained and discontinued. It is then also widely accepted that significant contributors to these theories include Skinner's reinforcement theory, Adam's equity theory and Vroom's expectancy theory (Amos et. al., 2004).

2.4.1 SKINNER'S REINFORCEMENT THEORY OF MOTIVATION

This theory argues that individuals engage in behaviour which leads to positive outcomes and avoid behaviour which fails to produce positive results. Although this theory ignores the inner state of the individual and focuses on the consequences of behaviour, it provides an understanding of human behaviour (Schultz et. al., 2003).

Based on the utilisation of extrinsic rewards, the argument of this theory is that any environmental consequence which immediately follows a behavioural response (reinforcement) conditions behaviour (Amos et. al., 2004). This theory postulates both positive (enhancing desired consequences) and negative reinforcement (elimination of an adverse consequence) (Robbins, 2001).

Oosthuizen (2001) contends that this theory focuses on the work environment, neglects the idea of human needs and attitudes and looks at the application of rewards and discipline to enhance or impede behaviour. It is further postulated that behaviour that leads to rewards are likely to be repeated, while those which are punished are likely to be stopped.

According to Roberts (2005), a few of the most important points of behavioural science as it relates to quality recognition include:

- Behaviour is moulded almost solely by the effects of an external incentive being employed, as well as by both positive and negative reinforcement.
- Actions that are reinforced or rewarded tend to recur more often, when similar conditions exist.
- Reinforcement is most effectual when it is timed correctly, that is, when it emerges during or immediately after the conclusion of the desired behaviour.

Shultz et. al. (2003), postulate that managers could utilise one of four options to influence employee behaviour:

- Positive reinforcement:

This is the provision of a positive action as a result of the behaviour displayed and should serve to increase the occurrence of such behaviour.

- Negative reinforcement:

This is the withholding or withdrawal of a negative action as a result of a particular behaviour.

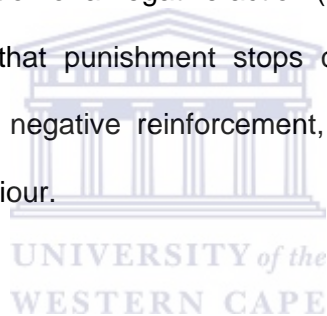
- Punishment:

This refers to implementation of a negative action (sanction) to prevent undesired behaviour. It is argued that punishment stops certain behaviour but is less effective than positive or negative reinforcement, as it does not result in the adoption of desired behaviour.

- Extinction:

This refers to the withdrawal of what is perceived as positive in an attempt to prevent undesired behaviour. Although it has the same aim as punishment, it differs in that it does not introduce a negative action.

Considering the aforementioned, while a combination of positive and negative reinforcement could assist managers in shaping the behaviour of employees to result in desired behaviour, punishment and extinction could also be utilised in instances where the likelihood of behaviour needs to be reduced.



2.4.2 THE EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Luthans (2001, p. 266) argues that Victor Vroom's theory of Expectancy has its roots in the cognitive model of Kurt Lewin and Edward Tolman and in the "choice behaviour and classical economic theory". Vroom argued that his theory is an alternative to content theories as he considered those to be insufficient in addressing the complex process of work motivation.

Vroom defined motivation as the "process governing choices amongst alternative forms of voluntary activity" (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly & Konopaske, 2003, p. 141) and he proposes that individuals voluntarily control the majority of their behaviours and are therefore motivated as a consequence.

According to Vroom's theory, individuals make choices based on the apparent expectancy that particular rewards will follow (Nel as cited in Roberts, 2005). Hence, it could be maintained that individuals are only motivated by the perception that a desired outcome will be achieved, if they act in a particular way (Roberts, 2005).

Schultz et. al. (2003) posits a view that this theory attempt to answer the question in relation to how much effort an individual will expend to reach a particular goal or outcome. The authors furthermore relate that the effort an individual is likely to exert is dependant of three factors, namely Valence, Expectancy and Instrumentality.

In support of this, Newstrom and Davis (2002) indicates that this theory argues that **Motivation = Valence X Expectancy X Instrumentality**, with Valence referring to how much an individual desires a reward, Expectancy being the individual's estimate of the probability that effort will result in successful performance and Instrumentality being the individuals estimate that performance will result in receiving the reward.

Oosthuizen (2001) argues that the orientation of this theory is towards expectations of individuals and how those expectations influence the behaviour of that individual. Choices are made around alternative behaviours, based on the expectations that a particular behaviour would yield the desired outcome.

Furthermore, Cascio, George and Jones (as cited in Steyn, 2002) argue that this theory postulates that motivation is a product of an individual's beliefs in their own efforts, their resulting job performance and the resulting outcomes or rewards and incentives for that particular job performance.

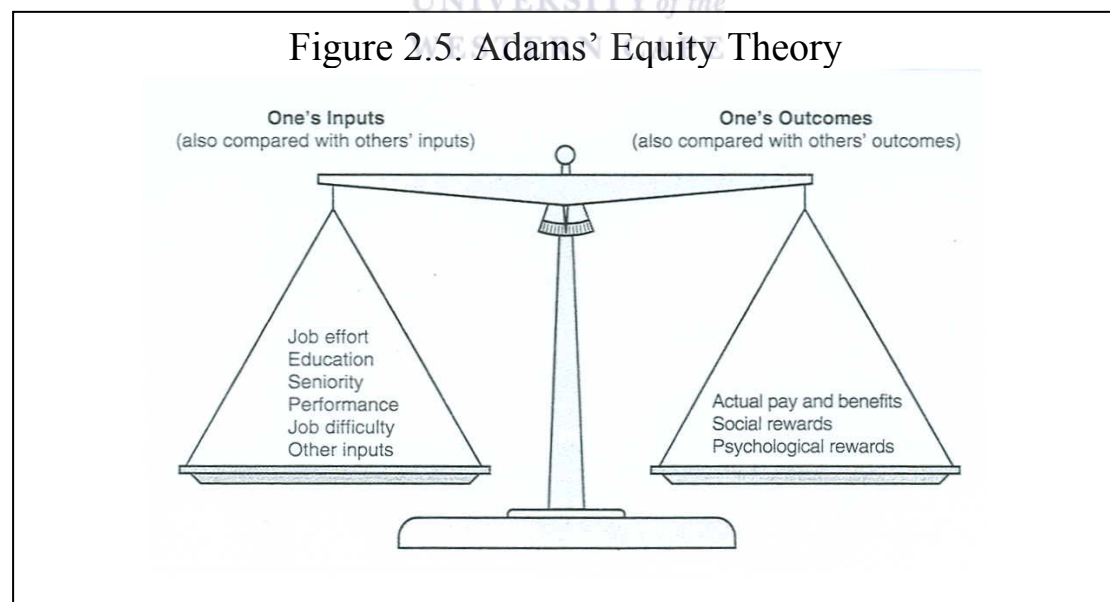
In an organisation where exceptional performances are rewarded appropriately, the following scenario could exist that relates to this theory –

Ambitious employees would have a strong desire to be promoted (high valence) and would therefore always be striving to deliver exceptional performances in order to receive high performance ratings (high expectancy). The perceptions and experience of employees who believe promotions are thus based on performance data (high instrumentality) could then result in the motivation levels of such employees being high. Vroom's theory of Expectancy argues that in such an organisational culture, there should be high motivational levels.

2.4.3 ADAM'S EQUITY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Newstrom and Davies (2002) postulate that this theory is grounded in the notion that individuals compare their behaviour to that of individuals with whom they interact at a social level and also compare their interaction with each other in the completion of tasks. The authors further argue that these comparisons are done by observing and judging each other and that employees function within a dependency model.

Gibson et. al. (2003) further argue that it is not only performance (input versus output) which is compared, but also rewards and recognition for performance and that motivation is a result of the desire for equitable treatment in the workplace. Shultz et. al. (2003) accord recognition to the fact that the emotions of individuals regarding rewards or the lack thereof are the result of what others receive for similar performance. The authors also note that this is the only theory of motivation which includes a social component.



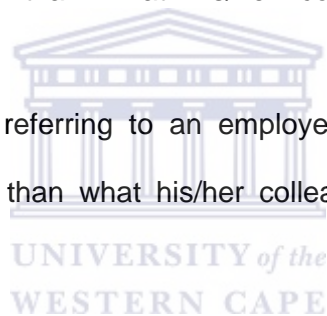
Source: Newstrom, J.W. & Davis, K. (2002). *Organizational Behavior: Human Behavior at work (11th ed.)*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Three (3) categories of comparison exist (Shultz et. al., 2003):

- (i) Any other employee who holds a similar job - where information will be received through various sources, including word-of-mouth.
- (ii) The system within the organisation wherein the employee is expected to perform – where precedents may have been set and any action contrary to these precedents could be perceived as inequity.
- (iii) The employee self – where performance and subsequent rewards in previous jobs are used as a yardstick.

Amos et. al., (2004) argue that there are two forms of inequity:

- (i) Underpayment inequity – referring to an employee perceiving that the reward he/she receives is less than what his/her colleagues receive for similar performance.
- (ii) Overpayment inequity – referring to an employee perceiving that the reward he/she receives is more than what his/her colleagues receive, relative to the inputs.



The authors further postulate that when inequity is perceived, employees tend to behave in a manner that wishes to restore equity. Furthermore, Oosthuizen (2001) states that effort will decrease if under-rewarding is perceived compared to an increase if over-performance is perceived.

Luthans (2001) postulates that inequity is not only perceived when employees feel cheated. Furthermore, equity may be restored through altering inputs and or outputs, distorting inputs and or outputs, remove themselves from the specific area of comparison (workplace), act in order for employees with whom they are comparing themselves to alter their input and or outputs and finally, change the focus of comparison.

In the workplace, the organisation should understand the process of individual perceptions and realise that perceptions of equity may be formed based on comparing rewards. The perceptions have the potential for affecting on the job performance and the organisation could manage such perceptions by communicating performance outcomes, the nature of rewards allocated and the processes for allocating such rewards.

In summarising, Schultz et. al (2003) postulates that all the motivational theories discussed above have common basic assumptions, which include:

- (i) Behaviour has some point of foundation, a degree of movement and then a stopping point.
- (ii) Such behaviour is directly controlled by the individual.
- (iii) Behaviour has a specific aim and direction.
- (iv) Managers who understand the theories of motivation may have a greater influence on employee behaviour (arouse, direct and sustain).
- (v) Human behaviour is motivated.

In the final analysis, careful consideration should be given to the above-mentioned motivation theories when developing reward and recognition programmes in an attempt to motivate employees to greater performance, and possibly greater job satisfaction.

2.5 JOB SATISFACTION

Schultz et. al., (2003) define job satisfaction as a collection of attitudes of employees regarding a number of areas of their work and includes the work itself, relationships at work, interaction in the workplace, personal characteristics, rewards recognition and incentives.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) argue that job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response an employee has towards his/her job. Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) postulate that the following factors influence job satisfaction:

2.5.1 Work itself:

This refers to the job providing opportunities for growth personal development and taking responsibility. In research conducted by Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) amongst a sample of 377 employees and their supervisors, it was found that work satisfaction is increased by desirable job characteristics. Culpin and Wright (2002) also found in their research amongst expatriate women that job enlargement, which had a significant impact on their job, increased their job satisfaction. Nagoorsamy (2004) argues that this might be regarded as the most significant in terms of its relation in the individual performance as the foundation of organisational success. Furthermore, Bull (2005) posits a view that when employees experience success in mentally challenging occupations which allows them to exercise their skills and abilities, they experience greater levels of job satisfaction.

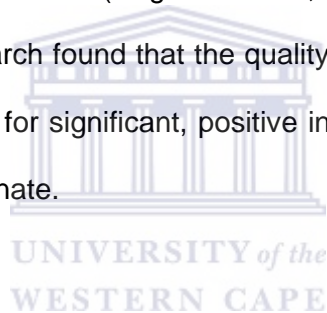
2.5.2 Promotional opportunities:

This refers to opportunities for advancement and professional growth (vertical and horizontal). Many employees tend to experience job satisfaction if they perceive career advancement to be a real possibility (Drafke & Kossen, 2002). In a study by Jayaratne and Chess as cited in Bull (2005), the prospect of advancement was found

to be the most positive predictor of job satisfaction in welfare and community agencies. Robbins (2001) asserts that promotions create the opportunity for personal growth, increased levels of responsibility and an increase on social standing.

2.5.3 Supervision:

This refers to the ability of the supervisor to assist with technical and emotional support regarding work-related tasks. The ability of supervisors to provide strong leadership (for example a principal within the school environment) has an effect on job satisfaction of for example teachers (Morris, 2004). Allowing opportunities for educators to participate in the governance of the institution and not just be a subordinate in the employment relationship has the potential for increasing the job satisfaction levels of those educators (Nagel & Brown, 2003). Aamodt as cited in Bull (2005) also argues that research found that the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship has the potential for significant, positive influence on the overall level of job satisfaction of the subordinate.



2.5.4 Co-workers:

This refers to technical, emotional and social support received from co-workers. Morrison (2004) posits a view that the relationships amongst co-workers are a precursor of job satisfaction. Furthermore, Markiewicz, et al. (2000) is of the opinion that there is a relationship between the quality of close relationships at work and employee job satisfaction. An important characteristic of relationship between co-workers is cohesiveness as it relates to the group's productivity (Robbins, 2001). Tinzer (2002) maintains that both socio-emotional cohesiveness – when individuals join a group to derive emotional satisfaction - and instrumental cohesiveness – interdependency of individuals to achieve a common goal – plays a significant role in realising job satisfaction.

2.5.5 Working conditions:

This refers to extent to which general work environment leads to satisfaction. Ngidi and Sibaya (2002) maintain that the effect of resource allocations on the working conditions has an effect on employee job satisfaction. The authors cite the example of the working conditions in disadvantaged schools often not being conducive to teaching and learning. This strengthens the argument that cohesion amongst employees is result of integrating work processes amongst organisational units (Lambert, Hogan, Barton & Lubbock, 2001).

2.5.6 Pay:

This refers to whether the remuneration received for a specific job is perceived as equitable compared to similar jobs in the workplace. Research conducted by Lambert et al, (2001) cite the significant impact of financial rewards on job satisfaction and Bull (2005) found the findings of this research consistent with the notion that the importance of an individual is often being gauged by the financial rewards/remuneration received. Bull (2005) further argues that the greater the financial reward, the greater the perception of financial security, thereby leading to increased levels of self worth. Although Groot and Massen van den Brink (1999) did not find evidence of a relationship between pay and job satisfaction, their subsequent study in 2000 found evidence to the contrary. The findings of research conducted by Sousa-Poza (2000) revealed that income levels were ranked third in factors affecting job satisfaction.

2.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION, MOTIVATION AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

2.6.1 OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

Gazioglu and Tanel (2002) in their research established that managers and professionals were significantly more satisfied with the influence over their job compared to sales executives. This satisfaction stemmed from a greater sense of achievement and respect they received from their supervisors. Research conducted by Franks (2002) found that employees at higher salary levels have a greater need for job satisfaction and motivation than lower level employees. Bull (2005), in research conducted amongst educators in disadvantaged areas of the Western Cape, found that significant relationship exists between occupational level and job satisfaction.



Butler and Ehrlich as cited in Nagoorsamy (2004) posits a view that the level of the position which an individual occupies within an organisation not only influences the attitude, job satisfaction and performance of such an individual but also determines the job demands and characteristics of the work environment experienced by the individual. In support of this view, Nagoorsamy (2004) postulates that an employee's attitude and behaviour is attributable to the level of the job he performs and cites previous studies as which hypothesised that the higher the level within an organisation, the greater the job satisfaction.

2.6.2 AGE

Although research conducted by Reudavey (2002) in the Australian aviation revealed that there is no relationship between job satisfaction (thereby also motivation) and age, Robbins (2001) posits a view that age exerts an influence on job satisfaction. Jones Johnson and Johnson (2000) have found that older employees have the tendency to experience higher levels of job satisfaction, compared to their younger counterparts. This has been supported by Sui, Spector, Cooper and Donald (2001), who have found, in their research amongst managers, that age was positively related to job satisfaction and mental well-being.

Research by Roberts, 2005 found that employees in the age group 41-50 years reported lower levels of motivation and job satisfaction, than employees in the age groups up to 30 years and those older than 50 years of age. It also revealed that married employees reported the lowest levels of motivation and satisfaction. Furthermore, Schulze and Steyn (2003) found a correlation between age and marriage and the motivation and job satisfaction levels of respondents. Clarke as cited in Nagoorsamy (2004) argues that younger employees may experience satisfaction as a result of lacking experiences in the labour market against which they could conduct a comparative assessment of job satisfaction experiences.

2.6.3 MARITAL STATUS

Research by Roberts, 2005 revealed that married employees reported the lowest levels of motivation and satisfaction. Furthermore, Schulze and Steyn (2003) found a correlation between age and marriage and the motivation and job satisfaction levels of respondents. Research conducted amongst teachers in South Africa by Schulze

and Steyn (2003), found that female educators experience lesser degrees on satisfaction in the areas of salaries, biased evaluation of merit and for promotion, participation in decision-making and a fair workload. However they experienced greater levels of satisfaction in the areas of relationships with learners, pride in their work, self-esteem and love of their particular subject.

2.6.4 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Nagoorsamy (2004) postulates that employees express the desire to utilise their competencies (knowledge, experience and education) in their organisation, as they spend most of their time in the workplace. Although Groot and Maassen Van Den Brink (2002) have found that there is no significant effect of over qualification on job satisfaction, Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) observed that graduates and post graduates have less job satisfaction than employees with lower levels of qualifications. However, Reudavey (2001) could not find a relationship between job satisfaction and educational level.

2.6.5 RACE

Franks (2002), in research conducted amongst information technology specialists in the local government sector, found that a significant difference along racial lines as to which organisational and personal factors motivates employees and adds to job satisfaction.

2.6.6 GENDER

Nagoorsamy (2004) maintains that research on gender, job satisfaction and motivation are inconclusive on whether a significant difference exists, based on gender differences. However, Sousa-Poza (2003), in research conducted in Great Britain, has found that the job satisfaction of females have declined substantially over the past decade, whereas the level of job satisfaction in males have remained fairly consistent. Furthermore, Al-Mashaan (2003) have found that the job satisfaction levels of males are higher than those of females. It is thereby argued that males are more likely to utilise their competencies, compared to females who are likely to be exposed to more sources of stress (including those in the workplace and at home). Contrary to the aforementioned, Lambert et al. (2001) and other researchers, who have researched this area involving several different populations, have found that females demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts, across most settings.



2.6.7 TENURE

Roberts (2005) in a study at an insurance company in the Western Cape found that employees who had been working at the organisation for less than 5 years were the least motivated and experienced the lowest levels of job satisfaction. Schulze and Steyn's (2003) research amongst educators found that the more experienced the employee, as determined by length of service, the more easily motivated they would be and the higher the level of job satisfaction. Further research conducted by Bull (2005) lends some support to this argument and found a significant relationship between tenure and job satisfaction.

Nelson and Quick (2003) argue that satisfaction and performance is influenced by rewards received from the organisation as a result of rewards being valued by employees and it is perceived to have a direct link to their performance in the workplace. Job satisfaction is a factor which is argued to have an effect on the work performance of employees.

2.7 MANAGING EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

Armstrong (as cited in Boninelli & Meyer, 2004) defines performance management as a means of achieving improved individual outputs, within an agreed framework and which also leads to organisational achievement and rewards for employees.

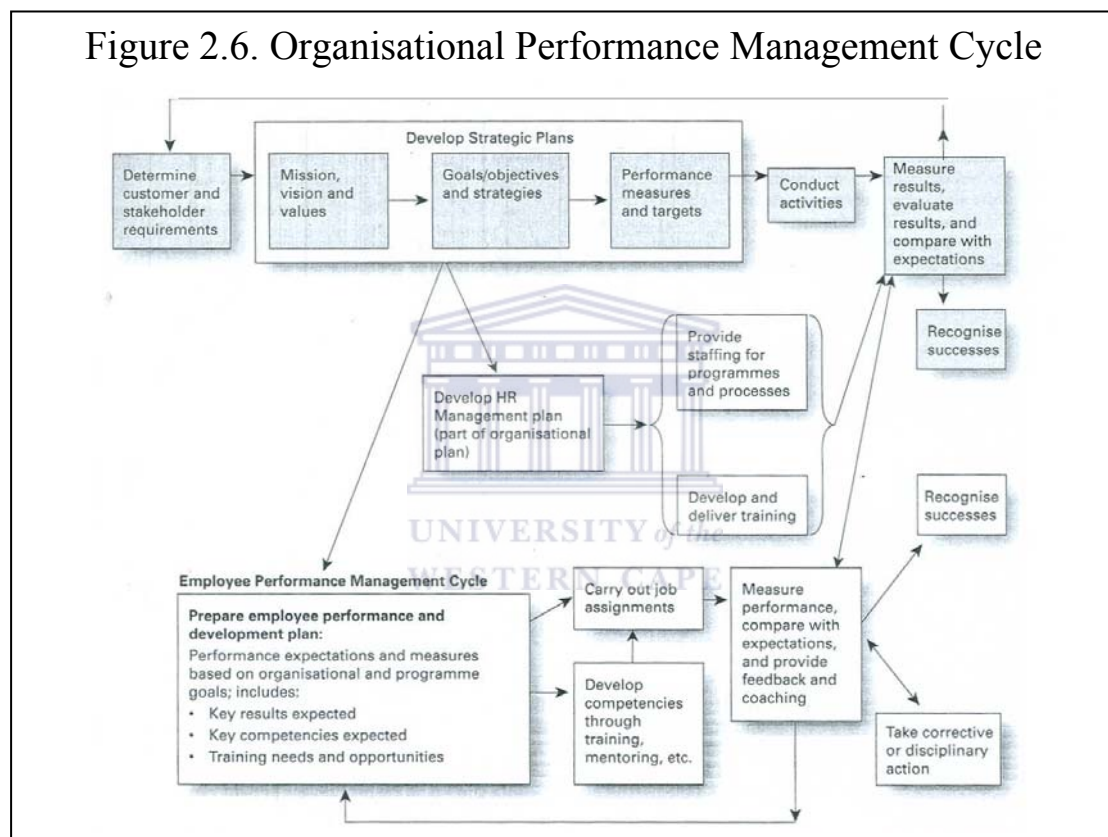
Bacal (2000) postulates further that performance management is a system which should be linked to a greater organisational system, which is related to amongst others organisational performance versus individual employee outputs, and rewards and recognition systems within the organisation.

Meyer and Kirsten (2005) maintain that performance management should be implemented in organisations to achieve, amongst others, the following objectives:

- (i) Create a performance culture
- (ii) Create a climate of motivation
- (iii) Link remuneration with performance
- (iv) Form a basis for career management.

Grobler et. al (2006) argue that the existence and proper implementation of a good performance management system within an organisation could assist both the organisation and the individual employee. It should provide direction in terms of what

level of performance is expected to achieve organisational and individual goals and how the achievement of this is linked to rewards for both the organisation (that is increased profitability) and individual employees (that is performance incentives). If both the organisation and individual employees within the organisation have a clear understanding of performance expectations, and the ensuing rewards for achieving those performance goals, it should lead to motivating individual employees and the organisation as a collective to work towards achieving those goals.



Source: Graham, J. (2004), as cited in Grobler et. al. (2006) *Human Resource Management in South Africa* (3rd ed.). London: Thomson Learning.

The success rate of performance management programmes within organisations would increase if employees become more involved in the planning and execution of performance management processes. Furthermore, line managers need to take increased responsibility for managing the performance of employees appropriately (Meyer & Kirsten, 2005). When applied correctly, most performance management systems should result in increased motivational levels of individual employees,

especially if they perceive performance rewards and the system itself being applied equitably throughout the organisation. Increased levels of motivation amongst employees should contribute towards increased performance and greater job satisfaction (Robbins et. al., 2003).

Stroh (2001) urges managers to be aware of the circumstances under which employees would be performing exceptionally well. These include situations where:

- (i) There is a high likelihood that their efforts will lead to positive outcomes,
- (ii) The likelihood of their achievements leading to the realisation of predetermined objectives,
- (iii) That the likelihood exists that their achievements will be recognised by the organisation and rewarded appropriately.

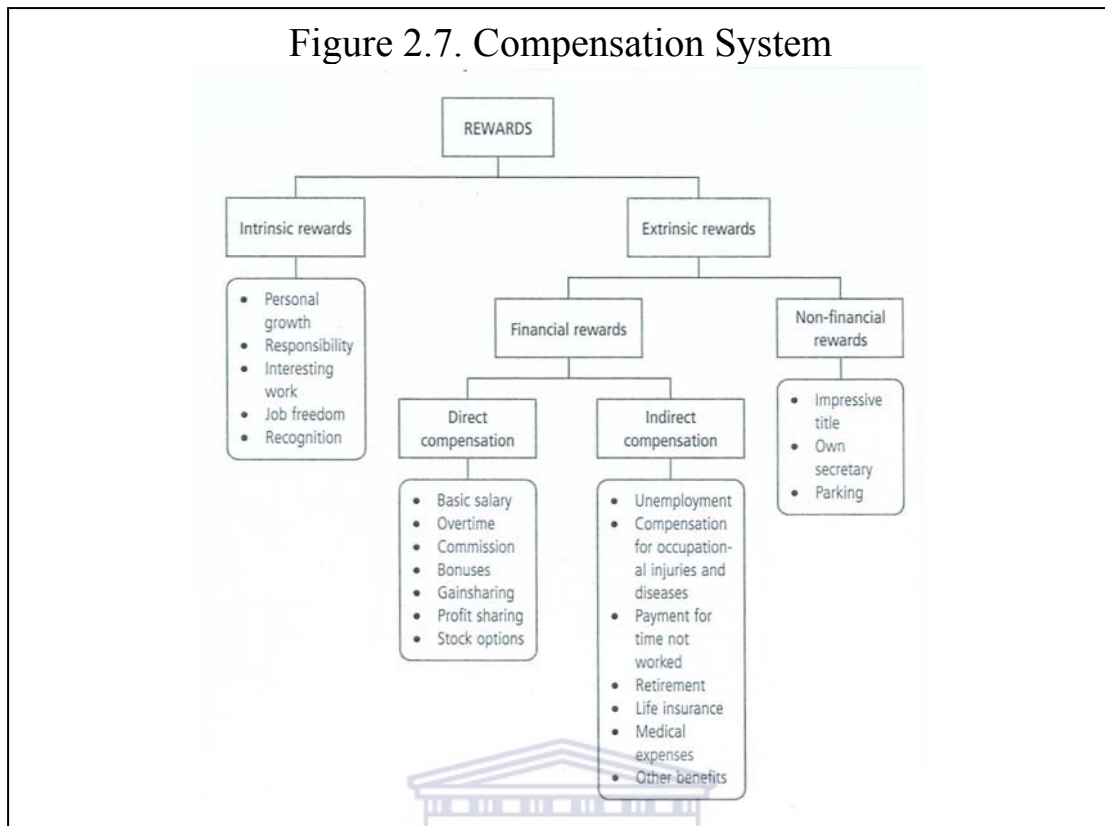
2.8 COMPENSATION/REWARDS/INCENTIVES/RECOGNITION MANAGEMENT



Based on the preceding discussions on motivation, job satisfaction and managing employee performance, it should have become apparent that motivating employees within an organisational setting requires a multi-faceted model. One of the factors to be considered is the management of compensation/rewards/incentives within an organisation.

Compensation is defined as the financial and non-financial extrinsic rewards provided by an organisation to employees, for utilisation of their competencies in an attempt to achieve organisational objectives (Meyer & Kirsten, 2005). Whereas intrinsic rewards are those which the employee experiences from the job itself, extrinsic rewards are sources other than the job itself.

Figure 2.7. Compensation System



Source: Meyer, M., & Kirsten, M., (2005). *Introduction to Human Resource Management*. Claremont: New Africa Books (Pty) Ltd.

Amos et. al., (2004) postulates that compensation management is related to motivation within an organisation. The various forms of compensation received by employees within the employment relationship leads to the satisfaction of various needs – from the most basic needs to higher order needs. The authors furthermore argue that the objective of an adequate compensation system should be to create a system of rewards perceived to be equitable to both the employer and employees and that the desired result should be an employee who is attracted to work and has a high level of motivation to perform well on the job.

Mol (as cited in Stroh, 2001, p.69) defines rewards as the offering of “something without obligation” and in recognition of good performance.

It is argued that at least two factors need to exist for a reward to be perceived as attractive - one being the quantity of what is being offered as a reward and secondly what value the individual employee attaches to what is being offered as a reward. Hence, the potential of what is being offered as a reward to motivate or increase the level of motivation is dependant on perceived value of reward and how much of it is being offered (Lawler, 2003).

Amos et. al., (2004) provide criteria for an effective compensation system:

(i) Adequacy:

Although the matter of adequacy is often influenced by external factors, such as the legislative and/or regulatory environment, the requirements of the post, organisational strategy and financial position of the organisation also contributes towards what levels of compensation are considered adequate, within a specific organisation.

(ii) Equitable:

This criterion refers to the equal pay for equal work principle and postulates that the value of a job should be determined in order of importance for the organisation.

(iii) Balanced:

A reasonable compensation system should consider the best mix of rewards with reference to intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and incentives.

(iv) Cost effectiveness:

Although the remuneration offered to employees should not be excessive, what is offered should take into consideration what the organisation can

afford, but also attract and retain competent staff especially in areas of scarce skills.

(v) Performance-related:

The role of incentives and bonuses and how exceptional achievement is rewarded should be clearly defined in the compensation system, as these have the potential to motivate effective and productive employees.

(vi) Acceptable to the employee:

If employees within the organisation consider the compensation system as reasonable and acceptable, they would perceive the standards set in such a system as attainable. Equity and adequacy, as previously discussed would also contribute towards acceptability.

In the absence of these factors the compensation or rewards system may not motivate in the long term and will discourage risk-taking behaviour (Roberts, 2005).

Meyer and Kirsten (2005) delineate several approaches to compensation management:

(i) Job-based approach:

This approach refers to compensation being offered through basic salaries which are determined by the relative importance of the job within the organisation, the need to ensure equity with regards to compensation within the organisation and external competitive salaries. This approach leans towards compensation in line with the value of the job to the organisation and is not based on actual performance against deliverables.

(ii) Time-based approach:

This refers to compensation being offered for actual time spent on the job.

(iii) Performance-based approach:

These systems are designed towards measurable performance results and may either be aimed at individual employees or groups of employees.

Furthermore, Meyer and Kirsten (2005) provide categories of performance-based systems:

- Individual incentive plans – which refer to compensation to individual employees based on their levels of productivity.
- Team incentive plans – which refers to incentives for achievement of group goals and are often paid to specific career groupings and project groups.
- Organisational incentive plans – which are based on total organisational performance and could include profit-sharing and employee stock ownership plans.

(iv) Person-based approach:

This refers to a compensation system where employees are allowed to take on additional activities to increase their compensation and include broadbanding (broad salary grades) and skills-based pay.

Broadbanding allows for employees to relocate between jobs without being hampered by narrow salary grades, while the skills-based approach allows for employees to be compensated based on their competencies (especially skills) on offer to the organisation. Financial rewards are linked to the acquiring of new skills and knowledge.

Notwithstanding all of the aforementioned, the most common challenge in organisations today is that non-financial recognition and/or appreciation seem to be absent from the workplace – although these are considered low cost-high benefit elements of any reward system (Sarvadi as cited in Roberts, 2005). Furthermore, Wiscombe (2002) argues that sufficient evidence exists of a significant correlation between non-financial rewards, incentives and improved performance on the job.

Non-financial recognition, as a motivational tool has been argued by Romano (2003) and Sarvadi (2005) to be an organisational imperative to increase levels of employee motivation, without astronomical costs. Public recognition of employees more often than not have a greater effect on levels of motivation than other approaches. Roberts (2005) further postulates that a genuine display of employee recognition by an organisation has profound positive spin-offs and furthermore realises that organisations have discovered that employee motivation is highly individualised.

It would be to the benefit of any organisation to establish what the factors are which would enhance the personal pride within an employee, as these factors would be valuable to those who are responsible for designing rewards and recognitions systems within organisations (Giles, 2004).

2.9 PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Wide-ranging research has been conducted on the employee motivation, job satisfaction, employee performance and how organisations need to deal with these issues.

Shultze and Steyn (2003) cite various studies regarding the motivation of educators.

Their results indicate that:

- (i) Educators experience great job satisfaction when they are able to assist learners to achieve positive results.
- (ii) There is a need for recognition and praise with educators for their achievements.
- (iii) They experience a sense of meaningfulness when it is acknowledged that they have a positive effect on the lives of others.
- (iv) The need exists amongst educators to develop and implement their own methods of work, without fear of the authorities.

The following extrinsic factors were identified through these studies:

- (i) There is a sense of inequity with regards to the salaries, compared to the job being performed.
- (ii) There is a high regard for relationships with colleagues
- (iii) An insecure working environment, such as possible retrenchments or changing curriculum, results in affected educators experiencing a sense of insecurity and these employees are not as motivated as those in a more secure environment.
- (iv) Discriminating actions against educators result in negative perceptions and reduces levels of motivation.

However, it must be stated that the research has found correlations between the above-mentioned results and biographical profiles, such as age, gender and years of experience.

Furthermore, Chiu (1999) cites research conducted amongst Hong Kong managers indicate a positive relationship between work motivation and pay equity and job

satisfaction. These findings are argued to be the result of, amongst others, possibly intrinsic motivators.

Louw, Meyer and Van Schalkwyk (2000) in their research amongst Environmental Officers have found that the officers who experienced job satisfaction have high levels of endurance and achievement, believe in their ability to control their own success, are action orientated and goal directed and are generally more motivated when it comes to achievement motivation. Furthermore, these officers are also more people, detail and business orientated.

Research by Oosthuizen (2001) in a technical division within Telkom SA, found that factors such as achievement, work itself and responsibility contributed substantially to the higher levels of motivation, compared to previous research conducted in 1998. Furthermore, the relationships between employees and supervisors and employees and co-workers are strong, and this was evident from investigating the satisfaction levels with factors such as work environment, relationships and supervision. These findings were also found to be consistent when comparing the finding of different regions.

A 2004 survey by Watson Wyatt found that only less than a quarter of employees are of the opinion that excellent performance is rewarded at their company, this despite the organisation perceiving its efforts towards performance and rewards as being satisfactory (Canadian employers, n.d., as cited in Roberts, 2005).

According to Mason (2001) recognition in various forms is a powerful retention strategy and does not have to be expensive. A study conducted by the US Department of Labour found that 46% of people leave their jobs because they feel unappreciated.

A survey conducted by Mercer in 2002 found that less than half of the respondents were of the opinion that their compensation was equitable, just more than a quarter of the respondents felt motivated by the organisation's incentives plan and almost the same number of respondents felt they were rewarded for outstanding performances. This study further revealed that of those who responded they were rewarded for good performance, an overwhelming majority experiences job satisfaction, almost the same high number of respondents are satisfied with the organisation and less than one-eighth of the respondents were seriously considering exiting the organisation (Compensation and Benefits Report, June 2003).

2.10 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

This chapter discussed a number of theories related to employee motivation and how this is affected by or has an effect on job satisfaction, employee performance and compensation systems within organisations. Shultz et. al. (2003) argue that each of the theories discussed contributes in its own unique way to enhance the understanding of employee motivation in the workplace. While the content theories provide insights into individuals and the needs which motivate them, the process theories focus on how individuals are motivated and each of these theories has a different approach.

While endeavouring to grasp the workplace perspectives of these theories managers should have a better understanding of how to manage the levels of motivation amongst their employees. Furthermore, organisations also should acknowledge that the bigger organisation also has a critical role to play in assisting managers in the management of motivation levels amongst employees, by ensuring that the organisational processes of, amongst others, performance management and

compensation management are designed to assist managers in managing employee motivation. Lawler (2003) supports this notion that an employee which is motivated, rewarded and feels recognised would feel at least moderately satisfied, which has the potential to lead to greater job satisfaction, increased employee motivation and increased individual and organisational performance.




CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the manner in which the research problem was investigated by referring to the sampling method, selection of respondents, data gathering instrument(s) (e.g. questionnaire) and the statistical techniques that were utilised. In conjunction with the literature review which was undertaken, empirical analyses were conducted to assess the hypotheses generated for the purpose of the study.

3.2. POPULATION



Neuman (2000) defines a research population as the specific pool of cases, individuals or group(s) of individuals which the researcher wishes to investigate. The population for this study comprised all employees of a government department within the Provincial Government Western Cape (N=140).

EMPLOYEE PROFILE OF A GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT WITHIN THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT WESTERN CAPE										
OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES	LEVEL	WHITES		COLOURED		BLACKS		INDIANS		TOTAL
		MALES	FEMALES	MALES	FEMALES	MALES	FEMALES	MALES	FEMALES	
<i>Senior Management</i>	13 to 16	2	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	7
<i>Middle Management/ Technical/Specialist</i>	11 to 12	2	4	13	7	2	1	0	2	31
<i>Technical/Specialist</i>	9 to 10	2	3	6	6	2	6	1	0	26
<i>Administrative</i>	7 to 8	0	5	8	10	4	4	0	1	32
<i>Elementary /Secretarial</i>	1 to 6	0	1	7	25	5	6	0	0	44
<i>Total</i>		6	14	37	49	13	17	1	3	140

Table 3. (a). Employee profile of a Government Department within the Provincial Government Western Cape. Adapted from statistics from the Personnel and Salary administration system (PERSAL) utilised within the South African Public Service.

In the South African public service, with reference to national and provincial government departments only, jobs are grade from salary levels 1 to 16. The Public Service Act (1994) and Public Service Regulations (2001) make specific reference to the grading of jobs and the prescribed processes for job evaluations, which refer to the examination of a job by scoring the level of functioning expected of the incumbent. Furthermore, posts within the public service are classified in the occupational categories as indicated in table 3.1 above.

3.3. SAMPLE

A sample is defined as “A subset of the population. It comprises some members selected from the population” (Sekaran, 2000, p.226). Somekh and Lewin (2005) refer to a sample as a selection of individuals from the entire population, who would be included in the data collection.

3.3.1. SAMPLING DESIGN

The type of non-probability sampling that was utilised for this research involved convenience sampling. Notwithstanding the methodological deficiencies, a non-probability sampling design is considered appropriate for the purpose of the proposed research, since it is less complicated than a probability sampling design, incurs less expense and may be done to take advantage of the available respondents without the statistical complexity of a probability sample (Welman & Kruger, 2001).

3.3.2. CONVENIENCE SAMPLING

When information is collected from members of the population who are most easily accessible and conveniently available to provide the required information, this refers to convenience sampling (Neuman, 2001). Sekaran (2000) argues that although convenience sampling is convenient, quick and less expensive than most other sampling techniques, the results are not generalisable, except to the extent of the organisations which are represented in the research. However, this type of sampling is a worthwhile tool in the exploratory period of a research project - a period in which

ideas and insights are more important than scientific objectivity – and in pilot studies (Welman & Kruger, 2001).

A current employee profile of the aforementioned population (Table 3.1) was utilised to identify all designated employees working in the organisation. The selected population size constitutes 140 employees and as viewed in Table 3.2, the ideal sample size constitutes approximately 103 individuals. For the purpose of this research 140 questionnaires were issued to the entire population, with the desired number of questionnaires being returned being set at 103 respondents (Table 3.2). This should have resulted in a return rate of approximately seventy-three percent (73.57%). However, only eighty-one (81) questionnaires were returned, which constitutes a return rate of close to fifty-eight percent (57.86%). This return rate is considered acceptable for this research, as Sekaran (2000) argues that a response rate of thirty percent (30%) is considered acceptable for most research purposes.

N	S	N	S	N	S
30	28	280	162	1500	306
40	36	290	165	1600	310
50	44	300	169	1700	313
60	52	320	175	1800	317
70	59	340	181	1900	320
80	66	360	186	2000	322
90	73	400	196	2200	327
95	76	420	201	2400	331
100	80	440	205	2600	335
110	86	460	210	2800	338
120	92	480	214	3000	341
130	97	500	217	3500	346
140	103	550	226	4500	354
150	108	600	234	5000	357
160	113	650	242	6000	361
170	118	700	248	7000	364
180	123	750	254	8000	367
190	127	800	260	9000	368
200	132	850	265	10000	370
210	136	900	269	15000	375
220	140	950	274	20000	377
230	144	1000	278	30000	379
240	148	1100	285	40000	380
250	152	1200	291	50000	381
260	155	1300	297	75000	382
270	159	1400	302	100000	384

Table 3.2. Sekaran (2000). Sample Size for a Given Population Size. Research methods for business: A skill-building approach. p.295

3.3.3. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

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

3.3.3.1. Gender

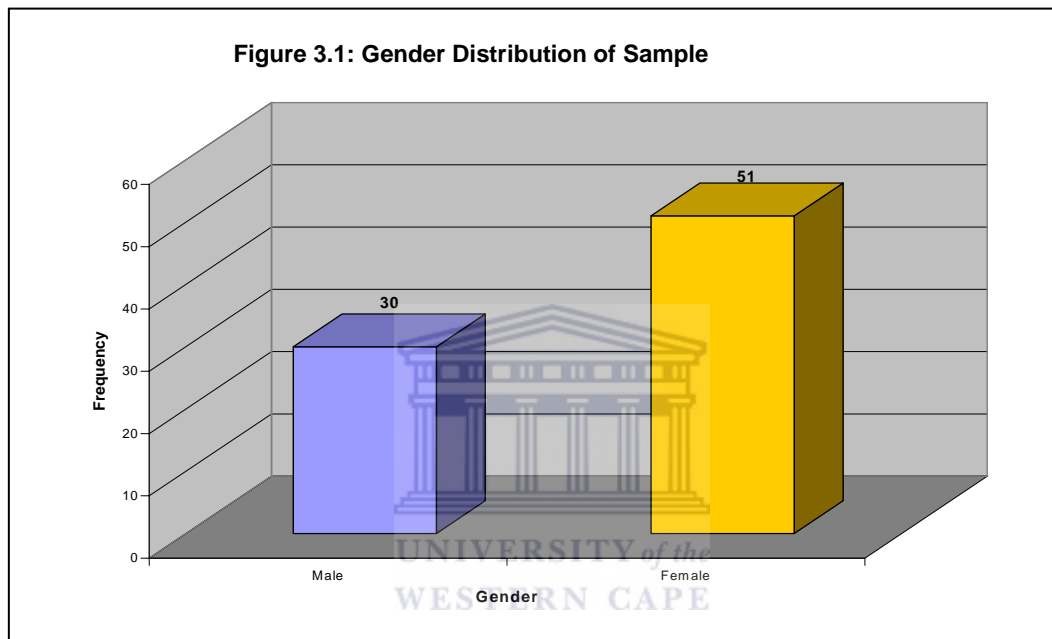
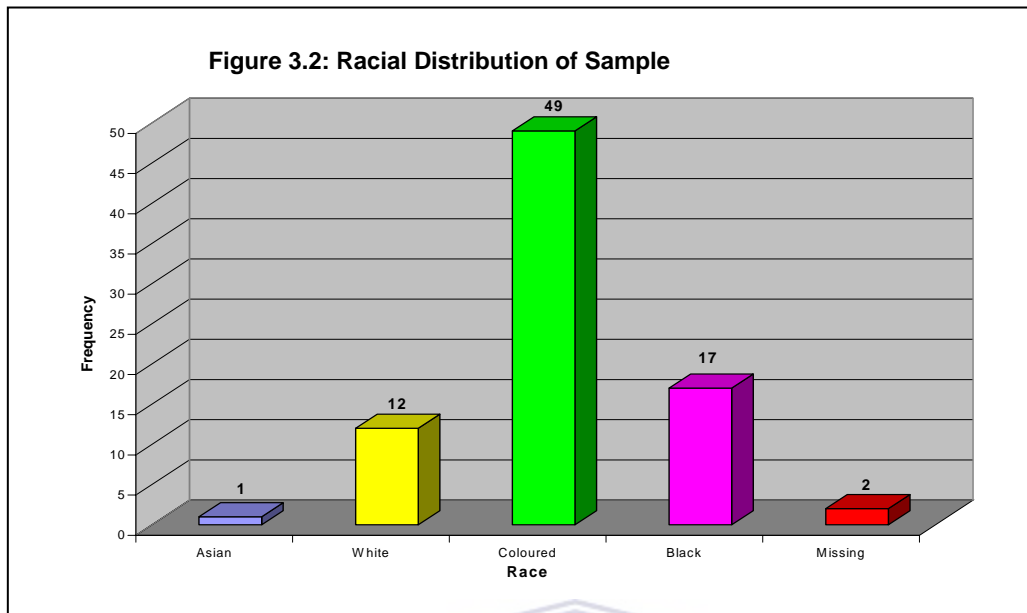


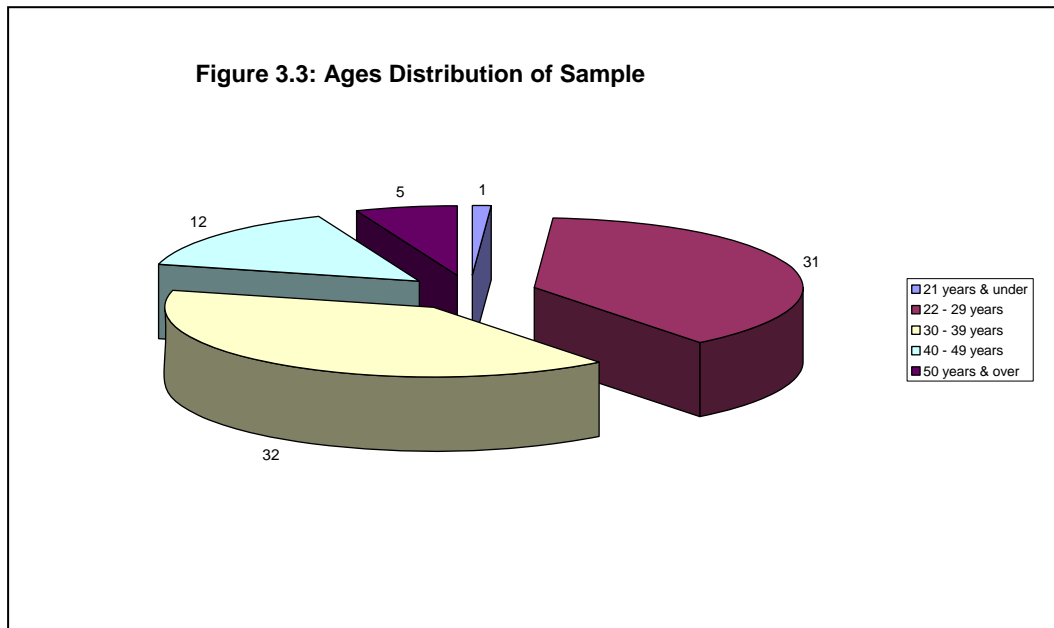
Figure 3.1 reflects that that 37% (N=30) of the respondents in the sample are male and 63% (N=51) of the respondents are female.

3.3.3.2. Race



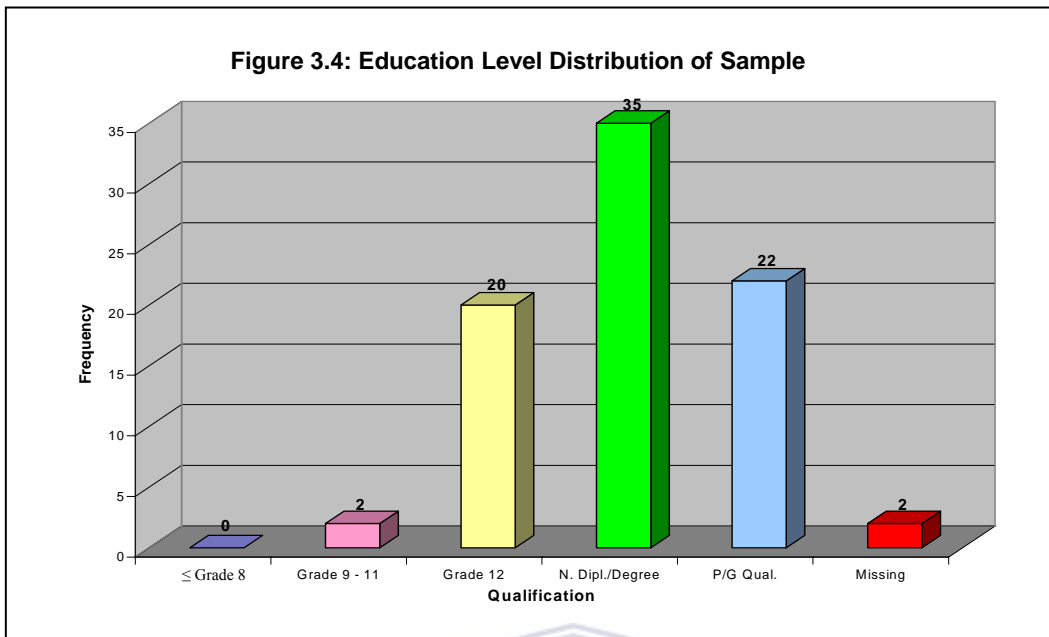
As illustrated in Figure 3.2 above, the racial composition of the sample comprises 1.2% (N=1) Asian respondents, 14.8% (N=12) White respondents, 60.5% Coloured (N=49) and 21% (N=17) Black respondents. A total of 2.5% (N=2) did not indicate their racial profile.

3.3.3.3. Age



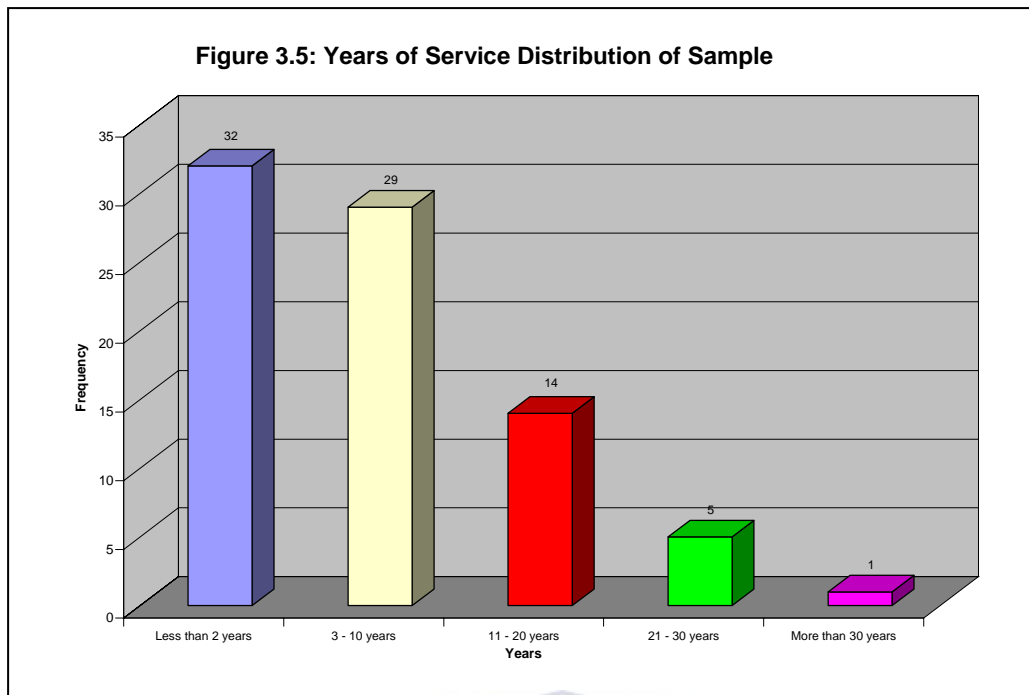
As reflected in Figure 3.3 above, the majority of the respondents (39.5%; N=32) fall within the age grouping of 30 – 39 years. 1.2% (N=1) of the respondents were 21 years or younger, while 6.17% (N=5) of the respondents were 50 years or older. A number of 32 respondents (38.27%) were between 22 and 29 years and 12 respondents (14.81%) were between 40 and 49 years. All respondents indicated their respective age grouping.

3.3.3.4. Educational Level



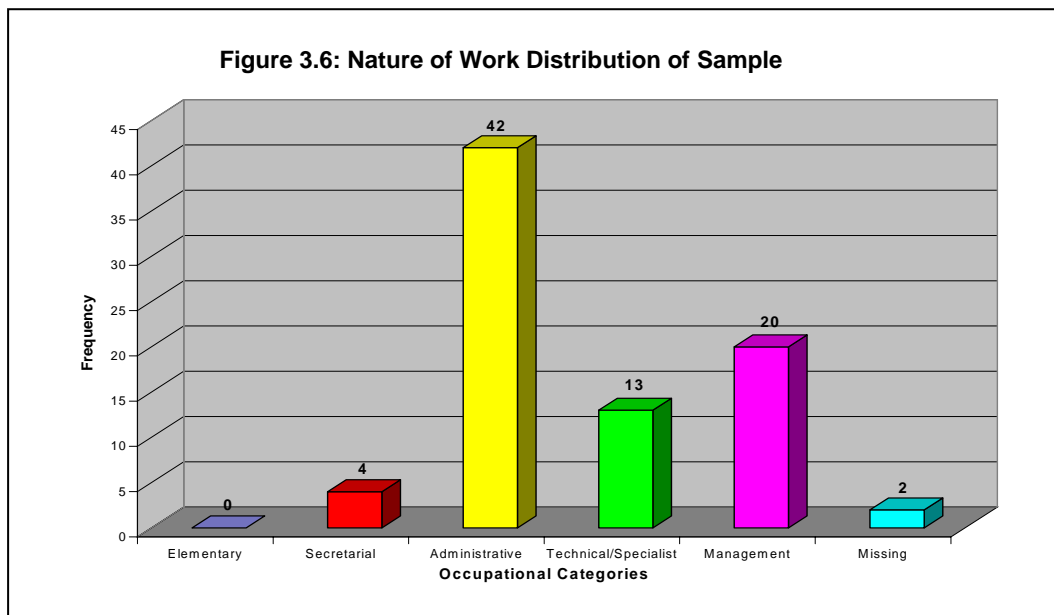
As reflected in Figure 3.4 above, the majority of the respondents (43.21%; N=35) of the respondents possess a 3 year National Diploma or a Degree, while 0% (N=0) and 2.47% (N=2) and 24.69% (N=20) have a Grade 9-11 and Grade 12 qualification respectively. A total of 22 respondents (27.16%) have a Post Graduate qualification, while 2.47% (N=2) of the respondents did not indicate their educational level.

3.3.3.5. Years of Service



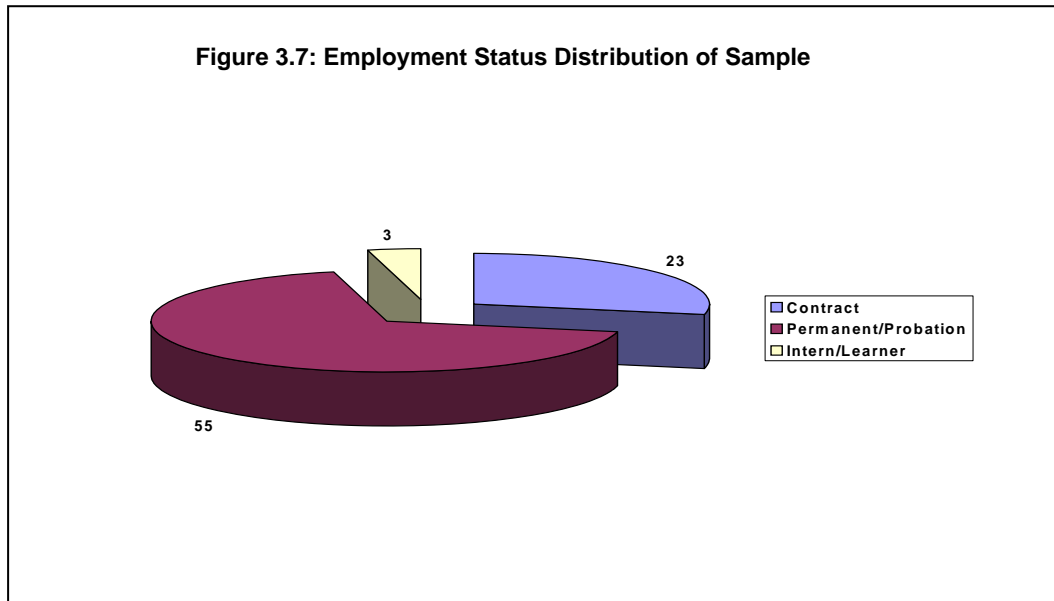
This variable assessed the years of service in the Public Service as a whole (all government departments: national and provincial) and not only the department where this research is being conducted. It can be viewed that a total of 32 respondents (39.51%) have equal or less than 2 years experience in the Public Service, while only 1.23% (N=1) of the respondents has more than thirty (30) years experience in the Public Service. 35.8% (N=29) and 17.28% (N=14) of the respondents has 3 to 10 years experience and 11 to 20 years Public Service experience respectively. A total of 5 respondents (6.17%) have between 21 and 30 years experience in the Public Service.

3.3.3.6. Nature of Work



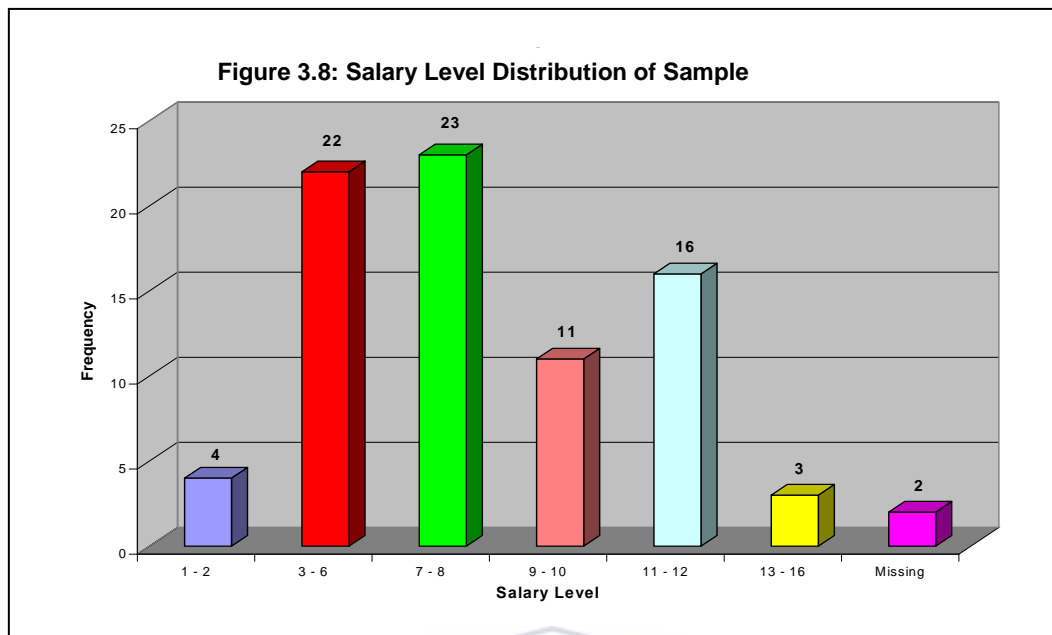
The categories provided as choices in this item were determined taking into consideration the occupational categories as per the determination by the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) framework(s). As reflected above, 51.85% (N=42) of the respondents were from the administrative occupational category, while a further 4.98% (N=4) were performing secretarial functions. A total of 13 respondents (16.05%) and 20 respondents (24.69%) were from the technical or specialist category and management category respectively. No respondents were from the elementary occupational category, yet 2.47% (N=2) of the respondents did not indicate from which occupational category they were.

3.3.3.7. Employment Status



As reflected in Figure 3.7 above, 67.9% (N=55) of the respondents were permanent employees or permanent on probation. A total of 23 respondents (28.4%) were employed on a fixed term contract and 3.7% of the respondents (N=3) were Interns or Learners.

3.3.3.8. Salary level



The salary levels provided as choices in this item were determined taking into consideration the levels as per the determination by the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) framework(s). Figure 3.8 above reflects that 28.4% (N=23) of the respondents were between salary levels 7 and 8. Furthermore, a total of 22 respondents (27.16%) and 16 respondents (19.75%) were between salary levels 3 to 6 and salary levels 11 and 12, respectively. 4.94% (N=4) of the respondents were between salary levels 1 to 2 and 13.58% (N=11) of the respondents were between salary levels 9 to 10. Although 3.7% (N=3) of the respondents were between salary levels 13 to 16 (Senior Management), 2.5% (N=2) of the respondents did not indicate their salary levels.

3.3.3.9. Marital Status

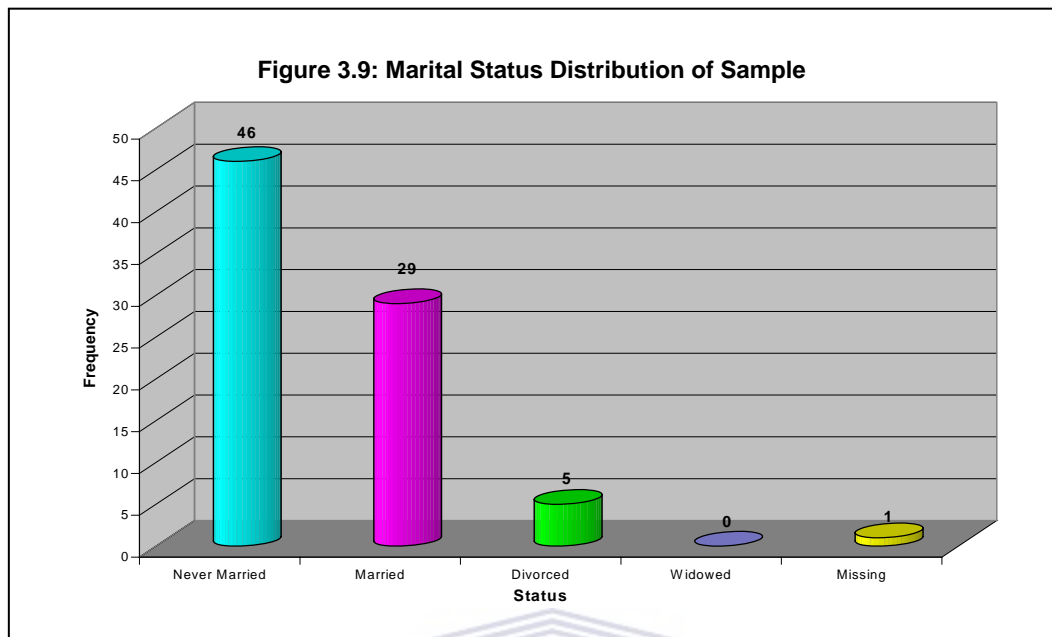


Figure 3.9 above illustrates that 56.79% (N=46) of the respondents were never married, while 6.17% (N=5) of the respondents are divorced. Furthermore, a total of 29 respondents (35.8%) are married. Although no respondents indicated that they were widowed, 1.23% (N=1) of the respondents did not indicate their marital status.

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.4.1. GATHERING OF THE DATA

For the purposes of this research, a questionnaire was considered appropriate as data gathering instrument. Denzin and Lincoln (2002) postulates that there are specific benefits of utilising questionnaires:

- a) The cost per questionnaire is relatively low.
- b) Structured information in the questionnaire and few open questions makes analysing questionnaires is relatively straightforward.
- c) Questionnaires give respondents extended time to formulate accurate responses.
- d) This method of data collection produces quick results.
- e) Questionnaires are a stable, consistent and uniform method of collecting data.

The limitation of using questionnaires can be summarised as follows:

- a) The negative reaction of the public towards questionnaires.
- b) Usage of questionnaires is limited to literate respondents.
- c) Questionnaires are time consuming due to the construction of a linguistic questionnaire and the response time of respondents (Bless & Higson-Smith, as cited in Roberts, 2005).
- d) Kerlinger, as cited in Roberts (2005) argues that the response rate for questionnaires tends to be relatively low. A response rate of between 20 to 40 percent (20% - 40%) can be expected when utilising questionnaires as a data gathering instrument (Bless & Higson-Smith, as cited in Roberts, 2005).

For the purpose of this study, the data gathering instruments that were utilised included a biographical questionnaire and the Work Motivation Questionnaire as set out by De Beer (1987).

Before distributing the research questionnaire, the researcher obtained official approval from the Head of Department in the Provincial Government Department where the research was conducted. The questionnaires were personally distributed to employees, per department and to the entire population. A box for returning the questionnaires was located within the offices of the secretary in the individual departmental units. The respondents were given twenty-four (24) hours to return their completed questionnaires. After each departmental unit's responses were collected, the researcher sent out a reminder to all employees requesting those employees who had not yet returned their completed questionnaires to do so within seventy-two (72) hours.

3.4.1.1. Biographical Questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire was a self-developed instrument, which embodies the following personal information of individual staff members (Appendix 2):

1. Race
2. Gender
3. Marital Status
4. Age
5. Educational Level
6. Years of Service in Public Service
7. Nature of Work
8. Employment Status
9. Salary Level

3.4.2. ORGANISATIONAL MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

3.4.2.1. Nature and Composition

This questionnaire, as set out by De Beer (1987), includes all sixteen factors (16) of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene or two-factor theory and consists of nine (9) categories:-

1. **Work content** – elicited the views of the respondents with regards to the type of work they do.
2. **Payment** – examines the respondents' satisfaction with their salaries.
3. **Promotion** – surveyed the promotional opportunities within the organisation.
4. **Recognition** – explored whether the respondents' were being recognised and were receiving feedback for their performance on the job.
5. **Working conditions** – attempts to determine whether opportunities were being created to socially interact with colleagues and establish interpersonal relations.
6. **Benefits** – probed whether the benefits (i.e. pension, medical schemes and leave, etc.) were of a satisfactory nature.
7. **Personal** – looked at the respondents' emotions towards their job.
8. **Leadership or supervision** – ascertained whether respondents were satisfied with the level/nature of management and supervision and the level of such satisfaction.
9. **General** – surveyed whether respondents' had contemplated exiting the organisation in favour of alternative employment, and hence their level of satisfaction with the organisation.

The questionnaire was constructed with forty-three (43) positively stated statements or items. Every item in the questionnaire contains a scale from one to nine as set out by Herzberg's motivational and hygiene factors and is classified into nine categories.

Each item allows the sample of subjects to make a choice between three answers, namely:

True	=	T
Not Certain	=	NC
False	=	F

For the purpose of this study all responses are coded in the following manner:

True	=	1
Not Certain	=	2
False	=	3



A total score can be calculated for every individual in the sample with reference to the nine appropriate categories. The individual scales can be plotted on a continuum of an extreme of one (satisfaction in terms of a specific need) and three (dissatisfaction in terms of the same need).

3.4.2.2. Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the consistency of results of a measuring tool, where as validity refers to whether the instrument has addressed what it was expected too address (Somekh & Lewin, 2005).

Roberts (2005) postulates the following with regards to the reliability and validity of the data collection instrument utilised:


- (i) De Beer (1987) performed an item analysis to assess the inter-item consistency of the Work Motivation and Satisfaction Questionnaire. This signified the consistency of responses to all the items delineated in the measuring instrument.
- (ii) The Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficients for the sub-components of the work satisfaction and motivation instrument 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 ($r = 0.75$).
- (iii) The internal consistency of the work motivation and satisfaction instrument was established by calculating the coefficient alphas and performing an item analysis and factor analysis (Prinsloo, 1996). It was then reported that the coefficient alpha is consistently high, ranging from .82 to .93, with a median of .90 for the instrument.
- (iv) The findings of the item analysis also revealed that each item had a positive correlation with the overall score for the work motivation and satisfaction instrument, with the average correlations extending from a low of .42 to .74, with a median correlation of .64. Prinsloo (1996) argues that this presupposes that the 43 items of the work motivation and satisfaction instrument are reasonably homogenous concerning the fundamental attitude construct they appraise. In the same way, the findings of the factor analysis substantiate

findings indicating that the items are assessing a single mutual underlying construct (Prinsloo, 1996).

- (v) The reliability of this instrument is established with the assistance of the SPSSX-programme in conjunction with Cronbach coefficient-alpha (Prinsloo 1996). The calculated coefficient-alpha is 0.82, which implies a strong positive item-homogeneity in this measuring instrument. This denotes as an indication of test reliability.

3.5. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

3.5.1. DATA ANALYSIS



The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14 was utilised to analyse and present the data in this research, with frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. Subsequently, the 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 calculated at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2000).

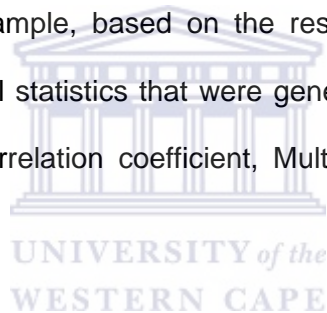
3.5.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics describe the raw data in a clear manner. According to Neuman (2000), this method enables the presentation of numerical data in a structured,

accurate and summarised manner. The descriptive statistics considered appropriate for the current research include the mean and standard deviation. According to Murphy and Davidshofer (1998), the mean refers to a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data, and what is commonly referred to as the average value for the distribution of scores. The standard deviation refers to measuring the square root of the variance. It is the standard measure of variability from the mean and a measure of dispersion (Sekaran, 2000).

3.5.3. INFERENCE STATISTICS

These refer to statistical methods that can be utilised to make inferences about a specific population and/or sample, based on the results of the study (Welman & Kruger, 2001). The inferential statistics that were generated involved the use of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, Multiple Regression analysis and Multiple Analysis of Variance.



3.5.3.1. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is utilised to establish the degree of a relationship between variables (Thorne & Giesen, 2003). Furthermore, correlation refers to the association between two (2) variables (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

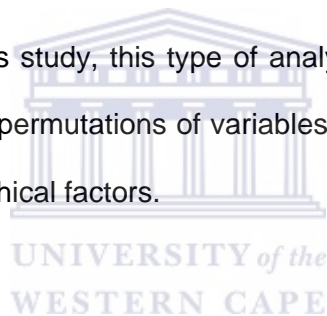
The outcome of this type of analysis results in the finding of whether a relationship exists between variables and the direction (negative or positive) and strength of such

a relationship – with a positive outcome denoting a direct relationship and a negative sign, an converse relationship (Thorne & Giesen, 2003).

3.5.3.2. Multiple Regression Analysis

This type of analysis is assumed to determine a combination of independent variables which predicts dependent variables (Tredoux & Durrheim, as cited in Whitlow, 2005). It is argued that this type of analysis furthermore measures the strength of the relation between one or more predictor variables and a target variable (Guyatt et al., as cited in Roberts, 2005).

With specific reference to this study, this type of analysis will assist in exemplifying how the variance in different permutations of variables in the proposed study can be elucidated by several biographical factors.



3.5.3.3. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

In this type of analysis comparisons can be made between groups, such as those found from analysing the biographical data in comparing group findings with regards to for example work motivation (Blaikie, 2003). Roberts (2005) argues that this type of analysis has the distinct advantage that all the groups are weighed against each other concomitantly with the appropriate variables.

Roberts (2005) acknowledges the following underpinnings on which ANOVA is grounded:

- a) The groups must be normally distributed.

- b) The groups must be independent.
- c) The population variance must be homogeneous.
- d) The population distribution must be normal.

ANOVA is employed to establish whether there is a difference in work motivation amongst employees in the different departmental units within the government department. This will be based on predetermined variables, including biographical variables.

3.6. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter endeavoured to describe and discuss the design of the research, including the research description, the research instrument and the procedure used to obtain the data. Furthermore, this chapter identified and provided insight into the statistical analysis techniques employed (descriptive and inferential analyses) and the relevance in testing the hypotheses of this study, as postulated in per Chapter 1.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results that were obtained after applying the statistical techniques outlined in Chapter 3. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, that is, motivation and job satisfaction, are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are then drawn on the basis of the obtained results.

The results of the statistical analysis, generated on the basis of the use of descriptive and inferential statistics, are presented in the forms of tables, graphs, measures of central tendency and dispersion and are subsequently discussed. The study analyses the motivation and job satisfaction of the sampled group to whom the questionnaires were administered, and analyses differences with respect to biographical variables. The level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 5%, with all statistical test results being computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2000).

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

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.

4.3 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.

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	81	1	3	1.28	.45
Payment	81	1	3	2.56	.32
Recognition	81	1	3	2.47	.42
Promotion	81	1	3	2.42	.30
Working conditions	81	1	3	1.49	.68
Benefits	81	1	3	2.45	.49
Personal	81	1	3	1.34	.41
Leadership/supervision	81	1	3	1.78	.39
General	81	1	3	1.42	1.1

- Where high scores correspond to low motivation and job satisfaction

The mean score (M=1.28) 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 that 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.

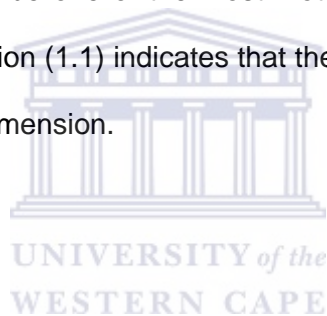
For the Working conditions, the mean score (M=1.49) indicates that respondents showed working conditions to be one of the most motivating and satisfying. However, the standard deviation (.68) indicates that there was a strong variation in the responses obtained. This indicates, that while some respondents 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 that 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.



4.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Table 4.2: Pearson's correlation matrix between the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

Variable	Work motivation and satisfaction	
	Pearson correlation	Significance (2-tailed)
Work content	.128	.147
Payment	.387**	.005
Promotion	.412**	.001
Recognition	.472**	.000
Working conditions	.155	.243
Benefits	.376**	.008
Personal	.116	.312
Leader/supervisor	.196*	.047
General	.150	.125

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

Table 4.2 indicates that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between payment and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=.387$, $p<0.01$). Similarly, there is a statistically significant positive relationship between promotion and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=.412$, $p<0.01$). There is a statistically significant and direct relationship between recognition and work motivation and satisfaction ($r=.472$, $p<0.01$). There is also a statistically significant correlation between benefits, motivation and satisfaction ($r=.376$, $p<0.01$). There is also a significant positive correlation between leadership/supervision and work motivation and satisfaction.

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

Table 4.3: Multiple Regression Analysis of the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

Multiple R	0.37651		
R Square	0.14176		
Adjusted R Square	0.10687		
Standard error	25.08685		
Degrees of freedom			
Regression	7		
Residual	123		
F	4.06328		
Sign F	0.0019 **		
Variable	Beta	T	Sig T
Work Content	0.036760	0.385	0.700
Payment	0.309654	1.171	0.004**
Promotion	0.346630	1.668	0.001**
Recognition	0.301364	3.003	0.003**
Working conditions	0.006946	0.065	0.078
Benefits	0.329132	0.270	0.001**
Personal	0.159733	2.570	0.011*
Leadership/supervision	0.125642	2.312	0.218
General	0.105214	1.120	0.272

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

From Table 4.3 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction is 0.37651, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.14176, it may be deduced that only 14.176% of the variance in work motivation 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 85.824% of the variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

Furthermore, it may be seen from Table 4.3 that when the other variables are controlled, three of the dimensions are significant. With a Beta-value of 0.259733, Personal reaches statistical significance at the 0.05 level. Furthermore, the Beta-value of 0.309654 obtained for Payment is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. With a Beta-value of 0.346630, Promotion reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level. In addition, Recognition with a Beta-value of 0.301364, reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level. Finally, with a Beta-value of 0.329132, Benefits reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level.

The remaining dimensions (work content, working conditions, leadership/supervision and general) did not contribute significantly to explaining the variance in work motivation and satisfaction.



4.5 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 4.4: 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 4.4 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 4.5: 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 4.5 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 4.6: 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 4.6 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 4.7: 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 4.7 indicates there are no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on age.

Table 4.8: 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 4.8 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.

**Table 4.9: 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 4.9 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.

There were no statistically significant differences in work content, working conditions, benefits, personal and general) based on tenure.

Table 4.10: Nature of work 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 4.10 indicate that there are no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on the nature of the work of employees.



Table 4.11: Employment status 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 4.11 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in payment based on employment status ($p < 0.05$). There was also a statistically significant difference on promotion based on employment status ($p < 0.01$). For the remaining dimensions, no significant differences were found.

Table 4.12: Salary level and the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction

Variable	F	P
Work Content	.556	.203
Payment	3.031	.031*
Promotion	3.307	.021*
Recognition	1.520	.065
Working conditions	.316	.780
Benefits	3.294	.028*
Personal	1.162	.073
Leadership/supervision	.267	.512
General	.436	.065

* $p < 0.05$

Results presented in Table 4.12 indicate that there are statistically significant differences in payment, promotion and benefits, respectively based on salary level ($p < 0.05$). There were no statistically significant differences in work content, recognition, working conditions, personal, leadership/supervision and general).



4.6 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	81	0.88	43

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. 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 or reliability.

4.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

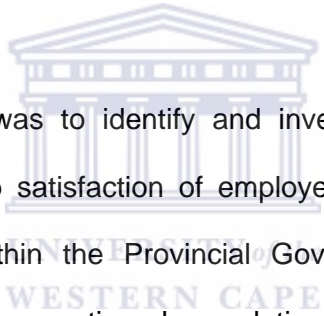
This chapter objectively presented the results of the study using descriptive statistics to describe the results and inferential statistics to make inferences about characteristics of the population based on the sample solicited to participate in the study. This enabled the researcher to identify significant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

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this Chapter the results described in Chapter 4 will be discussed in detail and where appropriate, current literature will be incorporated into the discussion. Furthermore, the Chapter will also elucidate some of the limitations of the study and the suggestions for future research will be addressed. The Chapter concludes with recommendations.

5.1 INTRODUCTION



The purpose of this study was to identify and investigate the factors linked to employee motivation and job satisfaction of employees at one (1) of the smaller government departments within the Provincial Government Western Cape. An employee profile of the aforementioned population was utilised to identify all designated employees working in the organisation. The selected population size constitutes 140 employees and the ideal sample size constitutes approximately 103 individuals.

For the purpose of this research 140 questionnaires were issued to the entire population, with the desired number of questionnaires being returned being set at 103 respondents. Eighty-one (81) questionnaires were returned, which constitutes a return rate of close to fifty-eight percent (57.86%).

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics provide information on the key demographic variables in the study and are presented below. This allows for the presentation of numerical research data in a structured, accurate and summarised manner (Neuman, 2000).

5.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: THE SAMPLE IN RELATION TO BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

The final sample consisted of 81 employees, of whom 37% (N=30) of the respondents in the sample are male and 63% (N=51) of the respondents are female.

The racial composition of the sample comprises 1.2% (N=1) Asian respondents, 14.8% (N=12) White respondents, 60.5% Coloured (N=49) and 21% (N=17) Black respondents. A total of 2.5% (N=2) did not indicate their racial profile.

The majority of the respondents (39.5%; N=32) fall within the age grouping of 30 – 39 years. 1.2% (N=1) of the respondents were 21 years or younger, while 6.17% (N=5) of the respondents were 50 years or older. A number of 32 respondents (38.27%) were between 22 and 29 years and 12 respondents (14.81%) were between 40 and 49 years. All respondents indicated their respective age grouping.

The majority of the respondents (43.21%; N=35) possess a 3 year National Diploma or a Degree, while 0% (N=0) and 2.47% (N=2) and 24.69% (N=20) have a Grade 9-11 and Grade 12 qualification respectively. A total of 22 respondents (27.16%) have a Post Graduate qualification, while 2.47% (N=2) of the respondents did not indicate their educational level.

This variable assessed the years of service in the Public Service as a whole (all government departments: national and provincial) and not only the department where this research is being conducted. A total of 32 respondents (39.51%) have equal or less than 2 years experience in the Public Service, while only 1.23% (N=1) of the respondents has more than thirty (30) years experience in the Public Service. 35.8% (N=29) and 17.28% (N=14) of the respondents has 3 to 10 years experience and 11 to 20 years Public Service experience respectively. A total of 5 respondents (6.17%) have between 21 and 30 years experience in the Public Service.

The categories provided as choices in this item were determined by considering the occupational categories as per the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) framework(s). A total of 51.85% (N=42) of the respondents were from the administrative occupational category, while a further 4.98% (N=4) were performing secretarial functions. A total of 13 respondents (16.05%) and 20 respondents (24.69%) were from the technical or specialist category and management category respectively. No respondents were from the elementary occupational category, yet 2.47% (N=2) of the respondents did not indicate from which occupational category they were.

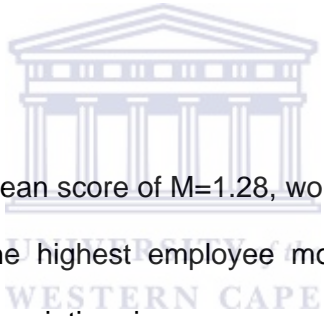
Of the sample, 67.9% (N=55) of the respondents were permanent employees or permanent on probation. A total of 23 respondents (28.4%) were employed on a fixed term contract and 3.7% of the respondents (N=3) were Interns or Learners.

The salary levels provided as choices in this item were determined considering the levels as per the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) framework(s). A total of 28.4% (N=23) of the respondents were between salary levels 7 and 8, while 22 respondents (27.16%) and 16 respondents (19.75%) were between salary levels 3 to 6 and salary levels 11 and 12, respectively. Furthermore, 4.94%

(N=4) of the respondents were between salary levels 1 to 2 and 13.58% (N=11) of the respondents were between salary levels 11 to 12. Although 3.7% (N=3) of the respondents were between salary levels 13 to 16 (Senior Management), 2.5% (N=2) of the respondents did not indicate a salary levels.

Some 56.79% (N=46) of the respondents were never married, while 6.17% (N=5) of the respondents are divorced. Furthermore, a total of 29 respondents (35.8%) are married. Although no respondents indicated that they were widowed, 1.23% (N=1) of the respondents did not indicate their marital status.

5.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN RELATION TO WORK MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION



This study found that with a mean score of $M=1.28$, work content was found to be the dimension which provided the highest employee motivation and job satisfaction, especially with a moderate variation in responses to this dimension (Standard deviation = .45).

Conversely, the dimension of Payment dimension was found to be one of the least motivating and satisfying, with a mean score of $M=2.56$ and a standard deviation of .32 (indicating similarity in the responses). Similarly, Recognition (mean score of $M=2.47$), which was also found to be one of the least motivating and satisfying aspects, although a standard deviation of .42 indicates that there were moderate variations in the responses obtained on this dimension.

The research also found that the dimension of Promotion (mean score of $M=2.42$) is also considered to be one of the dimensions which provided the least employee

motivation and job satisfaction, although responses did not differ substantially (standard deviation of .30).

Conversely, working conditions (mean score of $M=1.49$) indicates that respondents showed this dimension 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, others indicated it did not provide motivation and job satisfaction.

With regard to Benefits as a 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 this dimension to have been providing some of the highest motivation and job satisfaction. The standard deviation (.41) shows that moderate variation in the responses that were obtained with respect to personal.

So to did this study find that Leadership/supervision as a dimension ($M=1.78$) is one of the most motivating and satisfying, especially since the standard deviation (.39) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

Finally, although large variations in responses were found on the dimension of General (standard deviation of 1.1), this dimension was also found to be one of the most motivating and satisfying aspects amongst respondents (mean score of $M=1.42$).

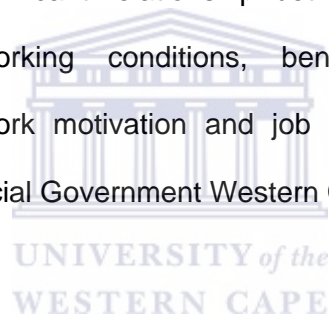
5.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

5.3.1 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The following hypotheses were investigated to explore the relationships between employee motivation and job satisfaction.

HYPOTHESIS 1:

There is no statistically significant relationship between work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership/supervision, general and work motivation and job satisfaction in a government department within the Provincial Government Western Cape.



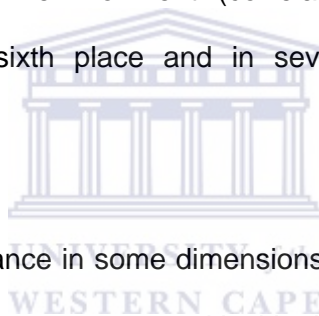
FINDING 1:

Results emanating from this research indicate that a statistically significant and direct correlation exists between work motivation, job satisfaction and payment; work motivation, job satisfaction and promotion; work motivation, job satisfaction and recognition; work motivation, job satisfaction and benefits; and work motivation, job satisfaction and leadership/supervision.

However, no significant correlation was found to exist between work motivation, job satisfaction and the remaining variables of work content, working conditions, personal and general.

Although this research has found that only five (5) of the nine (9) dimensions of work motivation and job satisfaction has a direct correlation, previous research have found that a significant statistical relationship does exist between all of the nine dimensions of the work motivation and satisfaction questionnaire, and that all the dimensions have a positive influence on motivation and satisfaction.

This previous research is supported by the survey findings of Mason, (2001) who conducted an employee retention survey in over 50 companies and found that what excites most people about their work is the opportunity to do challenging work, second was the opportunity to develop work-related skills (both correlates with work content), thirdly management behaviour (correlates with leadership/ supervision), in fourth place a positive work environment (correlates with working conditions), followed by recognition in sixth place and in seventh ranked order was pay, compensation and benefits.



The lack of statistical significance in some dimensions could be attributed to the fact that employees find some factors are more critical in their motivational influence than others (Mason, 2001). This view is also further supported by Mercer (2002) in research conducted in its “People at Work Survey”.

Research conducted by Schulze and Steyn (2003) amongst educators at primary school level similarly supports the findings of this study, and concurs with previous research which reveals the needs least satisfied were remuneration, promotion, professional status and appreciation of work well done.

Considering the above-mentioned, this study confirms that there are a number of factors that have an impact on work motivation and job satisfaction, but that some of

the factors could play a more defined role in shaping employee motivation. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

HYPOTHESIS 2:

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 satisfaction.

FINDING 2:

This study has found that it may be deduced that a relatively small variance in work motivation (14.176%) can be accounted for work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leader/supervisor and general. It is therefore further deduced that the greater percentage of variance in work motivation (85.824%) may be explained by factors other than those considered in this study.

Furthermore, it can be deduced that when the other variables are controlled, five of the dimensions (that is Personal, Payment, Promotion, Recognition and Benefits) reaches statistical significance. Draffe and Kossen (2002) support this finding and argue that if employees perceive opportunities for advancement and professional growth to be a reality, they tend to experience higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

Research conducted by Lambert et al, (2001) cite the significant impact of financial rewards (pay) on job satisfaction and Bull (2005), who conducted a study on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst high school teachers, found the findings of this research consistent with the notion that the importance of an individual is often being gauged by the financial rewards/remuneration received. Bull (2005) further argues that the greater the financial reward, the greater the perception of financial security, thereby leading to increased levels of self worth. Although Groot and Massen van den Brink (1999) did not find evidence of a relationship between pay and job satisfaction, their subsequent study in 2000 found evidence to the contrary. The findings of research conducted by Sousa-Poza (2000) revealed that income levels were ranked third in factors affecting job satisfaction.

However, in the current research it was found that the remaining dimensions of work content, working conditions, leadership/supervision and general did not contribute significantly to explaining the variance in work motivation and satisfaction.

However, in contradiction if this finding Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) found that job satisfaction is increased by desirable job characteristics, or the work itself. Job enlargement has also been found to have a significant impact on the job, thereby increasing job satisfaction (Culpin & Wright, 2002).

In addition, Morris (2004) found that the ability of supervisors to provide strong leadership (for example a principal within the school environment) has an effect on job satisfaction and that allowing opportunities for employees to participate in the governance of the institution and not just be a subordinate in the employment relationship has the potential for increasing the job satisfaction levels of those educators (Nagel & Brown, 2003).

Furthermore, Ngidi and Sibaya (2002) maintain that the effect of resource allocations on the working conditions has an effect on employee job satisfaction. The authors cite the example of the working conditions in disadvantaged schools often not being conducive to teaching and learning. This strengthens the argument that cohesion amongst employees is result of integrating work processes amongst organisational units (Lambert, Hogan, Barton & Lubbock, 2001).

Significantly, Morrison (2004) posits a view that the relationships amongst co-workers are a precursor of job satisfaction and Markiewicz et al. (2000) supports this view and expresses an opinion that there is a relationship between the quality of close relationships at work and employee job satisfaction. An important characteristic of relationship between co-workers is cohesiveness as it relates to the group's productivity (Robbins, 2001). Tinzer (2002) maintains that both socio-emotional cohesiveness – when individuals join a group to derive emotional satisfaction - and instrumental cohesiveness – interdependency of individuals to achieve a common goal – plays a significant role in realising job satisfaction.

Considering the above-mentioned and notwithstanding previous research to the contrary, the null hypothesis is rejected.

HYPOTHESIS 3:

There are no statistically significant differences in rewards and recognition based on the biographical variables (race, gender, marital status, age, educational level, years of services, nature of work, employment status and salary level).

FINDING 3:

3.1 GENDER:

This study has found significant differences in work motivation and job satisfaction based on payment, promotion, recognition and benefits between males and females. However, there were no statistically significant differences in the other dimensions (that is personal, work content, working conditions, leadership/supervision and general) of work motivation and job satisfaction, based on gender.

In support of this finding, research conducted amongst teachers in South Africa by Schulze and Steyn (2003), found that female educators needs' that were not satisfied included salary, biased evaluation of merit and for promotion, participation in decision-making and a fair workload. Roberts (2005), in her research on the relationship between rewards, recognition and motivation at an insurance company in the Western Cape, posits a view that further examination is necessary to establish the hindrances that female employees experience in the workplace and the role of the organisation to address these hindrances. Also, South African legislation such as the Employment Equity Act (1998) could assist to strengthen the position of women and other minorities in the workplace.

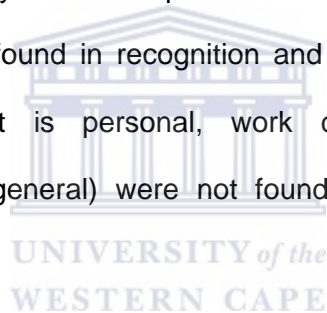
Roberts (2005) posits a view that management of human resources is a strategic function in addressing the needs of diverse groups of employees in the organisation and organisations should be proactive in designing and implementing transformation strategies.

In support of the findings of this study, research by Sousa-Poza (2003), Al-Mashaan (2003) and Lambert et al. (2001) have all found significant differences in work

motivation and job satisfaction between males and females. In contradiction to the aforementioned, Nagoorsamy (2004) maintains that research on gender, job satisfaction and motivation are inconclusive on whether a significant difference exists, based on gender differences.

3.2 RACE:

Franks (2002), in research conducted amongst information technology specialists in the local government sector, found that a significant difference along racial lines exist, as to which organisational and personal factors motivates employees and adds to job satisfaction. In support of the findings of Franks (2002), furthermore found significant differences in payment and promotion based on race and similarly, significant differences were found in recognition and benefits based on race. The remaining dimensions (that is personal, work content, working conditions, leadership/supervision and general) were not found to be significantly different, based on race.



3.3 MARITAL STATUS:

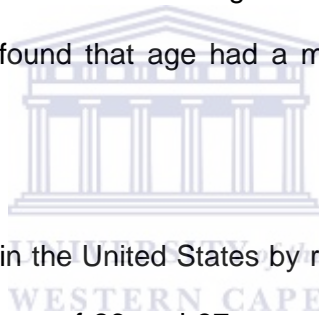
Statistically significant differences in working conditions based on marital status were found in this study. However, for the remaining dimensions of work motivation and job satisfaction (that is payment, promotion, recognition, benefits, personal, work content, leadership/supervision and general), no statistically significant differences based on marital status were found.

Although this finding is supported by Reudavey (2002) in research conducted in the Australian aviation industry, findings by other researchers are inconclusive.

3.4 AGE:

It was also further found that no statistically significant differences in the dimensions of work motivation and job satisfaction exist, based on age. However, previous research by Roberts (2005) found that employees in the age group 41-50 years reported lower levels of motivation and job satisfaction, than employees in the age groups up to 30 years and those older than 50 years of age. It also revealed that married employees reported the lowest levels of motivation and satisfaction.

Schulze and Steyn (2003) attributed statistical significant differences based on age to disillusionment of their respondents due to unfulfilled ambitions and their findings indicate that there is a correlation between age and marriage and the motivation levels of respondents. They found that age had a major impact on the motivation levels of educators.



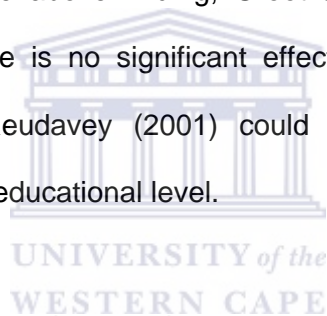
Research conducted in 2001 in the United States by research house Catalyst, found that employees between the age of 26 and 37 years, reject the stressors related to high-powered jobs in favour of personal and family goals. Organisations are therefore posed with the challenge of designing inimitable ways of enhancing employee performance in the workplace (Motivation, 2005).

Robbins (2001) posits a view that age exerts an influence on job satisfaction and Jones Johnson and Johnson (2000) have found that older employees have the tendency to experience higher levels of job satisfaction, compared to their younger counterparts. This has been supported by Sui, Spector, Cooper and Donald (2001), who have found, in their research amongst managers, that age was positively related to job satisfaction and mental well-being.

3.5 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL:

The results of this study depicts that there is a statistically significant difference in payment based on educational level and similarly, a significant difference exist 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.

Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) in their research observed that graduates and post graduates have less job satisfaction than employees with lower levels of qualifications. Contrary to the above finding, Groot and Maassen Van Den Brink (2002) have found that there is no significant effect of over qualification on job satisfaction. Furthermore, Reudavey (2001) could also not find a relationship between job satisfaction and educational level.



Nagoorsamy (2004) postulates that employees express the desire to utilise their competencies (knowledge, experience and education) in their organisation, as they spend most of their time in the workplace and given sufficient support for this finding.

3.6 TENURE:

A statistically significant difference was found to exist in payment, promotion and recognition, respectively based on the years of service. Moreover, there was a statistically significant difference in leadership/supervision based on the number of years' service in the organisation. However, it was found that no statistically

significant differences exist in work content, working conditions, benefits, personal and general based on tenure.

Research conducted by Schulze and Steyn's (2003) amongst educators found that the more experienced the employee, as determined by length of service, the more they were being influenced by the motivational factors considered in the study, and hence were inclined to be more easily motivated. Conversely, their research found that in employees with 6-10 years experience, only two of the factors were found to be most motivational. Further research conducted by Bull (2005) lends some support to this argument and found a significant relationship between tenure and job satisfaction.

Roberts (2005) postulates that the challenge for organisations is to establish the specific needs of employees with shorter services records (for example a retention strategy). From this study, previous studies as well as literature on the subject, it is evident that properly packaged rewards and recognition can be considered as the conduit between motivation and job performance and improved productivity.

3.7 NATURE OF WORK:

This research has found that no statistically significant differences exist in the dimensions of work motivation and satisfaction based on the nature of the work of employees.

3.8 EMPLOYMENT STATUS:

This study has found that there are statistically significant differences in payment based on employment status and that furthermore, there was also a statistically significant difference on promotion based on employment status. However, for the remaining dimensions (that is recognition, benefits, personal, work content, working conditions, leadership/supervision and general), no significant differences were found.

3.9 OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL:

Results of this study has revealed that although there are statistically significant differences in payment, promotion and benefits, respectively based on salary level, no statistically significant differences exist in work content, recognition, working conditions, personal, leadership/supervision and general.

Research by Gazioglu and Tanzel (2002) found managers and professionals significantly more satisfied with the influence over their job compared to sales executives. It is argued that this satisfaction stemmed from a greater sense of achievement and respect they received from their supervisors. In support of this, Franks (2002) found that employees at higher salary levels have a greater need for job satisfaction and motivation than lower level employees. Bull (2005), in research conducted amongst educators in disadvantaged areas of the Western Cape, also found that significant relationship exists between occupational level and job satisfaction.

Considering the above-mentioned and notwithstanding previous research to the contrary, the null hypothesis is accepted.

5.4 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aims of this research was to primarily investigate the role that various factors in motivating employees and to explore which of these factors have a greater impact on employee motivation and job satisfaction.

It is evident from the study that a variety of factors influence employee motivation and satisfaction. The study has also revealed that factors, other than those being assessed during this study, might also have a significant influence on employee motivation and job satisfaction. It was significant to discover that this study found that some of the factors assessed did not have an effect on employee motivation and job satisfaction, irrespective of previous research finding significant relationships between those factors and employee motivation and job satisfaction.

The Public Sector, focussed on delivery of services to the end user beneficiary, has increased its attempts to focus delivery on increasing job opportunities, addressing unemployment, providing basic health and social services, providing housing and providing quality basic education. Under these circumstances Public Sector organisations, such as the one at which the survey was conducted, could benefit by focussing on the factors that positively impact employee motivation and satisfaction. Although the compensation structure South African Public Service is managed on a national level, provincial administrations and even individual departments are provided with sufficient delegated powers to explore innovative methods of ways of motivating staff through monetary and non-monetary rewards and recognition programmes. Departments could benefit if they revisit their current offering and

include more of the essential elements of what staff would like to receive, such as recognition and acknowledgement (La Motta, 1995).

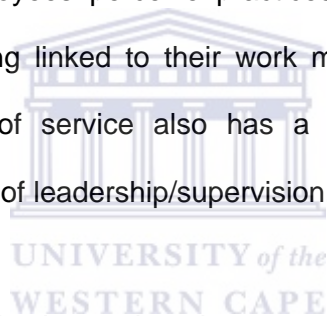
Innovative staff attraction and retention strategies, using private sector best practice models, could be designed and implemented to attract the right people to the organisation, and once they are on board, the organisation uses its rewards and recognition programmes to strategically channel their efforts in a way that drives individual performance in alignment with organisational objectives. Management should keep in mind that there should be a balance between the amount of effort required and the size or significance of what is being offered as a reward. It may affect motivation negatively if employees are of the opinion that the relative value of the reward does not warrant the amount of input they are required to give. "Reward and recognition programmes must provide equal treatment for equal accomplishments" (Stroh, 2001).

This study, not unlike other studies, has found significant differences in work motivation and job satisfaction based on payment, promotion, recognition and benefits between males and females. Furthermore, the study has found significant differences in payment and promotion based on race and similarly, significant differences were found in recognition and benefits based on race. This finding is supported by research conducted by Roberts (2005), although no other supporting studies could be located.

As the South African Public Service remuneration structures do not discriminate between race and gender, per occupational level, this finding would need further research to identify the rationale for responses collected. In the event of major inconsistencies in the areas of promotion, rewards and recognition, especially for staff on similar salary levels, a reassessment of these factors would be

recommended to establish the foundation(s) for such responses by those who participated in this research in order for the organisation to intervene in practices which might exacerbate these perceptions within the organisation. In the event of the organisation not intervening in the aforementioned areas, it could have an adverse affect on job performance, staff motivation, job satisfaction and has the potential to affect the retention of minorities. Roberts (2005) maintains a view that the lower level needs such as salary and benefits must be prioritised before the higher level needs, which impacts motivation can be satisfied. This argument is consistent with Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.

The findings of this study alluded to the fact that years of service in the organisation has an effect on how employees perceive practices of payment, promotion and recognition, respectively being linked to their work motivation and job satisfaction levels. Furthermore, years of service also has a significant influence on how employees perceive the level of leadership/supervision.



Given the fact that the organisation undergoing an extensive recruitment drive to fill more than 40% of its approved establishment, and all appointments are made to enhance demographic representivity, employees in this category may fall into the previously disadvantaged category. As this places the organisation under pressure to retain employees of this category, the organisation could benefit from implementing a retention strategy, which in itself has a strong focus on recognition. Significantly, such a strategy should apply to include, Blacks, women and the disabled.

Through this study, it was revealed that marital status of the respondents influenced their perception of how the working conditions impacts on their levels of motivation and job satisfaction. Roberts (2005) postulates that literature argues that organisational policies should enhance a healthy balance between work and life

management issues, as this could positively impact motivation and therefore, result in an increase in job performance and productivity. These areas could include flexible working hours, childcare facilities, employee assistance programmes.

5.4.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

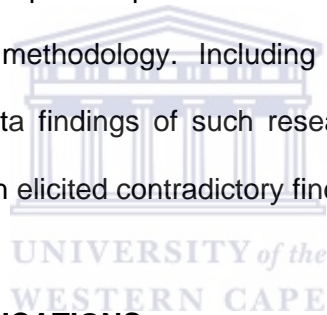
For the purpose of this research a convenience sampling method was utilised. As this is a non probability sampling method, this type of sampling lends itself to in the majority of cases reflect a non representative sample. This is evident from the fact that 63% of the respondents are female, 60.5% Coloureds and 51.85% of the respondents were from the administrative occupational category. This type of sampling also provides less control to the researcher over who participates in the study. A sampling method that lends itself to ensuring a more representative sample, could have enhanced representivity of the sample compared to the population and might have yielded different findings. This would enhance the probability of generalising the findings of the study to the population and also other organisations within the same sector.

Considering the above-mentioned, future research on work motivation and job satisfaction should explore the impact of diversity on these areas, for each of the factors identified in the questionnaire. Research should focus on the broad spectrum of diversity categories including, race, gender, disability, but apart from race and gender, factors such as age and tenure should also be investigated.

The results of such studies could yield some interesting findings and could also significantly impact the delivery of meaningful organisational strategies addressing motivation and job satisfaction for a diverse group of employees. According to La Motta (1995, p. 6), "motivation is simply the reason individuals have for doing the

things they do when and how they do them”. It should be acknowledge that various factors tend to motivate employees. The theories previously discussed in this study also postulate that depending on the individual circumstances, such as for example level within the organisation, different factors motivate different individuals. Hence, what motivates one employee may not necessarily motivate another. Also, what motivates one employee at a specific point in time may not motivate the same employee at a different point in time. This leads Roberts (2005) to maintain that a “one size fits all” approach to motivation and job satisfaction will not be sufficient to motivate people who are inherently different, due to their personality characteristics, but also due to diverse cultural characteristics.

Further studies could also incorporate qualitative research as the present study only used quantitative research methodology. Including qualitative methods of data collection may enrich the data findings of such research and may provide further clarity on similar studies which elicited contradictory findings.



5.4.2 MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

The needs theories postulate a relationship between the desire of employees to achieve and the effect such achievement has on the productivity of such employees. While the reinforcement theory provides the dimension of predicting for example quality and quantity of work, the equity theory predicts absence and turnover behaviour. The expectancy theory provides a powerful discourse on employee productivity, but assumes that no significant impediments are present in individual decision making about employment matters (Robbins, 2001).

In research conducted by The Creative Group (2006), it was found that 30% of executives consider employee motivation as their greatest management challenge. In

dealing with the challenges of employee motivation, Greenberg and Baron (2003) provide a view that the design of jobs could contribute towards enhancing employee motivation by:

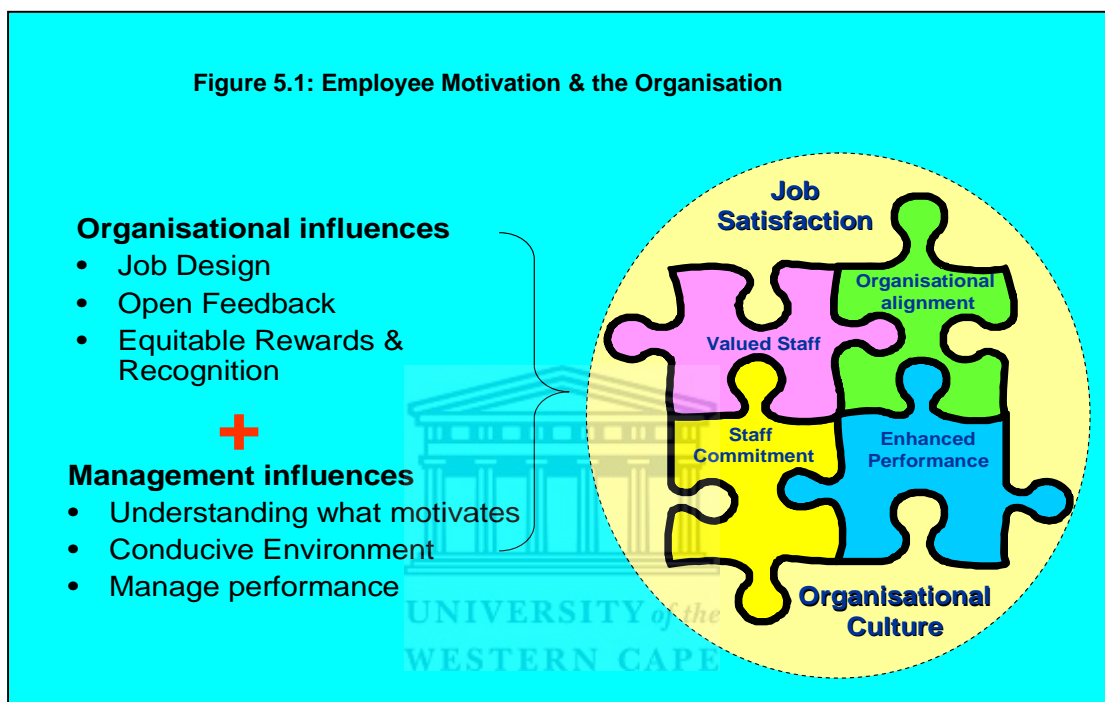
- Providing a variety of activities within one job will provide greater skills variety and task identity.
- Developing a corporate culture of open feedback regarding individual performance, which could also enhance the timeous implementation of corrective action.
- Organisations functioning within a service environment should design jobs in such a manner so as to allow employees to interact directly with the beneficiaries of their services, as this provides opportunity for direct feedback which could lead to improvement of service delivery and job performance.
- Providing greater responsibility to employees, by increasing responsibilities vertically and providing greater levels of autonomy.

Roberts (2005) also posits a view that organisations could harness employee motivation within the greater objective of improved organisational performance by ensuring that an equitable total rewards and recognition system is in place and that both management and employees understand such a system. Hartley (2007) postulates that organisations could gain the edge over their competitors by providing intrinsic rewards such as allowing employees to experience a sense of belonging.

Pearce (2007) argues that the following are amongst the key issues for successful motivation strategies:

- Identify what motivates individuals within the organisation
- Involve employees in high level processes
- Refine the management skill and lead by example

If organisational and management influences on employee motivation are managed appropriately it allows for the creation of a organisational environment which is conducive for job satisfaction and creates an organisational culture that lends itself to employee commitment, enhanced performance, employees feeling valued and organisational alignment as depicted in Figure 5.1 below.



5.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Organisations across the board are conceding to the noteworthy opportunity to improve the return on investments in their human resources, by aligning strategies for employee motivation with business strategy and enhancing the value delivered to and by employees. This has been identified as critical to the ability of the organisation to firstly attract, but also most importantly retaining critical skills and adding to the organisation's competitiveness in the global market.

The research study has demonstrated that organisations need to understand how employees are motivated and that the organisational strategies developed should be cognoscente of the fact that those strategies would have a different motivational impact on different employees and may affect an employee in different ways at different points in time due to conditions, needs and personal objectives are not stagnant but in constant state of flux (Roberts, 2005).

Furthermore, organisations also need to acknowledge that in a diverse workforce, trans-cultural issues (recognition of an individual's unique cultural values, beliefs and practices) also need to be understood when drafting and implementing these strategies.

In conclusion the findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study could potentially have enormous benefits for the organisation where this study was conducted and the recommendations should be considered against the impact it could have on enhancing both individual and organisational performance but also improving the relationship between the employee and his supervisor and the work environment.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Al-Mashaan, O.S. (2003). Associations among job satisfaction, pessimism, and psychosomatic symptoms of employees in the government sector. Psychological Reports, 93, 17-25.
- Amos, T., Ristow, A., & Ristow, L., (2004). Human Resource Management (2nd ed.). Lansdowne: Juta & Co. Ltd.
- Bacal, R. (2000). Performance Management. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Berg, Z. C., & Theron, A. L., (2003). Psychology in the Work Context (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.
- Blaikie, N. (2003). Analysing Quantitative Data. London: Sage Publications.
- Boninelli, I., & Meyer, T.N.A., (2004). Building Human Capital: South African Perspectives. Randburg: Knowres Publishing.
- Bull, I.H.F. (2005). The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst high school teachers in disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.
- Cascio, W.F. (2003). Managing Human Resources: Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profits (6th ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

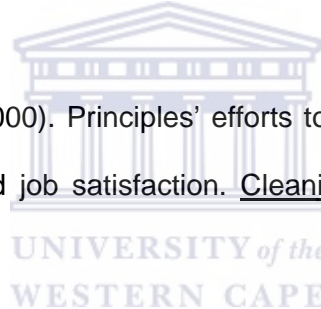
Chiu, R. (1999). Does perception of pay equity, pay satisfaction, and job satisfaction mediate the effect of positive affectivity on work motivation? Social Behavior and Personality, 28(2), 177-184.

Pay programs: few employees see the pay-for-performance connection. (2003). Compensation and Benefits Report, 17(6).

Culpin, O. & Wright, G.H. (2002). Women abroad: getting the best results from women managers. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 13(5), 784-801.

Daniels, A. C. (2000). Bringing out the best in people. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Davis, J & Wilson, S.M., (2000). Principals' efforts to empower teachers: Effects of teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Cleaning House, July-August, 73(6), 349-353.



De Beer, M.J. (1987). 'n Ondersoek na die rol wat arbeidsomset in die bedryf speel met spesifieke verwysing na werkbevrediging en werksmotivering. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Bloemfontein: University of the Free State.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S., (2000). Handbook of Qualitative Research (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Drafke, M.W. & Kossen, S. (1998). The human side of organisations. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

- Ehlers, T. & Lazenby, K. (2004). Strategic Management: Southern African concepts and cases. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Epstein, R., & Rogers, J., (2001). The Big Book of Motivation Games. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Erasmus, B., Swanepoel, B., Schenk, H., van der Westhuizen, E.J., & Wessels, J.S., (2005). South African Human Resource Management for the Public Sector. Lansdowne: Juta & Co. Ltd.
- Fisher, J., Katz, L-A., Miller, K., & Thatcher, A., (2003). South Africa at Work: Applying Psychology to Organisations. Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University Press.
- Franks, D. A. (2002). An investigation into the factors motivating information technology specialists in the local government sector. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.
- Gazioglu, S. & Tansel, A. (2002). Job Satisfaction, Work Environment and Relations with Managers in Britain. Ankara: Middle East Technical University.
- George, D & Mallery, P. (2003). SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gibson, J.L., Ivancevich, J.M. & Donnelly, J.H. (2000). Organizations: Behavior, structure, processes. Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Gibson, J.L., Ivancevich, J.M., Donnelly, J.H. & Konopaske, R. (2003). Organizations: Behavior, Structure, Processes (11th ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Giles, T., (2004). Non-monetary rewards as part of the remuneration equation. New Zealand Management, 51(9), 46-48.

Greenberg, J. & Baron, R.A., (2003). Behavior in Organizations (8th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Grobler, P.A., Warnich, S., Carrell, M.R., Elbert, N.F., & Hatfield, R.D., (2006). Human Resource Management in South Africa (3rd ed.). London: Thomson Learning.

Groot, W & Maassen van den Brink, H. (2002). Job satisfaction wages and allocation of men and women. [place of publication and publisher unknown].

Hartley, S. (2007). Motivating Workers. Business Date, 15(1), 1-3.

Jones Johnson, G. & Johnson, W.R. (2000). Perceived over qualification and dimensions of job satisfaction: A longitudinal analysis. Journal of Psychology, 34(5), 537-556.

Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (2004). Organizational Behavior (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

- Lambert, E.G., Hogan, N.L., Barton, A. & Lubbock, S.M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: A test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers, Social Science Journal, 38(2), 233-251.
- Lawler, E.E., (2003). Treat people right. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J. & Sparrowe, R.T. (2000). An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between job, interpersonal relations, and work outcomes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 407-416.
- Louw, A.D., Meyer, J.C. & Van Schalkwyk, D.J. (2000). A Comparison of the Job-Satisfied and Job-Dissatisfied Environmental Health Officer in South Africa. Journal of Industrial Psychology, 26(2), 27-30.
- Luthans, F., (2002). Organizational Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Mason, L.J. Retaining Key Personnel. Plus: Top 10 Retention Tips. Stress Education Center. (<http://www.dstress.com>). Retrieved on 03/01/2007.
- McKenna, E. (2000). Business psychology and organizational behavior: a student's handbook. Philadelphia, Penn: Psychology Press.
- Meyer, M. (2002). Managing Human Resource Development: An Outcomes-based Approach (2nd ed.). Durban: LexisNexis Buttersworths.
- Meyer, M., & Kirsten, M., (2005). Introduction to Human Resource Management. Claremont: New Africa Books (Pty) Ltd.

Morris, M. (2004). The public school as workplace: The principal as a key element in teacher satisfaction. Los Angelis: California University.

Motivation: A Management Challenge? (2006). (<http://www.thecreativegroup.com>). Retrieved on 28/04/2007.

Motivation: What makes us tick? People Development. (2005).

Murphy, K.R. & Davidshofer, C.O. (1998). Psychological Testing: Principles and Applications (4th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc.

Nagoorsamy, A. C. (2004). The effect of job satisfaction on family relationships among Indian married women. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Durban: University of Kwa-Zulu Natal.

Nel, P.S., Gerber, P.D., van Dyk, P.S., Haasbroek, G.D., Schultz, H.B., Sono, T., & Werner, A., (2001). Human Resources Management. Cape Town: Oxford.

Nelson, D.L. & Quick, J.C. (2003). Organizational Behavior: Foundations, Realities and Challenges (4th ed.). Ohio: Thomson South-Western.

Neuman, W.L. (2000). Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Newstom, J.W. & Davis, K. (2002). Organizational Behavior: Human Behavior at work (11th ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Ngidi, D.P. & Sibaya, P.T. (2002). Black teacher's personality dimensions and work-related stress factors. South African Journal of Psychology, 32(3), 7-15.

Oosthuizen, T.F.J., (2001). Motivation influencing worker performance in a technical division of Telkom SA. Acta Commercii, Vol. 1, 19-20.

Pay programs: few employees see the pay-for-performance connection. (2003). Compensation and Benefits Report, 17(6).

Pearce, C. (2007). Ten steps to staff motivation. Nursing Management, 13(9), 21.

Prinsloo, I. (1996). Die effek van regstellende aksie op die werkmotivering van 'n groep swart administratiewe werkers. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.

Republic of South Africa. (1994). Public Service Act. Act 103 of 1994. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. (2001). Public Service Regulations. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Reudavey, P. G. (2001). An examination of Job Satisfaction and Employees Motivation of Ground Crew Staff within Ansett, Australia. Working Paper Series, School of Management: Curtin University of Technology.

Robbins, S.P. (2001). Organisational Behaviour (9th ed.). New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Robbins, S.P., Odendaal, A. & Roodt, G. (2003). Organisational Behavior: Global and South African Perspectives. Pinelands: Pearson Education Inc.

Roberts, R., L., (2005). The Relationship between Rewards, Recognition and Motivation at an Insurance Company in the Western Cape. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Romano, L., (2003). Beyond reward: why cash is no longer enough. Rewards, 3(1), 12-13.

Sarvadi, P., (2005). The best way to reward employees. Solutions for growing business: Entrepreneur.com.

Schultz, H., Bagraim, J., Potgieter, T., Viedge, C., & Werner, A., (2003). Organisational Behaviour: A Contemporary South African Perspective. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Schulze, S., & Steyn, T., (2003). Educator's motivation: differences related to gender, age and experience. Acta Academia, 35(3), 138-160.

Sekaran, U. (2000). Research methods for business: A skills building approach. (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Somekh, B. & Lewin, C. (2005). Research Methods in the Social Sciences. London: Sage Publications.

Sousa-Poza, T. (2003). Gender differences in job satisfaction in Great Britain, 1991-2000: permanent or transitory? Applied Economics Letters, 10(11), 691.

Steyn, G. M. (2002). A theoretical analysis of educator motivation and morale. Educare, 31(2), 82-101.

Stroh, E.C., (2001). Personnel motivation: Strategies to stimulate employees to increase performance, Politeia, 20(2), 59-74.

Sui, O., Spector, P., Cooper, C. & Donald, I. (2001). Age differences in coping and locus of control: A study of managerial stress in Hong Kong. Psychology and Aging, 16, 707-710.

Swanepoel, B., Erasmus, B., Van Wyk, M., & Schenk, H., (2003). South African Human Resource Management: Theory & Practice (3rd ed.). Lansdowne: Juta & Co. Ltd.



Thorne, B.M. & Giesen, J.M. (2003). Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (4th ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Tinzer, A. (2002). Human Resource Management and Organisational Behaviour: Selected Perspectives. England: Ashgate Publishing Company.

Viedge, C. (2003). Performance Management in a Learning Organisation. In Schultz, H., (Ed.) Organisational Behaviour: A Contemporary South African Perspective. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Welman, J.C. & Kruger, S.J. (2001). Research Methodology (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wevers, N.E. (2000). Opvoedermotivering in die Oos-Kaap. M.Ed verhandeling. Pretoria: Universiteit van Suid-Afrika.

Whitlow, L. (2005). The Difference in Stress Levels of Teacher at Previously Advantaged and Previously Disadvantaged Schools in the Western Cape. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Wiscombe, J., (2002). Rewards get results: Put away your cash. Workforce, 8(1), 42-47



COVER PAGE: WORK SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleagues/Respondent

I am currently in the process of conducting research regarding **Work Motivation amongst Employees in a Government Department in the Provincial Government Western Cape.**

For this purpose, the attached questionnaire has been selected for administration in this Department. Furthermore, a Biographical Questionnaire has been included but please note that items within the Biographical Questionnaire are for statistical purposes only.

The information collected from these questionnaires will be used for the completion of a Thesis towards a Magister Administrations Degree. The results of the study will also be made available to the Department to enhance the quality of work life of employees.

You are requested to answer all questions honestly and as accurately as possible. All the information obtained through this research will be treated as confidential and no personal details (e.g. Name and Surname) are required.

For any enquiries in the above regard, please contact:

Romeo Adams

Tel.: +27 (0)21 483 9141 Cell.: +27 (0)82 853 4468

E-mail.: roadams@pgwc.gov.za

Your cooperation in the above-mentioned would be greatly appreciated.

Kind regards



Romeo Adams

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

(Information about yourself)

GENERAL INFORMATION / INSTRUCTIONS

- (i) Information requested for statistical purposes **ONLY**.
- (ii) Responses provided will be strictly **CONFIDENTIAL**.
- (iii) Please mark the appropriate response with a cross (X).

PERSONAL

1. Race

Asian	1
White	2
Coloured	3
Black	4

2. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

3. Marital Status

Never married	1
Married	2
Divorced	3
Widowed	4

4. Age

21 years and younger	1
22 – 29 years	2
30 – 39 years	3
40 – 49 years	4
50 and older	5

5. Educational Level

Up to Grade 8	1
Grade 9 – Grade 11	2
Grade 12	3
3 year National Diploma/Degree	4
Post Graduate Qualification	5

EMPLOYMENT

6. Years of service in the Public Service

Less than 2 years	1
3 – 10 years	2
11 – 20 years	3
21 – 30 years	4
More than 30 years	5

7. Nature of your work

Elementary	1
Secretarial	2
Administrative	3
Technical/Specialist	4
Management	5

8. Employment Status

Contract	1
Permanent/Probation	2
Intern/Learner	3

9. Salary Level

1 – 2	1
3 – 6	2
7 – 8	3
9 – 10	4
11 – 12	5
13 – 16	6

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 OF ANSWERING QUESTIONS

With each question, you have a choice of three (3) answers.

Choose one (1) of the following:

TRUE = T

NOT SURE = NS

UNTRUE = U

Mark your answer with a cross (X).

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 of 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

Mark your answer with a cross (X).

	T	NS	U
3.15 I feel that my work is of value in my department	1	2	3
3.16 There is no 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 for 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 of being 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 for 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

Mark your answer with a cross (X).

T NS U

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/SUPERVISOR

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 be sure you have not missed any questions out.